

6-11-2019

## Employee Attribution of Human Resource Practices and Implications for Commitment, Turnover and Job Performance in Local Government Police

Merlene V. Reid  
*Florida International University, mreid028@fiu.edu*

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalcommons.fiu.edu/etd>



Part of the [Human Resources Management Commons](#), and the [Organization Development Commons](#)

---

### Recommended Citation

Reid, Merlene V., "Employee Attribution of Human Resource Practices and Implications for Commitment, Turnover and Job Performance in Local Government Police" (2019). *FIU Electronic Theses and Dissertations*. 4259.

<https://digitalcommons.fiu.edu/etd/4259>

This work is brought to you for free and open access by the University Graduate School at FIU Digital Commons. It has been accepted for inclusion in FIU Electronic Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of FIU Digital Commons. For more information, please contact [dcc@fiu.edu](mailto:dcc@fiu.edu).

FLORIDA INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY

Miami, Florida

EMPLOYEE ATTRIBUTION OF HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTICES AND  
IMPLICATIONS FOR COMMITMENT, TURNOVER AND JOB PERFORMANCE IN  
LOCAL GOVERNMENT POLICE AGENCIES IN FLORIDA

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of

the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

in

ADULT EDUCATION

AND

HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

by

Merlene Verona Reid

2019

To: Dean Michael R. Heithaus  
College of Arts, Sciences and Education

This dissertation, written by Merlene Verona Reid, and entitled Employee Attribution of Human Resource Practices and Implications for Commitment, Turnover and Job Performance in Local Government Police Agencies in Florida, having been approved in respect to style and intellectual content, is referred to you for judgment.

We have read this thesis and recommend that it be approved.

---

Haiying Long

---

Judith Bernier

---

Hyejin Bang

---

Thomas G. Reio, Jr., Major Professor

Date of Defense: June 11, 2019

The dissertation of Merlene Verona Reid is approved.

---

Dean Michael R. Heithaus  
College of Arts, Sciences and Education

---

Andrés G. Gil  
Vice President for Research and Economic Development  
and Dean of the University Graduate School

Florida International University, 2019

© Copyright 2019 by Merlene Verona Reid

All rights reserved.

## DEDICATION

To my two sons, Daniel and Joel and my nieces and nephews. My wish for you is continuous, transformational learning. In the words of Nelson Mandela ~ Education is the most powerful weapon which you can use to change the world.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

It has been a long, demanding and rewarding journey with support from faculty, family and friends. First, I must thank Dr. Thomas G. Reio, Jr., my dissertation chair for his guidance along the way in making this research project a reality with his insightful comments that kept me focused on my deliverables. Special thanks to Dr. Haiying Long for helping with my methodology and data analysis. Her assistance and feedback were sincerely appreciated. Thank you also to Dr. Hyejin Bang, and Dr. Judith Bernier, who served on my committee and provided well-needed feedback. Thank you all for spending many hours reading and providing your comments over the past few years. Without you, this study would not have evolved into a paper that I am very proud to present.

A very special thank-you to Police Chief Sean Hemingway, who worked so hard to get his colleagues' participation and without whose help, this project would have been stillborn. Thank you to the nine agencies that participated and their chiefs for giving their consent, to the Village of Tequesta for approving the pilot study with our officers, and to Alan Chertok for reviewing the questionnaire and making valuable suggestions.

Thank you to my immediate family who have always believed in, and supported me; my mother Monica, sisters Sharon, Sonia and Denise, brother Andy and brothers-in-law Michael and Karl. To my husband Clifton, thank you for not complaining once over the past 7 years about the number of hours spent on this program and for picking up the bulk of the household tasks. To my two sons Daniel and Joel, my continued wish for you is lifelong learning and that you absorb the many lessons life offers. To my dear friends, colleagues and the inspirational students that I met along my FIU journey, thank you for leaving a small piece of your humanity with me.

ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

EMPLOYEE ATTRIBUTION OF HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTICES AND  
IMPLICATIONS FOR COMMITMENT, TURNOVER AND JOB PERFORMANCE IN  
LOCAL GOVERNMENT POLICE AGENCIES IN FLORIDA

by

Merlene Verona Reid

Florida International University, 2019

Miami, Florida

Professor Thomas G. Reio, Jr., Major Professor

The explanatory, non-experimental study examined the relationship between employees Attribution of Human Resource (HR) Practices, organizational commitment, turnover intent and extra-role job performance. Using data from an online, self-report survey of 147 police officers, four hypotheses were tested via Structural Equation Model (SEM), multivariate and multiple regression analyses. Attribution to locus of causality was significantly related to commitment levels, with officers attributing internal causes for any personal, financial impact that arose from pension reforms and overall changes to their compensation packages. Structural equation modeling results also found that HR Attribution drove a significant negative indirect path to turnover intent via affective commitment and a significant positive indirect path to extra-role job performance, also via affective commitment. Multiple regression analysis results however showed no significant difference between longer-tenured police officers and post-recession hires with reduced pension benefits, in respect of their continuance commitment levels or intent to quit.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. INTRODUCTION .....	1
Background to the Problem .....	1
Problem Statement .....	11
Purpose of the Study .....	13
Hypotheses .....	13
Theoretical Framework and Research Model .....	14
Antecedent Variable.....	16
Mediating Variable .....	18
Outcome Variables.....	19
Significance of the Study .....	20
Definition of Terms .....	22
Assumptions and Delimitations of the Study .....	24
Organization of the Study .....	25
II. LITERATURE REVIEW.....	26
Evolution of Pension Plans and Total Compensation Package for Public Sector Employees .....	26
The Great Recession’s Impact on Organizations: A Focus on Florida’s Police Agencies.....	34
HR Practices and Employee Attitudes and Behaviors: A Focus on Total Compensation Rewards .....	41
Employee Attributions Regarding HR Strategies and Practices.....	47
Employee Commitment, Turnover Intent and Extra-Role Job Performance.....	54
Employee Commitment .....	54
Turnover Intent .....	58
Extra-Role Job Performance .....	62
Summary.....	64
III. METHOD .....	65
A Model of Employee Attribution for HR Practices and Organizational Outcomes ..	65
Purpose of the Study/Research Objectives .....	67
Hypotheses .....	68
Research Design .....	69
Errors.....	71
Variables .....	72
Data Collection Mode, Measurement Design and Sampling Process.....	79
Data Collection Mode .....	79
Measurement Design and Sampling Process .....	81
Instrumentation .....	81
Population .....	83



Sample Frame .....	84
Sample Design, Size and Selection.....	85
Survey Administration and Procedures .....	87
Data Collection .....	87
Data Management .....	90
Data Analysis .....	91
Summary .....	93
IV. RESULTS .....	94
Participants Sample Description .....	95
Demographics .....	95
Chi-Square Analysis of Demographic Variables .....	97
Descriptive Statistics .....	98
Examination of Hypotheses .....	102
Normality .....	102
Homoscedasticity .....	103
Linearity.....	103
Multicollinearity .....	104
Testing the Research Hypotheses .....	104
Hypothesis One.....	105
Hypothesis Two and Three .....	109
Hypothesis Four.....	113
Summary .....	115
V. DISCUSSION .....	116
Discussion of the Results .....	118
Hypothesis 1.....	119
Hypothesis 2 and 3.....	122
Hypothesis 4.....	124
Unionization and Organizational Commitment.....	126
Implications for Theory, Research and Practice.....	126
Implications for Theory .....	126
Implications for Research .....	129
Implications for Practice.....	132
Limitations of the Study.....	136
Conclusion .....	137
REFERENCES .....	139
APPENDICES .....	168
VITA.....	193

## LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
1. Compiled from FRS Employer Statutory Contribution Rates 2001-2018.....	34
2. Compiled from PERC Special Magistrate case filing data 2004-2014 .....	40
3. Typology of HR Attributions .....	52
4. Agency Participation by Region & Size .....	86
5. Frequency Table of Demographic Variables .....	95
6. Significant Demographic Variables Cross Tabulation .....	97
7. Scale Reliability Scores & Means/Standard Deviations of Questionnaire Items.....	98
8. Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variances: DVs with IVs .....	103
9. Pension Feelings and Organizational Commitment - Coefficient Table 9a: (N = 134) .....	106
10. Pension Feelings and Organizational Commitment - Coefficient Table 9b: (N = 80).....	107
11. Officers’ Internal/External Attribution: Retirement Attribution by Commitment.....	107
12. Officers’ Internal/External Attribution: Retirement, Health Insurance and Pay by Commitment Levels.....	109
13. Hypotheses 2 and 3: Results of Intermediate and Dependent Variable Coefficients .....	110
14. CFA - Standardized and Unstandardized Coefficients for HR Attribution .....	110
15. Parameter Estimates, Standard Error, and P-Values .....	113
16. Means & SD: Continuous Years of Service with Current Agency .....	114

## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Chapter I opens with the background to the problem, followed by the problem statement, the purpose of the study, the research questions and hypotheses and the theoretical framework. Next, the significance of the study is presented, followed by the definition of the terms, the study's assumptions and delimitations and finally, an outline of the study's organization.

#### **Background to the Problem**

The December 2007 to June 2009 economic downturn is considered the worst recession since the 1929-1933 Great Depression (Johnson, 2015). Dubbed the “Great Recession” by economists, statisticians, financial pundits and business scholars worldwide, it lived up to its name, battering the United States’ (U.S.) economy, creating one of the longest periods of joblessness and extraordinary long-term unemployment in U.S. history (Grusky, Western & Wimer, 2011; Hetzel, 2012; Johnson, 2015), simultaneously affecting other countries around the world (Burtless, 2010; Whelan, Russell & Maitre, 2016). With the longest sustained shrinkage of the U.S. economy since the Great Depression (Grusky et al., 2011; Kiewiet & McCubbins, 2014), unemployment obstinately persisted as economic growth remained sluggish for an inordinate length of time after the recession’s official end (Johnson, 2015).

Organizations have strategic goals that underpin the development of their human resources strategies (Guest, 1997; Porter, 1998), and to achieve these goals, they design, combine and employ a number of HR practices that impact employees, work processes, work contexts and outcomes (Vance, 2006). To protect their economic interests,

organizations have historically manipulated various combinations of HR practices to help counteract the negative financial effects of economic downturns, and the Great Recession was no exception (Gilmore, Shea & Useem, 1997; Grdinovac & Yancey, 2012). The typical HR practices employed included adjustments to selection and hiring, remuneration and recognition, training and career development, work schedules, communication and empowerment-related opportunities (Chew & Chan, 2008; Nishii, Lepak & Schneider, 2008; Paré & Tremblay, 2007). With the onset of the Great Recession, employers immediately responded with job cuts and layoffs (47%), hiring freezes (52%), attrition (63%), temporary and part-time replacements, and changes to pay and compensation packages (49%) (Society for Human Resource Management, 2009).

To varying degrees, both public and private sector management targeted pension and health insurance employer expenses (Center for State & Local Government Excellence & National Institute on Retirement Security (CSLGE & NIRS), 2010), with efforts made to gradually increase employee cost sharing (Milkovich, Newman & Gerhart, 2017). Government employers were particularly anxious to identify opportunities for savings and restructurings (Oloff, Johnson & Palacios, 2012), when they simultaneously had to deal with declining revenues and seriously impaired public pension systems (Stearns, 2015). The media presented public sector employees as greedy and overpaid (Dannin, 2012; Lewin, 2012), with police and fire personnel singled out as beneficiaries of excessive, tax-payer funded, defined benefit (DB) pension plans (Boivie & Weller, 2012), threatening the solvency of state and local governments (Bewerunge & Rosen, 2013). These claims of excessive compensation packages were also bolstered

when a number of governors publicly identified employee compensation packages as the major reason for their financial problems (Madland & Bunker, 2012).

Concerted attention, therefore, focused on the burgeoning funding liabilities of state, county and local government pension plans (Anzia & Moe, 2017; Frank, Gianakis & Neshkova, 2012; Johnson, 2015; Lewin, 2012). Pension reform and the containment of public sector benefits costs were consequently identified from political, economic and financial perspectives as the key to containing fiscal obligations to employees, estimated in 2011 at a combined \$4 trillion across the United States (Hylton, 2014; Novy-Marx & Rauh, 2011). In what previously seemed to be a recession-proof industry (Kopelman & Rosen, 2014), unprecedented benefits reductions were eventually executed through revamped HR practices, with police and fire employees taking the brunt of these reforms (Boivie et al., 2012; Madland et al., 2012).

In 2011 for example, the Florida Retirement System (FRS) raised the retirement age from 55 to 60 for new special risk plan entrants, including police and fire, and increased the years of service required for retirement eligibility from 25 to 30 years. Regular civilian employees experienced smaller increases, with their retirement ages moving from 62 to 65 and service retirement eligibility increasing from 30 to 33 years. Other significant reforms included a reduction of the pension multipliers that serve as part of the formula for calculating pension payments, the introduction of employee contributions to the plan for both new and existing employees, and the elimination of post-retirement cost-of-living adjustments (COLA). Changes that were unique to new employees included increasing the vesting periods from six to eight years and increasing the average final compensation from five to eight years (Florida Retirement Security

Coalition, 2013; FRS, 2017). Similar changes simultaneously took place among state and local governments, and in a few extreme cases, some local municipalities sought to close employer managed Defined Benefit (DB) plans, and move employees to individually managed private-sector-style Defined Contribution (DC) pension plans (Gilroy, 2015; Linn, 2013), transferring the investment risks to the employees.

These reforms were not unique to Florida, as immediately following the recession, similar changes were made nationally to 43 state retirement plans (Snell, 2011), with the trend continuing to include 46 states by 2014 (Johnson, 2015). The tangible financial effects on employees have been reductions in take-home pay related to pension contribution increases that were exacerbated by simultaneous increases to health insurance premium contributions (Claxton et al., 2015; Kaiser Family Foundation, 2016). The extension of the retirement age for newer employees serves to prolong their working years, while increases in the average final compensation years and the removal or reduction of pension plan cost-of-living adjustments translate to future income reduction during the employees' retirement years. Nationally and internationally, pension reforms also narrowed the traditional distance between first responders' and civilians' pension plans and created disparities between long-term and new employees, who are being offered further reduced benefits while carrying out the same duties (Danzer, Dolton & Bondibene, 2016; Callan, Nolan, Keane, Savage & Walsh, 2013).

Employee rewards and compensation plans have long been recognized as a significant HR practice used to influence employee attitudes and behaviors (Ferguson & Reio, 2010; Milkovich et al. 2017; Williams & Dreher, 1992). Total compensation includes all types of financial payments, benefits and services that employees receive as

part of the employment relationship (Milkovich et al., 2017). It includes base pay, merit increases, allowances, incentives, bonuses and fringe benefits such as income protection, health insurance and pensions. When effectively managed, the companies' compensation practices help them to meet their goals through varying combinations of pay strategies that initially serve to attract suitable candidates, and then to retain and motivate employees to deliver company outcomes (Milkovich et al., 2017; Staw, 1980; Williams et al., 1992).

Research has shown, however, that from the employees' perspectives, HR practices symbolize the organization's formal recognition of worker contributions and are interpreted as the employer's evaluation of their worth (Allen, Shore & Griffeth, 2003; Tremblay, Cloutier, Simard, Chênevert & Vandenberghe, 2010). Attribution theory proposes that individuals use a cognitive process to arrive at these causal explanations (Kelley, 1973); thus, understanding these cognitive processes becomes important because actions are perceived by individuals as related to an actor's disposition, motives and philosophies (McLeod, 2012). These actions (namely, HR practices) affect the observers' emotions (in this case, the employees) (Weiner, 1985; Weiner, Russell & Lerman, 1979), ultimately influencing their attitudes and behaviors (Crittenden, 1983; Fiske & Taylor, 2013; Martinko, Harvey & Dasborough, 2011). The attributional process is also intricately connected to observed past company behaviors that serve to strengthen and influence the employees' beliefs about their organization's rationale for instituting their HR practices (Martinko & Thompson, 1998; Nishii et al., 2008).

Past research on attributional processes has helped explain the reasons for, and the manner in which employees display both productive and deviant behaviors in the

organization (Harvey, Madison, Martinko, Crook & Crook, 2014). Negative attributions can result in costly consequences such as frequent hiring caused by turnover, replacement costs, overtime payments, and in some cases, sub-standard work (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993; Koper, 2004; Staw, 1980). One case study, for example, revealed that lower-quality goods were produced at a higher than normal rate at one plant at the same time that employees were engaged in an intense labor dispute with management over pay and benefits (Krueger & Mas, 2004). Understanding the link between HR practices and the employees' attribution for management's rationale in pursuing certain HR practices becomes vital, because employees form impressions based on their perceptions about the organization's motives (Huselid, 1995; Meyer & Smith, 2000, Nishii et al., 2008; Wetland, 2003). With limited resources, employers need to understand where to channel their efforts in combating the negative effects of job withdrawal, as well as HRD efforts that counteract turnover intent and reduced performance among viable employees.

A model of HR attribution was recently introduced to the literature on workplace behaviors to provide a theoretical framework for explaining employees' perceptions of and reactions to management's rationale for implementing their HR practices (Nishii et al., 2008). In developing this HR-specific, attribution model, Nishii et al. (2008) advised that their construct examines employees' causal explanations for everyday HR practices routinely experienced in the organizations. Their work focused on individual and group attributions by examining the employees' attitudinal and behavioral responses, and the process by which they determine internal versus external attributions for their organization's HR practices. They proposed that external attribution is outside the organization's control and therefore elicits a mostly neutral response from employees.



On the other hand, the two types of internal attributions identified, namely employee enhancement and employee exploitation, elicit a range of positive and negative emotions from employees. Those HR practices that produce a causal link to employee enhancement are seen as expressing support for the employees' well-being, while a causal link to employee exploitation sends the signal that the organization merely views employees as costs to be contained. Well-being is defined here as the employee's psychological, physical and social welfare (Brunetto, Teo, Shacklock & Farr-Wharton, 2012). Related studies have yielded similar causal findings using other markers for employee well-being, such as perception of organizational support (POS) (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986) and organizational trust (Brown, 1996; Gould-Williams, 2003).

Central to the discussion in the current research is the argument that employees' attribution for their organization's HR practices impact organizational commitment levels and ultimately individual and collective employee attitudes and behaviors, with implications for the organization's goals (Guest, 1997; Harvey et al., 2014; Nishii et al., 2008). It is proposed that antecedents to HR practices and organizational commitment hold the key to understanding the range of employee attitudinal and behavioral outcomes and their link to the organization's overall performance, including service quality, return on investment and profits (Greenberg, 1987; Guest, 1997; Guzzo, Noonan & Elron, 1994; Harvey et al., 2014; Meyer et al., 2000; Nishii et al., 2008; Whitener, 2001 & Youndt, 2000). The variable organizational commitment will therefore be situated in the present study's research model as an attitudinal outcome of HR practices arising from employees' rationalization and attribution for those practices. It will be examined, then,

as a mediating variable between the employees' attribution of company HR practices and their resultant attitudes, behaviors and involvement in the organization, with specific focus on turnover intent and extra-role job performance.

Organizational commitment refers to the employee's psychological attachment to their organization and signifies, among other variables, their expanded view of their job role (Morrison, 1994; Carlos et al., 2016) as well as their plans to stay the course with the company (Meyer & Allen, 1991, 2004; Meyer et al., 1993). Commitment is important within organizations as it helps with stability and the reduction of unwanted, costly turnover (Meyer et al., 2004; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). It also has the potential to influence performance by cultivating desired attitudes and behaviors, including extra effort, involvement and cooperation, and ultimately desired organizational outcomes (Guest, 1997; Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell & Allen, 2007; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Meyer, Stanley & Parfyonova, 2012; Parzefall & Coyle-Shapiro, 2011).

Within the sub-areas of organizational commitment (Meyer et al, 2002), affective commitment relates to the employee's emotional investment in the organization; normative commitment explores the extent to which the employee feels a sense of responsibility to remain with the organization; while continuance commitment refers to the employee's determination of the economic and other value to be gained by staying or leaving (Meyer et al., 2002, 2004). High levels of affective commitment represent the most ideal situation, usually resulting in voluntary, congenial, long-term tenure (Meyer et al., 2002, 2004) with a broad understanding of the job role and extra-role performance (Morrison 1994; Riketta, 2002). Extra-role behaviors are very important as they usually

involve positive actions that favor the organization beyond the terms of the job description (Ricketta, 2002). Normative commitment is driven by duty to the organization and is highly desirable, while continuance commitment accounts for the least emotional company attachment and therefore the potential to negatively impact attendance and extra-role activities (Meyer et al., 2002; Paré et al., 2007).

Law enforcement is an occupation that requires steadfast character, principled work practices and intrinsic pride in the work being carried out, with officers' commitment levels linked to both strategic and operational performance objectives (Metcalf & Dick, 2001). Their wide range of police/citizen encounters requires individual characteristics of attentiveness, responsiveness, competence, reliability, manners and fairness (Mastrofski, 1999), traits and skill-sets that extend beyond the formal in-role expectations of an officer (Ricketta, 2002). Additional voluntary efforts and involvement signal a positive and greater understanding of the job role beyond the job description (Morrison 1994; Ricketta, 2002), behaviors that have been found to be significantly related to organizational commitment (Guest, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002; Paré et al., 2007). Specific extra-role activities include providing services that are unrelated to one's job, defending the organization, showing up even when ill and lending a hand even when strapped for time (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Carlos & Rodrigues, 2016; Griffin, Neal & Neale, 2000).

Turnover intent and extra-role job performance have been identified as two of the variables that are direct outcomes of commitment levels (Meyer et al., 1991, 1993, 2001, 2002). Intent to turnover is conceptualized as the employee's goal to voluntarily change organizations (Schyns, Torck & Gössling, 2007) that result from lowered commitment

levels related to employee aversive HR practices (Gould-Williams, 2003). Extra-role job performance is conceptualized as contextual behaviors that employees adopt toward their work (Carlos et al., 2016) as a direct consequence of organizational commitment related to the organization's HR practices (Paré et al., 2007). Contextual or extra-role performance includes activities that are not formally included as part of the job description, while task or in-role performance on the other hand are identified as the organization's technical requirement to maintain or service its core business (Carlos et al., 2016; Motowidlo, Borman & Schmit, 1997; Griffin et al., 2000).

Benefits serve both a practical and an affective purpose for employees, and are linked to organizational commitment, especially when determined to be discretionary (Koys, 1991). Pension benefits are one of the important motivators for persons entering the police force, along with job stability and overall compensation packages (White, Cooper, Saunders & Raganella, 2010). Reductions in employee agreements, whether contractual or social, have been found to arouse anger and are negatively associated with organization commitment (Wheeler & McClendon, 1991). Unforeseen compensation changes, such as increases in contributions and other changes to compensation design are often viewed as a breach of the psychological contract held with the employer (Milkovich, Newman & Milkovich, 1999). Additionally, company practices promoting disparities between employees who perform the same duties and responsibilities are also seen as violating standards of rudimentary fairness (Johnson, 2015). One post-recession survey of municipal HR and Finance directors in Florida revealed that over two-thirds are concerned that the newly introduced two-tiered pension system may cause antagonism

between long-tenured and new employees and consequently reduce organizational commitment and morale (Cong, Frank, Gianakis & Guo, 2015).

Another recent study that explored reduced pension benefits revealed that diminished privileges and two-tiered systems are linked to lower job motivation among public sector workers (Montizaan, de Grip, Cörvers & Dohmen, 2016). Montizaan et al. reported that a 2006 Dutch pension system reform determined that employees born prior to 1950 would remain entitled to a 70% early retirement replacement rate upon attaining 62+ years, while persons born 1950 and later had this benefit reduced to a 64% replacement rate. The reduction alone was significantly associated with reduced job motivation among those employees who were negatively impacted, with increased levels of demotivation reported from workers on the cusp of the cut-off point where the age difference was practically non-existent. The loss of pension benefits was considered a breach of the employment agreement.

### **Problem Statement**

The 2007-2009 “Great Recession” was associated with marked joblessness and long-term unemployment in countries throughout the world, including the United States, where unemployment levels peaked at ten percent across the nation in 2009, doubling the five percent recorded in December 2007 (Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), 2012). The recession severely threatened the economic viability of many state, county and local governments, with many employers, political leaders and residents attributing their governments’ financial deficit to the high funding requirements of public sector employees’ Defined Benefit (DB) plans. In the face of declining revenue and to ensure adequate funding of critical services, these organizations turned their sights on employee

compensation packages, which comprise the largest portion of government expenditures (McNichol, 2012). They introduced HR practices that affected working conditions and trimmed or eliminated elements of the compensation package, including current and future retirement benefits. In a number of police agencies, new recruits were also disproportionately affected, experiencing reduced starting pay and benefits when compared to their coworkers who had been with the company for years (Bewerunge et al., 2013).

Government entities are in business to provide unique and essential services to the residents and citizens whom they serve (Almeida & Boivie, 2009). Services include providing potable drinking water, effective school systems and safe communities. First responders play a vital role in saving lives, keeping the peace, and preventing chaos (Maguire, 2003). Human Resource practices that reduce benefits and overall compensation packages can result in negative employee attributions (Nishii, David & Benjamin, 2011) and, ultimately, reciprocal responses that can harm the organization (Almeida et al., 2009; Greenberg, 1990). Research on post-recession pension reforms, as well as potential job satisfaction, trust, turnover and performance issues arising from these changes are significantly lacking (Cong et al., 2015). One recent study in the United Kingdom (U.K.) found police and fire services employees' financial conditions to be worse following the country's recent pension reform initiatives (Danzer et al., 2016), with calls for swift answers to policy questions about potential recruitment, performance and retention issues. In the U.S., these questions also need to be urgently answered to provide an understanding of the consequences for state and local governments that provide the afore-mentioned critical services for their communities. We need additional

information about how these reforms are linked to not only economic variables associated with the organizations' financial and political consequences, but also salient antecedent and outcome variables such as employee attribution, organizational commitment, extra-role job performance and turnover intent.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the present study is firstly to examine the extent that police officers within local government agencies attribute recession-linked HR compensation practices to external (the most recent national economic crisis) versus internal factors (organization cost containment and employee well-being), and the relationship of these attributions with organizational commitment, extra-role job performance and turnover intention. Secondly, it seeks to determine the differences, if any, between pre- and post-recession hires with respect to their attributional processes, their organizational commitment levels and turnover intentions. Finally, it seeks to add an HR perspective to the literature on the Great Recession, which has mostly been explored from financial, economic and political perspectives. The new knowledge gained from the research may be informative to policy and decision makers at the state, county, and local governmental levels and affiliated organizations, as well as trade unions and human resource practitioners.

### **Hypotheses**

The following hypotheses will be examined:

*H<sub>1</sub>*: Police officers' attribution of the locus of causality for the personal financial impact arising from pension reforms will be significantly related to their commitment to the organization.

*H<sub>2</sub>*: Organizational commitment will mediate the relationship between HR practices and turnover intent.

*H<sub>3</sub>*: Organizational commitment will mediate the relationship between HR practices and extra-role job performance.

*H<sub>4</sub>*: Post-recession police hires with reduced pension benefits will experience higher continuance commitment and higher turnover intent than their longer-tenured colleagues.

The extent to which employees attribute their employer's established HR philosophy to be exploitative and aimed at maximizing cost and employee efficiency, or nurturing and aimed at quality and employee enhancement, will influence their assessment of the HR practices introduced in response to a crisis such as the Great Recession (Nishii et al., 2008). These employee assessments will in turn influence their organizational commitment. To test the conceptual link between HR attribution of recession-related HR compensation practices and the mediating and outcome variables of organizational commitment, extra-role job performance and turnover intent, we need to explore the processes by which employees determine their organization's level of responsibility and control over the decisions made.

### **Theoretical Framework and Research Model**

After a catastrophe or crisis such as the Great Recession, companies face a range of consequences depending on their reactions to the event and the levels of responsibility attributed to them by their major stakeholders (Coombs & Holladay, 2005). Attribution, or the need to determine cause, occurs naturally (Coombs, 2007), with people searching for meaning while making attributions at the individual and group levels (Bies, 1987;



Fiske et al., 2013; Weiner, 1985). The sequence usually starts with the individual reacting to the event with causal determinations, which eventually leads to some form of behavioral outcome (Crittenden, 1983; Weiner, 1985). While not traditionally treated as a group construct, attribution has received increased attention at the collective level (Harvey et al., 2014; Martinko et al., 2011; West, Patera & Carsten, 2009), with the recognition that individuals influence each others' attitudes and behaviors (Morgeson & Hofmann, 1999).

A genuine need exists for further research that explains the link between HR practices and the intervening mechanisms leading to employee and organizational outcomes (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002). Figure 1 seeks to help explain these mechanisms and starts with the understanding that organizations have strategic goals that drive their HR strategies and may be redesigned in times of crisis. In examining local governments' modifications to pension plans and compensation packages via Nishii et al.'s (2008) attribution model, the proposal is that external attribution to post-recession HR practices will elicit a mostly neutral response from employees, while attributions to internal causes of employee enhancement or exploitation, will influence commitment levels, ultimately impacting their extra-role job performance or decision to quit or stay.

## Research Model

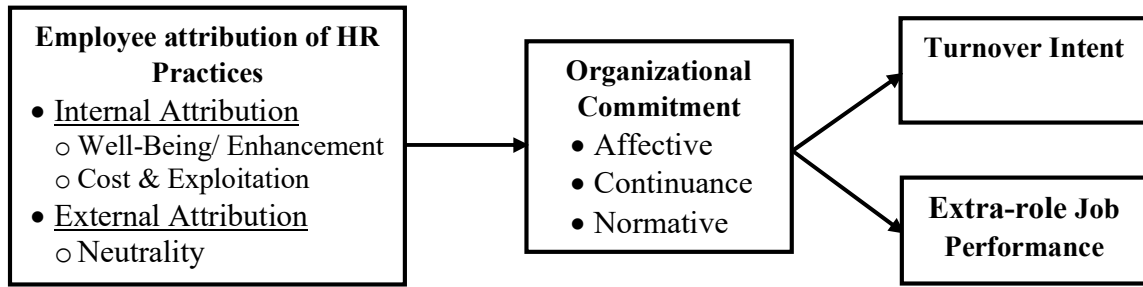


Figure 1. Hypothesized Research Model of Employee Attribution

## Antecedent Variable

Antecedent to organizational commitment, internal HR attributions represent employee-oriented beliefs about the philosophy that drives their organizational HR practices and, in particular, post-recession practices for which the organization is accountable (Nishii et al., 2008). Human Resource practices designed to recruit and train employees represent examples of processes that employees would consider to be under the company's direct responsibility and control. External HR attribution, on the other hand, refers to employees' perception that external constraints drove their organization's HR practices, with management having little or no option but to comply. Compliance with government regulations such as labor laws are typical examples attributable to external causes (Koys, 1988, 1991). Research shows however that both sides do not always agree on what constitutes external causation, with negative adjustments to the employment agreement sometimes seen as continuous, willful and intentional disregard to promises made (Lester, Turnley, Bloodgood & Bolino, 2002).

A number of studies have established relationships between HR compensation practices and organizational commitment (Nawab & Bhatti, 2011; Paik, Parboteeah & Shim, 2007), with social exchange theorists describing the employment relationship as an

exchange involving mutual obligations and returns within which the compensation package forms a part of the transaction (Aggarwal & Bhargava, 2009; Morrison, 1994; Parzefall et al., 2011; Rousseau, 1989). Equity and fairness are major parts of the equation, where the employee expects to gain a fair compensation package for services rendered. When employees attribute HR practices as internally motivated by management's concern for service enhancement and employee well-being, those practices are identified as positively related to commitment; HR practices are negatively related, however, when attributed to cost reduction and exploitative causes (Nishii et al., 2008). Additionally, unanticipated reductions in pay and benefits in the course of the employment relationship are usually considered to be unjust (Wheeler et al., 1991) and are negatively related to affective commitment (Paik et al., 2007).

Employees appear to develop a sense of responsibility to their organization directly linked to their benefits, which seems to arouse a need to reciprocally reward the organization through performance and other positive behaviors (Meyer et al., 1991, 2002). Like other public safety personnel, police officers are accustomed to a total reward package that includes substantial retirement benefits, with the understanding that it compensates for the unusual stresses of the job, including earlier retirement and higher pension payments over civilian employees with less stressful jobs (Cong et al., 2015; FL Statutes, Chp. 121.0515). With limited research on employees' HR perceptions and attributions regarding their organization's HR practices, Nishii et al. (2008) have called for research to examine the effect of HR practices on employees and organizational outcomes, using the model in their 2008 study as a starting point. The present dissertation responds to their call, which provides a unique opportunity to understand one group of

public sector employees' attributional determination of post-recession HR practices. The hypothesized research model of Employee Attribution will be useful in identifying post-crisis perceptions of enhancement or exploitation and the impact on organizational commitment, ultimately predicting behaviors related to extra-role performance and intent to quit. The following sections explore the mediating variable of organizational commitment and the outcome variables of extra-role job performance and turnover intent.

### **Mediating Variable**

A 2007 study involving highly skilled professionals reported that affective and continuance commitment, among other variables, partially mediate the effects of certain HR practices on their turnover intentions (Paré et al., 2007). A fair compensation package was negatively related to turnover intentions, although to a lesser extent than other examined HR variables such as recognition, training and career development (Paré et al., 2007). Other studies have also corroborated the mediating role of organizational commitment with HR practices and behavioral outcomes such as turnover intent (Guzzo et al., 1994; Youndt, 2000), and organizational trust and higher levels of performance (Gould-Williams, 2003).

Employee commitment, when linked to trust, influences employee behaviors separate and apart from their other drives and feelings (Brown, 1996; Meyer, 2001). It has also been shown to be a strong predictor of job withdrawal, with data supporting significant negative relationships between the two variables (Porter, Steers, Mowday, Boulian, 1974; Shore, Barksdale, & Shore, 1995; Solinger, van Olffen & Roe, 2008). Where employees perceive that the employer failed to fulfill some duty or obligation, resultant attitudes have been linked to lower organizational commitment (Lester et al.,

2002), a diminished willingness to go the extra mile (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994) and negative outcomes, such as turnover and turnover intent (Conway and Briner, 2005; Kickul, Neuman, Parker & Finkl, 2001; Maertz & Griffeth, 2004). Emotions of anger and resentment also increase where employees believe that the employer could have achieved a more favorable outcome for them if other avenues were explored (Cropanzano & Folger, 1989). Loss, when combined with inadequate explanations, may be interpreted as disrespectful to the employee, further diminishing commitment (Kickul et al., 2001). With limited empirical work available on the link between HR attributions and employee outcomes, the call for research to answer the question of what “mediates the relationship” is also being answered (Hewett, Shantz, Mundy & Alfes, 2018).

The following section discusses the outcome variables of employee extra-role performance and intent to turnover.

### **Outcome Variables**

Job performance theory proposes that employees perform assigned tasks as well as contextual duties that help to shape the organization’s culture (Carlos et al., 2016). Task performance is presumed to be under the employer’s control, while contextual performance is closely linked to the employee’s will, with the potential to influence their task-related responsibilities (Griffin et al., 2000). The phenomenon of task versus contextual performance is also referred to as in-role versus extra-role behaviors, with the former denoting duties specified in the job description and the latter representing positive behaviors beyond the terms of the job description, which are beneficial to the organization (Riketta, 2002). Both kinds of performance require different skills and different motivational HR inducements; higher levels of contextual performance have

been found in groups of employees who perceive their organization as enhancing their well-being, as opposed to employees who believe they are being exploited (Bartle & Hays, 1999; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001).

Voluntary employee turnover is usually analyzed from an economic perspective, as high levels of turnover can be very costly for organizations with respect to productivity, overall performance and the actual costs associated with replacing the departing employee (Staw, 1980). In studying the causes for turnover, several studies have highlighted significant linkages between organizational commitment levels and turnover intent, with the latter identified as a direct outcome of the former (Meyer et al., 1991, 1993; Meyer et al., 2001; Meyer et al., 2002). High replacement costs aside, police agencies with large turnover numbers are usually left with less experienced officers (Koper, 2004), resulting in high levels of customer complaints, ineffective decision making, and diminished productivity (Orrick, 2002). These agencies therefore need to appreciate and implement HR practices that retain their high-performing, productive officers who are usually the most marketable and likely to find opportunities elsewhere.

### **Significance of the Study**

Organizations modify or elect certain HR compensation practices as they react to major external crises. These elections and modifications affect the employees' attribution process (Nishii et al., 2008). Ultimately, employees' reactions have implications for the organization's overall performance (Greenberg, 1987) and important outcomes, such as service quality (Guest, 1997) in the case of the public sector. While both sectors were severely impacted by the 2007-2009 economic downturn, the public sector was subjected to intense public scrutiny, which led to unprecedented benefits reductions, with police

and fire employees taking the brunt of the cuts (Boivie et al., 2012; Madland et al., 2012). The current research seeks to understand the extent to which law enforcement commitment, extra-role job performance and intent to quit were impacted by changes to employees' compensation structure.

Examination of the employees' attribution process will reveal whether or not police officers attribute pension reform and remuneration changes to external circumstances and, therefore, consider changes to be outside the control of their organization and elected officials. It is hypothesized that internal attribution will be related to turnover intent and extra-role job performance via the mediating influence of organization commitment. We are only a few years removed from the 2007-2009 Great Recession and studies are needed to examine the impact of these seismic changes on the public sector in particular as they are practically non-existent. In 2014, Evelina Moulder, then Director of Survey Research for the International City/County Management Association (ICMA), advised that their organization's greatest research interest was "the impact that the fiscal crisis has had on local government employment and benefits" (E. Moulder, personal communication, January 21, 2014). The modification or abandonment of defined benefit plans within organizations has mostly focused on savings made through short-term cost cutting, an approach that treats employees as an expense and potentially produces negative long-term consequences (De Thierry, Lam, Harcourt, Flynn & Wood, 2014). The employee attribution model should prove a useful tool for exploring compensation and pension reforms, commitment and related turnover intent and extra-role performance variables through the eyes of the affected employees, with implications for vital public sector services such as law enforcement.

## Definition of Terms

*Affective commitment.* The term refers to the employee's emotional investment in the organization. High levels of affective commitment usually result in voluntary, long-term organizational stay (Meyer et al., 2002, 2004).

*Continuance commitment.* The term refers to the employee's determination of the economic and other value to be gained by staying with or leaving the organization. It has less emotional attachment and the potential to negatively impact performance, attendance and extra-role activities (Meyer et al., 2002, 2004).

*Defined Benefit (DB) Pension Plans.* These are older-style, traditional plans where the employer assumes and maintains the plan funding risk to a level that will guarantee its employees a consistent, lifetime payout upon retirement (McWhinney, 2009; Munnell, Haverstick & Soto, 2007). Its design serves to retain active employees and reward longer serving personnel (Johnson, 2015; Nyce, 2007).

*Defined Contribution (DC) Pension Plans.* These are newer, portable retirement plans, where both the employer and the employee contribute a set percentage of the employee's earnings into a savings account-type vehicle, with the onus placed on the employees to manage their own investments while assuming all of the associated risks (McWhinney, 2009; Munnell et al., 2007). It does not guarantee a lifetime payout upon retirement.

*Employee attribution (External).* The term refers to "the perception that HR practices are adopted not as a function of management's voluntary intentions, but because management has to adopt certain HR practices due to external constraints" (Nishii et al., 2008, p. 509). Attributions to external circumstances disclose less about the actor's



character and behaviors (Kelley & Michela, 1980) and reduces one's ability to predict repeat behaviors.

*Employee attribution (Internal).* The term refers to the perception that HR practices are adopted based on management's leaning either toward their employees well-being or toward cost containment (Nishii et al., 2008). Management's actions that are attributable to controllable internal factors are linked to the organization's character and therefore predictive of future behaviors (Jones & Davis, 1965).

*Extra-Role Job Performance.* Extra-role behaviors involve positive actions that favor the organization beyond the terms of the job description (Riketta, 2002). This includes providing services that are unrelated to one's job, defending the organization, showing up when ill and lending a hand even when strapped for time (Borman et al., 1997; Carlos & Rodrigues, 2016; Griffin, Neal & Neale, 2000).

*Human Resource (HR) practices.* The phrase generally refers to the methods used by organizations to manage or influence its workforce's attitudes and behaviors, with the goal of positively impacting company outcomes (Delaney & Huselid, 1996; Guest, 1997; Way, 2002). It typically includes selection and hiring, remuneration, recognition, training and career development, and empowerment related opportunities (Chew & Chan, 2008)

*Job Performance.* The term refers to the "evaluative and episodic behaviours that an individual adopts towards her/his work and job, as a result of the dynamics between cognitive abilities, personality and learning experiences, that aggregate value to the organization" (Carlos et al., 2016, p. 283). It is further sub-divided into *task* and *contextual* performance with the former under the employer's control and the latter under the employees' control (Carlos et al., 2016).

*Normative commitment.* The term refers to the employees' perceived obligation to remain with their organization and signifies their intent to stay the course out of duty (Meyer et al., 1991, 1993, 2004).

*Organizational commitment.* The term refers to the employees' psychological attachment to their organization and signifies their plan to stay the course or not (Meyer et al., 1991, 1993, 2004).

*Turnover intent.* The phrase is defined as an employee's plan to voluntarily separate from the organization for another company or job (Schyns et al. 2007), directly related to organizational commitment levels (Meyer et al., 2002, 2004).

### **Assumptions and Delimitations of the Study**

Three assumptions and two delimitations in this study are outlined below:

#### Assumptions

Assumptions made in the study are: a) to varying degrees, all employees develop some form of psychological contract with their organization and expect a fair exchange for skills and services rendered; b) modifications to compensation packages will cause employees to search for meaning and make attributions related to the organization's rationale for their actions; and, finally, c) employees' evaluation of the organization's rationale for the change will have direct consequences on their attitudes and behaviors, whether positive or negative.

#### Delimitations

The first delimitation of the study is the election to include only police officers, who comprise 10.49% of all local government employees in the public sector (BLS, 2016). While most state, county and local government employees were affected by

pension reforms, the current study is limited to law enforcement officers in the state of Florida because of the critical and high profile nature of their jobs in protecting lives and property (Maguire, 2003; Maguire & Uchida, 2000). The second delimitation is the exclusion of variables such as job satisfaction and perceived psychological contract violation, which are also identified as affective and attitudinal outcomes of organizational HR practices (Berg, 1999; Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Wheeler et al., 1991).

### **Organization of the Study**

Chapter I outlined the background to the problem, the problem statement and purpose, the research questions and hypotheses, the theoretical framework, the study's significance, definitions of terms, assumptions and delimitations. Chapter II provides the literature review in support of the variables being examined, and Chapter III presents the research method used in the study. Chapter IV presents the study findings, and Chapter V presents the discussion and analysis of the findings and the implications for theory, future research, implications and practice.

## CHAPTER II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter II begins with an examination of the literature on the distinction between public and private sector employees as it relates to the evolution of their total compensation packages. Second, the 2007-09 post-recession impact on organizations and on police agencies in Florida will be presented. Third, the literature surrounding HR practices, and compensation practice in particular, will be examined with respect to their link to employee attitudes and behaviors. Next, two mainstream attribution theories and a model of HR attributions will be introduced by positioning the attributional concept as a pivotal connection that employees make to management's justification for implementing HR practices. Next follows an examination of the literature surrounding the mediating variable of employee commitment and the two outcome variables of turnover intent and extra-role job performance identified in this study. Finally, chapter II concludes with a brief summary.

#### **Evolution of Pension Plans and Total Compensation Package for Public Sector Employees**

The public sector's compensation package is distinct from that of the private sector, with emphasis placed on benefits in respect to the former, and wages in respect to the latter (CSLGE & NIRS, 2010; Thompson & Schmitt, 2010). A distinction between the two sectors is important as it features significantly in the public/private compensation discussions and the image of the overpaid public safety employees that fueled the reforms (Boivie et al., 2012; Dannin, 2012; Lewin, 2012). Historically, public sector base pay has been lower than the private sector's (Kearney & Carnevale, 2001; CSLGE & NIRS,

2010). In the early 1960s, the Comparability Principle was introduced for federal government employees where Congress mandated that there should be no wage differential between the federal government and the private sector (Smith, 1976). Steps were subsequently taken to ensure that federal pay compared favorably with private sector pay for the same level of work. Although state and local governments were legally excluded from the Comparability Principle, there has been some attempt to follow suit especially in regard to professional staffing (Smith, 1976), with generous benefits offered to help balance out compensation inequities (Lee & Thompson, 2012). Over the years, state and government employees have demonstrated significant interest in attractive benefits, and less emphasis on base pay (Park & Rainey, 2007; Perry & Wise, 1990). Defined Benefit plans became a major compensation strategy used to attract, hire and retain employees as a counter-balance to the disparities between the two sectors (Lee et al., 2012).

In 1975, the vast majority of both public sector (98%) and private sector employees (88%) were members of employer-funded DB plans (Munnell et al., 2007). By 2013, those numbers had changed dramatically, with only 22% of private sector workers retaining membership in DB plans compared to 92% of state and local government workers (BLS, 2013). Munnell et al. (2007) propose that the private sector shift was mostly attributable to the demise of organizations from the industrial and manufacturing era. As these older companies exited the market over time, so did their DB plans, with the newer automated organizations designing and implementing DC plans as more affordable and flexible options for their businesses.

In the early 2000s, some healthy private sector employers such as Coca-Cola and IBM shifted their employees to DC plans as part of an overall review of their total compensation package (Munnell, Golub-Sass, Soto & Vitagliano, 2006). The main reason identified was that businesses needed to compete nationally and globally without the burden of high DB plan costs. As not-for-profit entities, state and local governments had no similar incentive to mimic the private sector's gradual switch to the DC plans over the last 40 years (Munnell, 2011). Additional reasons given for the survival of public sector DB plans are factors such as levels of unionization, age, experience, tenure, compensation structure, political considerations and other unique job characteristics (Anzia et al., 2017; Munnell, Aubry, Hurwitz & Quinby, 2011; Munnell, Cahill & Jivan, 2003; Lee et al., 2012; Munnell et al., 2007).

While unionization declined significantly since the early 1980s for both sectors, 32.5% of the public sector currently remains unionized, roughly five-times the private sector's rate of 6.7% (BLS, 2016). Munnell et al. (2007) theorize that the public sector's production of non-tradable goods and services made it easier for unions to retain their strong presence and retain their DB plans which are anathemas to the private sector, caused chiefly to their fluctuating variable costs. Unionization has been found, in the past, to be negatively correlated with management restructurings, with compensation reforms less likely to take place in strong union environments (Kellough & Selden, 2003). In 2005 for example, 50% of unionized employees in the few remaining private sector DB plans managed to retain their DB coverage, while only 15% of non-union members did, suggesting that unionization is significantly related to plan retention (Munnell et al., 2007).

Over the years, pay and benefits comparisons between the sectors have been contentious as a result of the methods being applied and the uniqueness of the employee work groups being compared (Cannon, 2011). Comparative challenges arise as a consequence of differences in employees' tenure, age, education and occupation (Lee et al., 2012; Mayer, 2014). Eleven and a half percent of the total public sector employees, for example, are employed as certified public safety personnel, for which there are virtually no equivalencies in the private sector (Cannon, 2011; Lee et al., 2012). As much as 31% of the 509 occupational classifications identified are considered unique to either sector (Belman & Heywood, 2004).

For the purposes of pension benefits, Florida classifies law enforcement, fire-rescue and other public safety professionals as "special risk," stipulating that they perform difficult work requiring unusual physical agility and mental sharpness (FL Statutes, Chp. 121.0515). Their hazardous line of work and its impact over time on first responders are considered in the State's justification of early retirement ages, high retirement payments and cost-of-living adjustments, which ensure that their benefits keep pace with inflation (Cong et al., 2015). Florida's state statutes are formulated following the premise that differential treatment is meted out to improve first responders' ability to enjoy their retirement benefits like their civilian counterparts, and also to prevent financial loss. Additional reasons cited in the Statute include potential risks to the first responder's personal health and safety, their coworkers and the public, caused by diminishing physical and mental faculties from long tenure (FL Statutes, Chp. 121.0515).

These distinctions naturally result in higher costs to the public employer. In Florida, for example, in 2010, employers' contributions to the Florida Retirement System

(FRS) DB plans were 22.1% of payroll for special risk police and fire personnel and only 9.6% of payroll for regular civilian employees for the same period (Florida Department of Management Services, 2018). In comparison, the average private sector contribution rate in 2012 for 401(k) DC plans was 2.3% of payroll nationally, and an average of 4.6% for companies with combination plans (Plan Sponsor Council of America, 2012).

Notwithstanding comparative challenges, a number of studies have examined total compensation packages across occupational groups in both sectors, with mixed results (CSLGE & NIRS, 2010). Public sector workers have consistently been found to be older, longer-tenured than private sector employees and more likely to have higher levels of education than private sector workers, signaling more experience and skills (Belman et al., 2004; CSLGE & NIRS, 2010; Cannon, 2011; Lee et al., 2012; Reilly, 2013). A study by Mayer (2014) shows 54% of public sector employees holding a minimum of a bachelor's degree, compared to the private sector's 34.9% (Mayer, 2014). Data released by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in 2016 shows a significant age difference between the sectors with approximately three in four government workers being 35 and over, compared with approximately three in five private sector workers in the same age group (BLS; 2016). Related to the significant age difference is tenure, with local government employees more apt to remain with their employer, serving an average term of 8.3 years, more than double the average private sector employee's tenure of 3.7 years (BLS, 2016). These data also appears to support the findings that DB plans can be predictive of employee retention (Gough & Hick, 2009; Johnson, 2015; Nyce, 2007). The decreasing likelihood of an employee changing jobs has also been found to be associated with



unionization, pay, pension type and health insurance coverage (Haverstick, Munnell, Sanzenbacher & Soto, 2010).

When compared to the private sector, some studies report public sector workers as earning a wage premium of between 3.5 to 11.1% (Ramoni-Perazzi & Bellante, 2007), with local government workers as a group experiencing a 10 to 19% advantage (Gittleman & Pierce, 2011). Benefits such as the DB plans, health insurance, leave benefits and job security were cited as responsible for these advantageous numbers. Other research findings concluded, however, that when the variables of education and tenure are compared across sectors, public employees receive on average, from 4 to 11% less pay in their total remuneration package (Institute for Research on Labor and Employment, 2010; CSLGE & NIRS, 2010; Munnell et al., 2011; Schmitt, 2010). In Thompson & Schmitt's (2010) New England study, they reported that public sector employees as a group are subjected to employment penalties. Professionals such as engineers working in the private sector experience a wage penalty of up to 13% and middle-income workers experience about a 3% penalty. With approximately 50% of the employees holding four-year college degrees and 30% holding advanced degrees, having a bachelor's degree in the public sector translated into a 7% wage penalty when compared to the 38% of New England's private-sector workers with four-year degrees.

Thompson & Schmitt's 2010 research also confirmed the existence of more valuable benefits in the public sector; they concluded, however, that although the benefits served to reduce the wage penalty, they were not sufficient to offset the lower base pay for the average government worker. In quantifying the benefits costs to both sectors, CSLGE & NIRS (2010) determined that retirement and savings benefits account for 6.5%

of total employee compensation at the state and local government level, as opposed to 4.5% in the private sector. A September 2016 BLS release confirms significant retirement and savings benefits differences, with benefits comprising 3.9% of total compensation for the private sector and 10.9% for the public sector. Similarly, private sector health insurance costs were reported at 7.6% of total compensation while public sector costs were 11.8% (BLS, 2016). Using what they term “a consistent multivariate econometric framework” for their study, Bewerunge et al. (2013) report that worker characteristics expressly impact public-private comparisons and all government workers accrue greater pension wealth, resulting in higher overall public sector compensation. No statistically significant compensation differences were found, however, between the sectors when employee characteristics were taken into account.

Prior to the Great Recession, there were few documented oppositions to these established and substantial pension benefits as part of the public safety employees’ total rewards package (Anzia et al., 2017). In a study of state legislators’ votes on public sector pension bills during the years immediately preceding the Great Recession, the findings show no significant differences between the voting patterns of Democrats and Republicans, a situation that shifted dramatically after the recession (Anzia et al., 2017). The DB plans and their funding patterns, therefore, remained virtually unnoticed until state and local governments budgets were significantly reduced due chiefly to the housing market fallout and the duration and intensity of the recession. Unable to find sufficient funds to carry out their day-to-day operations and simultaneously meet pension plan funding requirements, the problem became highly publicized with the media, politicians, taxpayers and the general public clamoring for reform (Anzia et al., 2017).

A joint report by Florida Tax Watch and the Leroy Collins Institute (2013, p. 4) argued, however, that “while the fallen housing market, diminished stock market returns, and an economy that did not rebound as hoped did not help the situation, they were not the primary determinants” of the failing pension plans. The main determinants identified by the joint report were fund mismanagement, benefit calculation gaming, union-related issues and moral hazards stemming from the misfeasance of some governments that maintained a policy of plan underfunding in the years leading up to the recession (Keefe, 2012; Linn, Rizzo & Lyons, 2012). Other problems identified include impulsive plan improvements, overly optimistic investment forecasts, inadequate risk management considerations, irrational exuberance from the relative prosperity of the 1980s and 1990s and unrecovered market crashes from 2001-02 and 2008-09 (Linn et al., 2012, p. 8).

Data from Florida’s State retirement system in Table 1 further support the argument that the pension furor occurred because of reasons related to reduced income streams, aggravated by rising employer contribution costs tied to the economic downturn. At 18.4% of payroll, pre-recession, special risk contribution percentages were high but stable as far back as 2002, peaking at 20.9% from 2007 to 2010. With the 2011 reforms and the mandated 3% employee contributions, the employer contribution fell to a low of 14.1 in 2012. The current post-recession combination of employer and employee contributions in 2018-19 are, however, at an all-time high, exceeding 27% of payroll, with employers now contributing over 24% with virtually no media coverage nor public furor. Simultaneously, housing foreclosures have since hit a nine-year low in the first quarter of 2016 (Blomquist, 2016), normalizing revenue streams.

Table 1

*Compiled from FRS Employer Statutory Contribution Rates 2001-2018*

	REGULAR			SPECIAL RISK		
	Employer	Employee	Total	Employer	Employee	Total
Jul 01-Jun 02	7.30	0	7.30	18.44	0	18.44
Jul 02-Jun 03	5.76	0	5.76	16.01	0	16.01
Jul 03-Jun 04	7.39	0	7.39	18.53	0	18.53
Jul 04-Jun 05	7.39	0	7.39	18.52	0	18.52
Jul 05-Jun 06	7.83	0	7.83	18.53	0	18.53
Jul 06-Jun 07	9.85	0	9.85	20.92	0	20.92
Jul 07-Jun 08	9.85	0	9.85	20.92	0	20.92
Jul 08-Jun 09	9.85	0	9.85	20.92	0	20.92
Jul 09-Jun 10	9.85	0	9.85	20.92	0	20.92
Jul 10-Jun 11	10.77	0	10.77	23.25	0	23.25
Jul 11-Jun 12	4.91	3	7.91	14.10	3	17.10
Jul 12-Jun 13	5.18	3	8.18	14.90	3	17.90
Jul 13-Jun 14	6.95	3	9.95	19.06	3	22.06
Jul 14-Jun 15	7.37	3	10.37	19.82	3	22.82
Jul 15-Jun 16	7.26	3	10.26	22.04	3	25.04
Jul 16-Jun 17	7.52	3	10.52	22.57	3	25.57
Jul 17-Jun 18	7.92	3	10.92	23.27	3	26.27
Jul 18-Jun 19	8.26	3	11.26	24.50	3	27.50

**The Great Recession’s Impact on Organizations: A Focus on Florida’s Police Agencies**

In the months immediately following the official end of the recession in June 2009, unemployment peaked (BLS, 2012), and the long-term unemployment numbers remained high. The economy’s recovery stalled, reducing job seekers ability to find employment (Elsby, Hobijn & Sahin, 2010). Using the four key labor market indicators of labor force participation—unemployment, job openings/employment, and hours per worker—all the major labor market groups were displaced by the decline (Elsby et al., 2010; Grusky et al., 2011). By the end of 2009, California, Michigan, Nevada and Florida had some of the highest jobless rates, consistently exceeding the national average of 10%,

at 12.2, 13.8, 14.5 and 11.2%, respectively. Pay and benefits in the private sector fell during the recession and rose during the recovery, while public sector pay and benefits initially rose, then fell during the same business cycle. This pattern suggests a greater and more immediate private over public sector sensitivity to compensation adjustments during business cycles (Lewin, 2012), possibly related to collective bargaining agreements and other unique public sector considerations.

By 2011, the impact of the recession on the public sector had proven profound, with over 85% of police agencies reporting having been forced to reduce their budgets over the previous year, (International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP), 2011). Unparalleled operating budget cuts took place in technology, training and equipment purchases, with the elimination of specialty units, and in some cases, consolidations and regionalization of shared services (COPS, 2011). Additionally, some agencies instituted HR staffing practices such as layoffs and furloughs, along with pay freezes and reductions to compensation packages (COPS, 2011).

Labor relations consequently became contentious as employees were laid off or faced pay and benefits cuts. In 2010 for example, the City of Vero Beach gave its police officers the choice between furlough days or taking a 5% pay cut, while simultaneously introducing increased health insurance premium contributions (Zahner, 2010). Other cities implementing furloughs included Wilton Manor (Huriash, 2010), Melbourne and Palm Bay (Gallop, 2009). In Florida, a total of 44,476 full time officers and 29,396 civilians were employed by law enforcement agencies in 2008; by 2012 these numbers were reduced by 8% and 15.8%, respectively (Department of Justice (DOJ), UCR, 2008, 2012). During the same 2008-2012 period, these reports also show that the number of

police agencies in Florida also declined from 402 to 333, supporting national reports of consolidations and regionalization.

Police force reductions and benefits reforms are important because police personnel are needed around the clock to perform a wide range of duties that involve both in-role and extra-role activities. Officers are charged with protecting lives and property by enforcing the law, patrolling and developing relationships with their communities, making arrests, responding to emergency and routine calls, finding lost children, quelling disturbances and solving a range of problems, among their many other duties (Maguire, 2003; Maguire et al., 2000). Police work has also consistently been identified as one of the most stressful professions (Dantzer, 1987; Dill, 2016; FL Statutes, Chp 121.0515; Wright, Powell & Ridge, 2006). It is both physically demanding and dangerous, with constant exposure to crime and violence and the frequent need to make difficult split-second decisions (Bakker & Heuven, 2006; BLS, 2017; Dantzer, 1987). Because of their vital community roles that require service delivery beyond in-role duties, law enforcement officers have been selected for the study to understand the impact, if any, that compensation changes and pension reform in particular may have had on their commitment and extra-role performance levels, as well as any intentions to quit their jobs. Importantly, my research seeks to understand impact to commitment levels caused by attribution to either internal or external forces, which ties into perceptions of organizational responsibility.

In examining specific changes to pension benefits during the years immediately following the Great Recession, public sector pension plans experienced significant reforms in the U.S. and abroad, including crisis-shaken European countries such as

Greece, Ireland, Italy, Portugal and Spain (Hinrichs, 2015). The move to bring public sector employee benefits closer to that of the private sector became an extremely contentious issue, pitting employees and their unions against state and local government legislative bodies, their senior management and, in some cases, the very residents whom they have pledged to serve (Dannin, 2012). The public steadily received a stream of post-recession information on public sector pension plans as evidenced by a spike in the number of articles on the subject in *The Wall Street Journal* and *The New York Times*, two of the top U.S. newspapers (Anzia et al., 2017). From 1999 to 2007, for example, *The New York Times* published an average of nine stories per year on the subject, but from 2009 to 2011 they averaged 79 per year. *The Wall Street Journal* similarly published an annual average of eight pension articles per year prior to the recession, increasing to an average of 75 from 2009 to 2011. Examination of three midsize, regional newspapers in Colorado, Florida and California (the *Denver Post*, the *St. Petersburg Times* and the *Orange County Register* respectively, revealed the same trend.

When examining the question of employee organizational commitment, law enforcement is in the unique position of extending the concept of the organization to their elected officials and the residents served. Because police departments are mostly organized at the municipal level, they often become objects of political control (Levitt, 1997; McCrary, 2002; Wolf, Korosec & Goltz, 2008), and in a number of Florida cities, voters were directly involved in the pension reform decision-making process, with special elections held to determine employees' fate. The City of Hollywood, for example, held a special referendum in 2011, with citizens voting in favor of pension reform (Alanez, 2011). Their mandate allowed the city to remove automatic cost-of-living adjustments

(COLA) from the police pension plan, increase retirement ages and change the plan formulas with the goal of reducing retirement payments. Similarly, in New Smyrna Beach, voters eliminated the COLA for all categories of employees including police officers (Florida Taxwatch & LCI, 2013).

Simultaneously, other local governments proceeded with similar reforms, and in 2010, the City of Miami Beach increased employee pension and health plan contributions by 2% and implemented a wage freeze for all employees (Linn, 2013). In 2012, the City of Naples froze their police pension benefits and reduced the multiplier, effectively reducing future pension liabilities (Linn, 2013). In a more far-reaching approach, in 2009, 2012 and 2014, respectively, the Town of Jupiter Island, the Village of Tequesta and the Town of Longboat Key froze their current pension plan and instituted DC plans for future police hires (Gilroy, 2015; Linn, 2013, Town of Jupiter Island, 2013). When a pension freeze is adopted, future accruals cease with the plan closed to new entrants who are usually offered a DC-type alternative (Munnell et al., 2006). It is noteworthy that in June 2018, the Village of Tequesta revoked its decision, transferring all members of their 2013 established 401a DC plan, to a new DB plan retroactive to date of hire.

The City of Sarasota's 2012 attempt to freeze their DB plan, place new hires in a DC-type plan and reduce current employees' COLA retirement benefits from 3.2% to 1%, resulted in impasse (Schelle, 2012). In a 2012 move that affected both public safety and regular employees, the Town of Palm Beach introduced a hybrid pension plan that reduced benefits within their DB plan and ushered in a new DC plan (Kelly, 2016). Within four years approximately one-third of the town's police department staff departed, resulting in a 2016 revision of their HR compensation practice that dissolved the hybrid



plan and reintroduced competitive pension benefits designed to improve recruitment and retain personnel (Kelly, 2016).

Ongoing management/union clashes and impasses were well publicized during 2010-2013, the recovery period when the public sector started to feel the impact (Lewin, 2012). Newspaper headlines appeared regularly detailing these tensions: “Naples police union, city at odds so rare impasse hearing set for today” (Buzzacco-Foerster, 2010); “Jacksonville declares impasse in pension talks with police union” (Gibbons, 2012); and “After 18 months, Plantation declares impasse in police contracts (Huriash, 2013). Other examples of municipalities and counties making the news include Cape Coral (Repecki, 2011), Miami-Dade County (Mazzei, 2013), Kenneth City (Lindberg, 2013), Margate (Pellecchia, 2013) and Flagler County (Holt, 2014). Across Florida, the number of Special Magistrates case filings also spiked with the Public Employees Relations Commission (PERC), a special commission enacted by Florida statute to help with resolving labor negotiation impasses.

The numbers in Table 2 outline the rise in negotiation impasse immediately following the recession, as employees and their representatives sought to prevent imminent or further decline to their pay and benefits. The total number of police union claim filings began its sharp rise in 2009 with 21 police case filings, up from 11 in 2008, and peaking at 30 police filings in 2011 before starting its decline in 2012, and returning to its pre-recession average in 2014.

Table 2

*Compiled from PERC Special Magistrate case filing data 2004-2014*

Year	Total Special Magistrate Case Filings	Total Police Special Magistrate Case filings
2014	52	18
2013	67	17
2012	91	28
2011	127	30
2010	101	22
2009	90	21
2008	59	11
2007	64	17
2006	53	14
2005	48	16
2004	45	14

Although the Great Recession officially ended in June 2009, it is not surprising that the greatest number of Special Magistrate filings were made from 2009-2012, as county and local government budgets usually lag behind the general economy (COPS, 2011; Lewin, 2012). Unionization also tends to lock employers and employees into three-year contracts that delay the governments' ability to negotiate changes (Florida TaxWatch and LCI, 2013). Their main revenue stream of property taxes also took a longer time to rebound as a result of the slow process involving foreclosures and short sales (COPS, 2011, Mitchell, 2012), while lengthy and bureaucratic government decision-making processes serve to delay strategy execution (Mitchell, 2012). Additionally, in November 2011, 47 months after the recession began, employment was still 4% lower nationally than at its start, exacerbating the revenue stream lag (Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), 2012).

State and local governments, continued to reel from the crisis years after the recession's official end, with law enforcement agencies predicted to continue feeling the

effects for the next 5-10 years (COPS, 2011). Police and firefighters' numbers remained down by 2.6% in 2015, when compared to 2008 (Maciag, 2017). Non-sworn police personnel numbers also remained down by 11.1%, representing the largest employee group of casualties from the Great Recession. Maciag proposed that to maintain sufficient police staffing, civilian employees had to be sacrificed, with sworn officers having to take up the administrative slack. In 2015, Florida's sworn personnel fell to 36,287 from the 2012 count of 40,919. Civilian law enforcement numbers also decreased further from 24,764 in 2012, to 21,000 in 2015, with number of agencies reduced to a new low of 274, down from 333 in 2012 and 402 in 2008 (DOJ, UCR 2015; Maciag, 2017). The unprecedented, simultaneous and acrimonious disputes in the wake of the Great Recession, directly challenged the HR compensation practices being proposed and instituted, as well as the employers' rationale for their decisions.

### **HR Practices and Employee Attitudes and Behaviors: A Focus on Total Compensation Rewards**

To achieve their goals, organizations employ a number of HR practices that impact employees, the work environment, procedures, practices and outcomes (Vance, 2006). Researchers over the years have identified various groupings of influential HR practices, including selection and hiring, remuneration and recognition, training/career development, and empowerment-related opportunities (Chew et al., 2008); training, benefits, hiring, remuneration and work schedules (Nishii et al., 2008); recognition, empowerment opportunities, competence development, fair rewards and information sharing (Paré et al., 2007); job and task design, recruiting and selection, training and development, compensation and performance management (Vance, 2006); and hiring and

selection, training, involvement and pay (Wright, Gardner, Moynihan & Allen, 2004).

The common practices identified among these findings are hiring, total rewards, training and company involvement, via information sharing or empowerment-type concepts.

Various studies have depicted HR practices as linked to employee attitudes such as organizational commitment (Grdinovac et al., 2012; Guest, 1997, Meyer et al., 1997; Meyer et al., 2000) and job satisfaction (Berg, 1999) and in certain situations, deviant behaviors may occur when policies and practices are perceived as mistreatment (Greenberg, 1990). The link between HR practices and employee attitudes was further found to be connected to employee outcomes such as job performance (Barney & Wright, 1998; Guthrie, 2001; Huselid, 1995; Marchington and Grugulis, 2000; Parker & Wright, 2001; Wetland, 2003), and turnover (Guthrie, 2001; Huselid, 1995; Way, 2002). However, a full appreciation of the path from HR practices to organizational outcomes is still evolving, requiring additional empirical work on the mechanisms connecting the two (Collins & Smith, 2006; Guest, 1997; Paré et al., 2007; Wright et al., 2004).

Theories and models developed around HR practices typically try to explain how and why these practices impact organizational outcomes. Using Porter's (1980) competitive advantage concept as the antecedent to HR practices, Guest (1997) proposed a theoretical model to connect HR practices, firstly, to employee attitudes and behaviors and, ultimately, to company financial and performance outcomes. The concept of competitive advantage, developed in the 1980s by Porter (1980, 1985), outlines the basic strategies—differentiation, focus and cost—which various companies use to determine organizational best practices. Arising from these strategies, Guest identifies seven HR practices in Figure 2 that influence employees' attitudes and behaviors.

When competing from one of these three strategies, the right combination of HR practices is required to attain the desired outcome (Chew et al., 2008; Guest, 1997; Nishii et al., 2008). Bowen and Ostroff (2004) proposed that management should utilize its HR system to unambiguously create and support the right environment if they wish to achieve desirable employee behaviors and outcomes. The attainment of innovative outcomes, for example, may require combining HR practices such as training, rewards and involvement, but not necessarily status and security, practices that may be more appealing in a bureaucratic, para-military organization such as a law enforcement. When properly aligned, these supporting HR activities function as sources of competitive advantage (Porter, 1998), resulting in desirable HR attitudes such as commitment, quality and flexibility. Desirable employee attitudes yield appropriate behaviors such as effort and organizational citizenship that usually translate into positive employee performance outcomes and, ultimately, the successful attainment of company goals.

HRM Strategy	HRM Practices	HRM Outcomes	Behavior Outcomes	Performance Outcomes	Financial Outcomes
Differentiation (Innovation) Focus (Quality)	Selection	Commitment	Effort/ Motivation	High: Productivity Quality Innovation	Profits
	Training				
	Appraisal	Quality	Involvement	Low: Absence Labour turnover Conflict Customer complaints	ROI
	Rewards				
Cost (Cost-reduction)	Job design	Flexibility	Org'l. citizenship		
	Involvement				
	Status and Security				

*Figure 2. Linking HRM and Performance. Reproduced from “Human resource management and performance: A review and research agenda” by D. Guest, International journal of human resource management, 8(3), p. 270.*

While limited in numbers, empirical studies have mostly corroborated the mediating influence of organizational commitment between HR practices and organizational effectiveness (Meyer & Smith, 2000; Whitener, 2001). Similarly, Youndt (2000) found a link between HR practices and organizational value creation via the influencing effect of what he classified as built-up employee intellectual capital, while Eckardt, Skaggs and Youndt (2014) found an indirect relationship with HR practices and an increase in desirable organizational outcomes. On the other hand, an analysis of the effect of High Performance Work Systems (HPWS) on organizational outcomes in three different industries, found a direct, significant positive relationship between the two variables (Appelbaum, Bailey, Berg & Kalleberg, 2000) where HPWS was operationalized as compensation, training and empowerment systems.

While the current dissertation has singled out HR rewards or total compensation practice for analysis because of the substantial effect of pension reform on police officers' current and future remuneration, it is important to note that the Great Recession impacted the full range of HR practices within these agencies. The top actions implemented in police agencies in response to economic changes included training cuts, layoffs, furloughs, job redesigns and hiring freezes (IACP, 2011).

Total compensation HR strategy is one of four major HR practices consistently identified in the literature on HR practices and High Performance Work Systems (Gerhart & Milkovich, 1992; Gerhart & Fang, 2015). Its main purpose is to support the organization's strategic objectives (Bassi & Van Buren, 1999; Milkovich et al., 2017; Vance, 2006), with meticulously designed and executed reward programs that align employees' well-being and interests with company goals (Heneman, 2007). The

connection between remuneration practices and employee attitudes has been well documented with respect to organizational commitment (Mendis & Fasana, 2015), performance (Heneman, DeSimone, Dooley, & Jones, 2002), and turnover (Bashaw & Grant, 1994; Davies, 2001; Gough et al., 2009). In a longitudinal study, Rusbult and Farrell (1983) found that with the passing of time, benefits increasingly become an important determinant of commitment. Turnover, for example, has been found to be lower in organizations with DB pension plans (Allen, Clark & McDermed, 1993; Williams & MacDermid, 1994). Employees with DC plans and five to 10 years' service are also identified as 23% more likely to change jobs compared to employees with DB plans and the same length of tenure (Haverstick et al., 2010).

Employees place differing values on various types of compensation, with different groups of workers motivated by certain benefits over others (Center for Advanced Human Resource Studies (CAHRS), 2010). Law enforcement officers, for example, place great value on job security and benefits (White et al., 2010). With the knowledge that defined pension benefits are strongly linked to tenure (Munnell et al., 2007; Johnson, 2015; Nyce, 2007), it would appear that their compensation packages are best structured to maintain stability and order through practices that influence retention and continuity, while promoting conscientious performance.

Employees on the whole tend to perceive compensation as a measure of equity and justice (Milkovich et al., 1999), which influences emotions and ultimately impacts their commitment (Guest, 1997; Weiner, 1985). It is a determinant of the employee's financial security and social well-being and is a major driver of their behaviors (Milkovich et al., 1999). In a study of nine large companies, of which three were from the

public sector and six from the private sector, Chew et al. (2008) found remuneration to positively predict affective commitment and turnover intent, supporting the usefulness of HR practices in forecasting employee behaviors. One study also found compensation practices to significantly impact organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Nawab et al., 2011), with benefits exerting a strong influence on employees' affective commitment. Wages, on the other hand, exhibited strong correlations with normative and continuance commitment.

Compensation cuts, including increases in employee benefits, co-payments and deductibles diminish employee commitment when perceived by employees to be a devaluation of their contributions with little or no concerns for their welfare (Fiorito, Bozeman, Young & Meurs, 2007). Similarly, reductions in current and future benefits impact employees' well-being, and depending on their causal attribution, may also result in unfavorable responses (Wheeler et al., 1991). Previous research demonstrates that companies that are quick to cut labor costs at the first sign of economic difficulty are often labeled as callous, less caring and more likely to engender attitudinal consequences that negatively impact organizational outcomes (Gilmore et al., 1997; Knudsen, Johnson, Martin & Roman, 2003). In one study that examined the tactics used by 4,700 companies in the last three recessions prior to the Great Recession (1980-1982, 1990-1991, 2000-2002), Gulati, Nohria & Wohlgezogen (2010) found that private sector companies that employed immediate and sharp cost cutting strategies had the lowest probability of gaining an edge on the competition when economic stability was restored. In yet another study that came on the heels of the 2001 recession, reactions to significant organizational changes were found to be affected by employee perceptions of organizational fairness,



with intent to quit or stay adversely affected when employees attributed a process to injustice (Korsgaard, Sapienza & Schweiger, 2002).

In reviewing these and other lessons learned from previous recessions, the major HR challenge found for decision makers facing economic and organizational transformations was keeping workplace employment adjustments from deteriorating into perceptions of psychological contract violations (Robinson et al., 1994). Such violations were found to be directly related to attributions of injustice, leading to decreased trust, morale and commitment levels among employees.

### **Employee Attributions Regarding HR Strategies and Practices**

The literature on HR practices confirmed that organizational strategies drive HR practices (Guest, 1997; Porter, 1980). However, in order to predict attitudes, behaviors and outcomes, organizations need to understand how employees perceive these HR practices at the individual and group levels, and the mechanism which they get translated into attitudes and behaviors. Attribution theory advises that individuals use a cognitive process to give causative accounts of why certain events occur (Kelley, 1973). It is a knowledge-seeking strategy where information is gathered, allowing these individuals to understand the underlying causes as a means of effectively managing themselves and their environs (Jones, Kanouse, Kelley, Nisbett, Valins & Weiner, 1971; Weiner, 1985). In an attempt to explain how such management is achieved, Heider (1958) first advanced the idea that people distinguish between three causal dimensions—locus of causality, stability and controllability—factors that influenced successive mainstream social attribution theories including Kelley's 1973 Co-Variational Model, Weiner's 1985

Attributional Theory of Motivation and Emotion, and now Nishii et al's 2008 HR attribution model.

The locus of causality dimension seeks to determine whether the cause of an event is driven by internal or external influences. Actions attributed to internal factors are linked to the character of the actor under observation, and, therefore, perceived as predictive of similar future behaviors (Jones et al., 1965). Attributions to external circumstances, on the other hand, disclose less about the actor's character and behavior (Kelley et al., 1980), consequently reducing the ability to predict repeat behaviors. The stability dimension is concerned with whether the cause is permanent or short-lived across time and circumstances, with attributions to stable causes leading to expectations for repeat behaviors. Stability and locus of causality are, therefore, rarely studied apart as levels of stability have been found to strengthen or weaken the observer's emotional and behavioral responses to an event (Harvey et al., 2014; Weiner, 1985). The controllability dimension addresses whether the cause was intentional where the actor or entity could have changed the outcome of the event (Weiner, 1985), bearing in mind that external attributions are usually seen as less controllable while internal attributions are considered to be under the direct charge of the actor (Harvey et al., 2014).

Research on causal attribution is considered important because of the role it plays in shaping individual and group attitudes and behaviors (Kelley, 1973; Martinko, Harvey & Douglas, 2007; Weiner, Graham & Chandler, 1982), which have implications for the workplace in terms of employee attitudes and work outcomes (Greenberg, 1990; Guest, 1997; Luthans & Church, 2002; Nishii et al., 2008). The study of attributional theory has been sparse in the organizational sciences domain (Martinko et al., 2011); however, a

2014 meta-analytic study of 17 papers in the field concluded that it has predictive power on par with other theories that seek to explain workplace issues (Harvey et al., 2014). Specifically, Harvey et al. (2014) found evidence that at the individual level, attribution to internal or external causes had a significant impact on the employees' affect and performance, with more intense emotions associated with internal attributions and individual performance.

Weiner's Attribution Theory of Motivation and Emotion proposes that emotions sometimes play a greater role in the attribution process than the actual cause of the event or action (Weiner, 1985). Depending on how an event is interpreted, the individual's positive or negative emotional responses become associated with one or more of Heider's three causal dimensions of causality, controllability and stability (Averill, 1983; Weiner 1985, 2006; Weiner et al., 1979). Internal/external causality has consistently been found to be related to emotional evaluations of disposition, character or nature (Weiner, 1985; Weiner et al., 1979), and because attributions to stable causes are linked to continuity, the stability dimension is usually associated with feelings of hope or hopelessness (Weiner, 1985; Weiner et al., 1979). The controllability dimension is related to feelings such as anger, gratitude and pity, with the actors assigned personal blame or praise (Weiner, 1985; Weiner et al., 1979).

Weiner's model is important because it introduces the idea that the kinds of emotions aroused during the attribution process are linked to the types of attributions that individuals make. The connection between the three dimensions and affect is also significant because emotions are tied to perceptions of responsibility, which in turn also influences attitudes such as commitment, ultimately leading to behavioral outcomes

(Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Kelley, 1973; Weiner, 1985). The locus of causality and the controllability dimensions are considered to be the main drivers of the emotional reactions to the trigger event, while the stability dimension serves to either intensify or lessen the emotional and behavioral responses (Weiner, 1985). In many cases, emotions are established as being preceded by causal thoughts (Weiner et al., 1982), with emotions of anger, outrage and hostility found to be not only particularly related to the actual trigger event, but also to some perceived offense (Averill, 1983; Bies, 1987; Folger, 1987).

The dissertation explores the officers' perceptions of the locus of causality driving pension reforms instituted as part of a post-recession HR solution and the kinds of emotions evoked. Ultimately, it seeks answers regarding the implications for employee commitment, extra-role performance and intent to turnover. The extent to which police officers attribute pension reform and any negative financial impact to stable, controllable internal factors and any associated emotions, should predict commitment levels to their organizations and, consequently, the behavioral outcomes being studied (Guest, 1997; Nishii et al., 2008).

While Weiner's attributional model seeks to explain the connection between attribution and affect with the goal of predicting outcomes, Kelley's (1973) Covariational Model explores the process by which individuals establish their attributions and connect them to internal versus external influences (Harvey et al., 2014; McLeod, 2012). According to Kelley (1973), causal attribution is determined by three main factors that explain how attribution progresses, namely distinctiveness, consensus and consistency. Distinctiveness refers to well-defined behaviors displayed in past

experiences where stable, customary, non-distinctive actions are attributable to internal causes and unique or highly distinctive responses mostly attributable to external causes (Martinko et al., 1998). Consensus measures the degree to which a behavior is shared by multiple parties in a particular situation (Harvey et al., 2014) where high consensus would predict attribution to external stimuli. Finally, consistency refers to the actor's response to the same or similar stimulus over time, with high consistency predicting stable or internal causes.

Kelley's co-variational model will be useful in explaining employees' perception of their organization's HR practices. Is their handling of pension reform, for example, perceived as consistent with the organization's past behaviors concerning employees' well-being, or is it a one-time response, unique enough to be considered an anomaly attributable to uncontrollable environmental factors? The answers are also expected to predict the officers' commitment and performance levels along with any intent to sever the employment relationship.

In developing their newer HR-specific model of attribution, Nishii et al. (2008) combine aspects of the attribution theories of Heider (1958), Kelley (1980) and Weiner (1985), to create a model of HR attribution. They advise that their construct focuses on employees' causal explanations for HR practices that they regularly experience within their organizations. These individual attitudes toward HR attributions become shared, resulting in collective perceptions at the work unit level (Nishii et al., 2008). Similar to Guest (1997), they theorize that the company's strategic goals drive the selected HR practices (Table 3). They further expand Heider's Internal/External causality theory and Kelley's Co-variational model to include two typologies of internal attributions, namely

“Quality and Employee Enhancement” and “Cost and Employee Exploitation,” also depicted in Table 3. The external variable identified in the 2008 study was “union compliance” however for the purposes of the current study, “economic pressure” was substituted. Weiner’s theory of Motivation and Emotion is also embedded in each perceived employee-oriented philosophy of well-being or exploitation, which elicits corresponding attitudes and behaviors, depending on the emotions aroused.

Table 3  
*Typology of HR Attributions*

	<u>Internal Attributions</u>		<u>External Attribution</u>
	Business/Strategic goal underlying HR	Employee-oriented philosophy	
Commitment-Focused	Service Quality	Employee well-being	Economic Pressure
Control-Focused	Cost reduction	Exploiting employees	

Adapted from Nishii, L. H., Lepak, D. P., & Schneider, B. (2008). Employee attributions of the “why” of HR practices: Their effects on employee attitudes and behaviors, and customer satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology*, 61, p. 509.

Where employees perceive that HR practices are designed to promote high service quality for customers, Nishii et al. predict related support for employee enhancement or well-being. Conversely, organizations competing from a cost strategy approach will signal perceptions of employee exploitation and poor customer service. The employee attributional process is therefore summarized as an assessment of the organizational context, which arouses an affective reaction (e.g., anger, pride), leading in turn to various attitudes including job satisfaction, organizational commitment, engagement and organization citizenship behaviors and, finally, various types of workplace behavior (e.g., deviance, innovation, productivity and turnover) (Judge, Scott & Ilies, 2006). The variable organizational commitment is therefore positioned as an

attitudinal outcome of HR practices, which takes the form of an attachment between the employee and the organization, and which is reflected in the employees' behaviors and involvement in the organization (Jaramillo, Nixon & Sams, 2005).

Organizational crises such as the major budget shortages brought on by the recession are usually unfavorable and unforeseen, creating a chain reaction that triggers each stakeholders' attributional processes (Coombs, 2007; Coombs et al., 2005). Theoretically, then, in attributing the causes for the direction taken, law enforcement officers will review the distinctiveness and consistency of their agency's past behaviors as well as responses by similar agencies (consensus) in order to determine their organization's level of internal responsibility. Controllability over problems of budget shortfalls and responsibility for DB plan underfunding will help shape the officers' attributional processes, triggering emotions such as anger, understanding or resignation, ultimately influencing whether they assign responsibility to internal or external circumstances. It is anticipated, therefore, that the officers' attitudes and behaviors will be influenced by the compensation practices implemented, and where it is perceived that these post-recession practices are chiefly motivated by stable and consistent employee-hostile, cost cutting motives, employee commitment and performance will be reduced (Nishii et al., 2008). Conversely, affective commitment is expected to increase or remain constant for those officers who perceive HR practices to be supportive of employee well-being in the face of low levels of controllability. Combining the various attributional models of Kelley (1973), Weiner (1985) via Nishii et al.'s (2008) research model of employee attribution, will be useful in exploring the connections between the

organization's HR compensation practices and employees' affect, attitudes and behaviors at individual and group levels.

### **Employee Commitment, Turnover Intent and Extra-Role Job Performance**

The mediating variable of employee commitment is presented first, followed by the outcome variables of turnover intent and extra-role job performance.

#### **Employee Commitment**

Employee commitment has been identified as the attitudinal outcome variable most impacted by HR practices, the others being engagement, job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviors (Guest, 1997; Wright et al., 2004). Affective commitment, in particular, has been found to be one of the most stable predictors of employee attitudes and behaviors (Meyer et al., 1993; Porter et al., 1974). It reflects the strength of the employee's identification with the organization's values and objectives, as well as their involvement in and emotional attachment to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer et al., 1991; Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979). The employer/employee relationship has its roots in social exchange and early equity theories where employees interpret their company's HR practices as symbolizing the organization's level of commitment to them (Settoon, Bennett & Liden, 1996). Early equity theory proposed that employees are concerned with their inputs in the organization, compared to the outcomes that they receive. They develop beliefs about what is a fair exchange for their contributions and are motivated to reciprocate by proportionally adjusting their attitudes and behaviors (Adams, 1963, 1965).

The precise HR practices that form commitment-based environments vary across research studies and organizations; some of the major influential factors consistently



identified, however, include compensation practices that affect group and organizational outcomes; training programs that emphasize the development of company-specific knowledge; and hiring and selection practices that ferret out the best person-fit for the job (Collins et al., 2006). When experiences within the workplace are consistent with the employees' expectations and their basic needs are met, studies have shown stronger affective attachment to the organization than for those employees who have less satisfying experiences (Meyer et al., 1991, 1993, 2004). Committed employees would therefore be expected to identify with their organization's values and beliefs, feel a sense of belonging, and be willing to act diligently on behalf of their organization (Porter et al., 1974; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982).

Meyer and Allen's three-component model proposes that there are three distinct components to commitment: affective, continuance and normative (1991). The affective component is related to the employee's emotional investment in the organization where high levels usually translate into a voluntary, agreeable, long-term stay. It results chiefly from the employees' personal characteristics and their perceptions of being valued and treated fairly, and correlates more significantly with a wider range of behavioral outcomes including turnover, turnover intention and job performance (Bentein, Vandenberg, Vandenberghe & Stinglhamber, 2005; Meyer et al., 1991, 1993, 2001, 2002). Affective commitment has been found to have a greater correlation with fringe benefits (Ahmad & Scott, 2015; Nawab et al., 2011), with employees who are affectively committed viewing their jobs in a broader spectrum of responsibilities or extra-roles, over those personnel who are less affectively committed (Morrison, 1994). Normative commitment explores the extent to which an employee feels that they owe it to the

organization to stay and depending on the exchange relationship, he or she may feel that staying is the right thing to do. Continuance commitment is simply the employee's analysis of the pros and cons of the economic and other value to be gained by staying or leaving. Continuance commitment is noteworthy in organizations because it has been negatively associated with performance, attendance and extra-role activities (Meyer et al., 2002).

Organizations seeking to foster affective commitment in their employees can best achieve this goal when they prove their own commitment by creating the right work environment (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Meyer et al., 2001). The literature has identified HR policies and practices as variables that set the stage for employee perceptions of support and, as such, contribute to the development of affective commitment (Meyer et al., 2001, 2002; Naumann, Bennett, Bies, & Martin, 1999). There are differing mindsets associated with each of the three commitment dimensions and it is theorized that commitment develops through associations with these mindsets (Meyer et al., 2001). The affective is associated with a desire to be relevant to a specific target such as the organization; the normative is characterized by a mindset of obligation and duty; and the continuance is associated with the pros and cons of an alternate course of action. Human Resource compensation practices, along with the other suite of HR practices, impact these mindsets and ultimately one or more of the commitment dimensions.

To understand the nature and extent of law enforcement officers' mindset and the organization's opportunity to foster affective and normative commitment, we first have to grasp their reasons for pursuing a career in law enforcement. The literature reveals an array of reasons that have remained stable over time, including altruism, job security,

power, excitement, and control (Foley, Guarneri & Kelly, 2008; Oberfield, 2014). In a study commissioned by the San Diego Police Department prior to the Great Recession, the top seven reasons identified in order of importance were (1) a desire to help others, (2) stable employment, (3) pride in being in a peace-keeping profession, (4) salary and benefits, (5) adventure/excitement, (6) non-routine work, and (7) retirement benefits, with no statistically significant differences between items 3-5 (Ridgeway et al., 2008). Eighty-three percent of respondents identified the four top reasons listed as having the most influence on them. Similarly, Raganella and White (2004) found the desire to help people as the strongest motivating factor among a study of police recruits. A post-recession study in 2010, however, revealed that benefits had moved into the second most cited reason for joining the force, behind stable employment, which understandably became the new number one reason (White et al., 2010).

Employee commitment in the police force has been a neglected area of research (Metcalf et al., 2001), especially with respect to the design and structure of total compensation packages. With the effects of pension reform currently playing out in these agencies, it is important to understand its impact on organizational commitment and on the two critical employee outcomes of turnover and extra-role performance identified for this study. Organizational commitment has been found to be significantly related to employee benefits (Rusbult et al., 1983; Williams et al., 1994), and specifically to DB plans, while DC plans had no effect on this variable (Nyce, 2007). Organizational commitment has also consistently proven to be a strong predictor of job withdrawal, including turnover intent, turnover and absenteeism, with research data demonstrating significant negative relationships between commitment and these outcome variables

(Mitchell, 1982; Munnell, Golub-Sass, Haverstick, Soto & Wiles, 2008; Porter et al., 1974; Shore et al., 1995; Solinger et. al, 2008).

Higher commitment and job performance levels have been found in groups of employees who perceive fair treatment within their organizations when compared to workers who perceive unfair treatment, with the former group reporting fewer turnover intentions and a greater willingness to go the extra mile (Bartle et al., 1999; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al, 2001). While studies have suggested significant relationships with job performance (Allen & Clark, 1987; Riketta, 2002), the overall findings have been mostly weak to moderate (Cohen, 1991; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 1997). Interestingly, higher levels of statistical significance were found between commitment and extra-role over in-role job performance, when a distinction is made between company assigned in-role tasks versus employee controlled contextual or extra-role duties (Carlos et al., 2016; Riketta, 2002).

### **Turnover Intent**

With the post-recession modifications to HR practices, there are burgeoning questions concerning employee retention, directly related to reduced benefits and compensation including the continued ability to attract and retain a young, educated workforce (Cong et al., 2015; Danzer & Dolton, 2012; Danzer et al., 2016). Turnover and turnover intent are of considerable interest to organizations because both positive and negative consequences may result from employee separation (Ahlrichs, 2000; Staw, 1980). “Turnover” refers to the voluntary departure of an employee from the organization and the end of the formal employment relationship (Price & Mueller, 1981), whereas “turnover intent” refers to the employee’s plan to voluntarily separate from the

organization for another company or job (Schyns et al. 2007). Industries and regions customarily have standard turnover rates for the types of workers employed (Staw, 1980) and against which normal ranges can be measured and managed.

Turnover can also serve to rid the organization of poor performers (Staw, 1980; Wareham, Smith & Lambert, 2015), and to inject fresh blood who are eager to serve, replacing personnel in high stress positions who are at risk for mental burnout (Maslach, 1978; Staw, 1980). However, the most serious consequences identified by researchers and HR practitioners are the loss of good talent and the costs related to recruitment and hiring, training, potential overtime costs and productivity losses while the replacement process is taking place (Gardner, 1986; Mobley, 1982). The high level of job-specific, community and organizational knowledge required of law enforcement officers means that high turnover can also weaken agency performance and service delivery (Orrick, 2002; Wilson, Dalton & Grammich, 2010). The costs of turnover extend beyond direct recruitment, selection and training costs, as there are also indirect costs related to operational disruptions, with demotivation and stress issues increasing when other employees have more than their share of work to perform (Staw, 1980; Wareham et al., 2015). Depending on the reasons for the turnover, demoralization may also occur in cases where the turnover takes place in a tense environment involving organizational issues such as work conditions (Steers, Mowday & Porter, 1980).

Law enforcement agencies not only invest significant resources in recruiting but also in the screening and extensive training of potential police officers. The main criteria for calculating law enforcement turnover costs are separation, recruitment, selection, and new employee training costs (Orrick, 2002; 2008). Hiring costs are usually higher for

police agencies than for many other industries because of the due diligence and numerous checks that are usually conducted (Koper, 2004). Excluding the customary advertisements and the review committee costs, the selection process for a police hire typically includes psychological assessments, detailed background investigation, polygraph testing, medical and drug screening, and in some cases, physical agility tests, a process that can total significant costs for the hiring of a single officer (Wilson et al., 2010). In a 2004 study of large metropolitan police departments in the United States, 67.7% used some type of personality test in the hiring process (Varela, Boccaccini, Scogin, Stump & Caputo, 2004) with the goal of measuring deviant and dysfunctional traits and screening out unsuitable and emotionally unbalanced candidates (Caillouet, Boccaccini, Varela, Davis & Rostow, 2010; Sanders, 2008).

The cost of training new police officers is also substantial; nationally, the total hiring and field-training process takes approximately 43 weeks in large departments and 31 weeks in smaller departments (Koper, 2004). Agencies attribute this to increased community policing training for problem-solving skillsets that are usually learned on the job (Koper, 2004). Prior to the Great Recession, many agencies were reporting a serious lack of qualified candidates available to fill as much as 25% of their open positions (Koper, 2004), and as the effects of the recession subside, it is expected that the problem of unqualified candidates will resurface as agencies try to adequately re-staff (Wilson et al., 2010). While law enforcement numbers are still below pre-recession levels, the Bureau of Labor Statistics (Occupational Outlook Handbook) is projecting a 7% growth from 2016 to 2026 in the number of municipal and sheriff patrol officers. The prediction is on target as in 2017 the State of Florida was back to its pre-recession numbers with a

total of 44,593 full-time, law enforcement officers even though number of agencies remained low at 320, compared to 402 in 2008 (DOJ, UCR, 2017). As the competition for talent increases, organizational commitment will be a major differentiator in retaining good officers, especially for smaller agencies serving populations under 50,000 as a result of their higher turnover rates (Koper, Maguire Moore & Huffer, 2001; McIntyre, Stageberg, Repine & Mernard, 1990; Yearwood, 2003).

Specific research examining law enforcement turnover is sparse (Wareham et al., 2015); however, a 2010 review of a few available studies found no predominant trend or theory to explain why officers quit (Wilson et al., 2010). They concluded that personal, external and internal influences combined to determine the officer's job satisfaction and organizational commitment levels, attitudes that eventually impacted their turnover and turnover intent. In one early study of Vermont police officers who voluntarily quit their jobs, the number one reason given at the time was salary (66%), followed by benefits and job satisfaction (McIntyre et al., 1990). The study concluded that benefits and retirement appeared to be the two most significant reasons in the particular focal group for leaving and for deciding whether to continue in a law enforcement career.

In a 2002 study of high turnover among Alaska Village Public Safety Officers, the significant explanations were officer pay and expenses, training and support, stress, and Alaska Native heritage issues (Wood, 2002). In another North Carolina recruitment and retention study of 80 sheriff offices, salary and benefits improvements were selected as the number one solution for recruitment and retention problems, with 90% of respondents selecting it as the cure for their high attrition rates (Yearwood, 2003). The average length of stay for a new officer was three years or less, with Yearwood recommending that

policies (i.e., HR practices) be implemented to improve retention rates. The sparse data, however, make it difficult to pinpoint significant relationships between police benefits and their extra-role performance or turnover intent, a gap which the current research seeks to address.

### **Extra-Role Job Performance**

Within law enforcement agencies, an officer's performance is considered successful when he has sufficient experience, knowledge and ability to make practical decisions with minor supervision (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 1988). Key traditional measures of police performance at both individual and organizational levels include response times, clearance, arrests/citations (Alpert & Moore, 1993; Maguire, 2003), and crime rates derived from cumulative police data (Maguire, 2003). More recently, with increased emphasis on community policing, additional proactive measures related to quality of life improvement within the communities have also been added to some agencies' performance measures (Alpert, Flynn & Piquero, 2001), goals that will be difficult to meet without committed employees who are willing to go the extra mile.

Carlos et al. (2016) propose that contextual or in-role performance must be distinguished from task performance, as the former is established by the organization based on their various needs and consequently differs considerably among jobs, while the latter is driven by the individual and as such remains more constant across jobs. In addition to being influenced by the individual worker's motivational level (Griffin et al., 2000), extra-role performance includes organizational citizenship behaviors such as volunteering, undertaking additional commitments outside of formal duties and helping others as needed (Borman et al., 1997).



The organizational commitment dimension most frequently studied with respect to individual performance is attitudinal or affective commitment (Brett, Cron & Slocum, 1995; Mowday et al., 1982); however, all three commitment types have been shown to correlate with varying levels of performance output. In a number of studies using self-reports, for example, continuance commitment was found to have a negative relationship with job performance (Meyer et al., 1993; 1997). In a 1989 study that examined the link between the organization's strategy, employee commitment and performance, attention to employee well-being was associated with affective commitment and higher levels of performance (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin & Jackson, 1989). On the other hand, where the relationship was mostly transactional with the employee simply concerned with the high costs of separation, continuance commitment was higher and performance was reduced. These results support Nishii et al.'s HR attributional model, where employee enhancement and well-being were found to predict affective commitment and higher performance standards, while cost and employee exploitation predicted lower performance.

Guest (1997) proposed that the term "performance" has multiple measures as it relates to the three main stakeholders of customers, employees and company well-being. For best results however, Guest advised that none of the measures associated with these stakeholders are to be maximized at the expense of the other. In Figure 2, Guest situates organizational commitment as a direct outcome of HR practices and an antecedent to employee behavior and performance outcomes. The desirable employee performances identified are high productivity, quality and innovation, and low absences, turnover,

conflict and customer complaints, which are antecedents to the organization's strategic goals.

In a meta-analysis of studies on individual employee performance, Ricketta (2002) demonstrated a reliable, though weak correlation between affective commitment and performance, but was able to provide useful directions for future research of this kind. His study concluded that the ability to predict performance via the mediating effect of affective commitment was best achieved through self-reported measures that identified, separated and measured extra-role behaviors. A stronger correlation was found between affective commitment and extra-role, over in-role behavior, which supports research that links organizational commitment and the employees' willingness to go the extra mile (Meyer et al., 2002; Mowday et al., 1982; Paré et al., 2007).

#### Summary

Chapter II examined the literature surrounding employee attribution as a theoretical framework for exploring the connections between an organization's HR compensation practices, the employees' affect, attitudes and behaviors, and ultimately organizational success. An attribution model linking police officers' commitment levels to turnover intent and extra-role performance is proposed as a direct result of recent reductions in their overall compensation packages. Chapter III will outline and discuss the methods used in this study. The findings are represented in Chapter IV and a discussion of the results, implications and recommendations for research and practice are presented in Chapter V.

## CHAPTER III

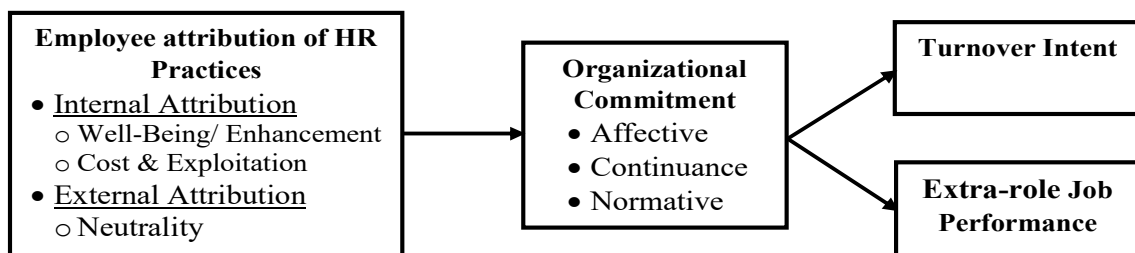
### METHOD

The research method outlines the design, administration and specific procedures followed in collecting data pertinent to the research questions posed (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). Surveys provide statistical descriptions of populations and so the survey design is driven by the survey objectives (Groves et al., 2011). Chapter III starts with a summary of the employee attribution model, followed by a restatement of the purpose and the hypotheses previously outlined in chapter I. Next, the research design is discussed, including error management and variable measurement. The research design is followed by the data collection mode, then the measurement design, including instrumentation, population, sample frame, sample size, design and selection. Finally, the survey administration process, including data collection, data management and the data analysis procedures are presented, with a brief introduction to Chapters IV and V.

#### **A Model of Employee Attribution for HR Practices and Organizational Outcomes**

The literature on the predictor and outcome variables was summarized to hypothesize an employee attribution model that explains the connection between certain HR practices and organizational commitment, and then to turnover intent and extra-role job performance among employees in the public sector.

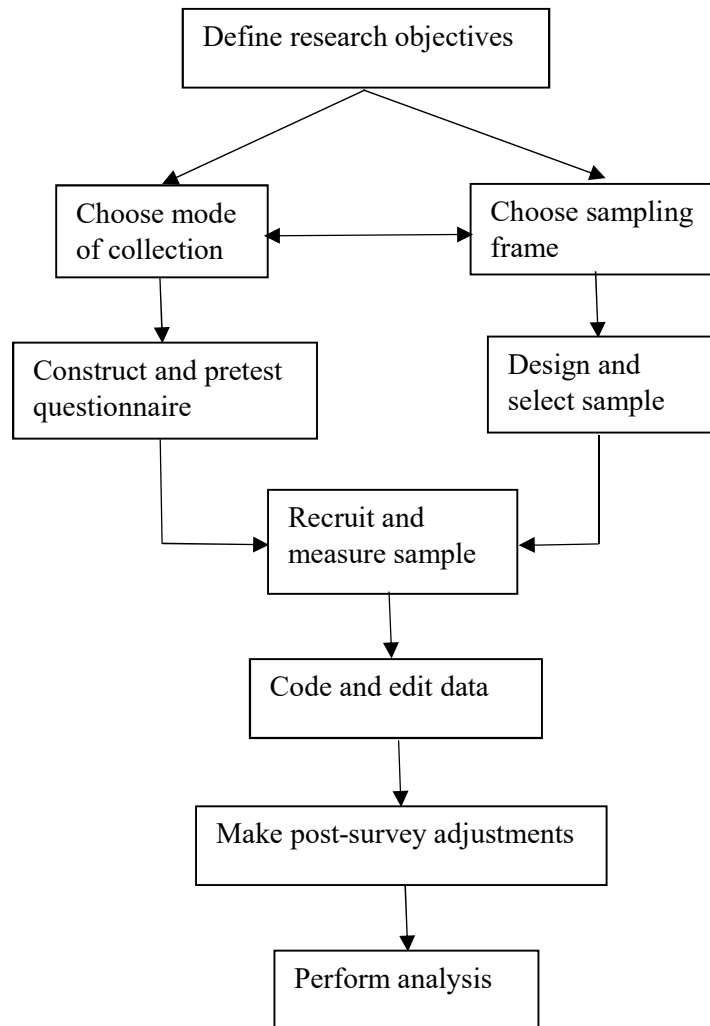
#### **Research Model**



*Figure 1.* Hypothesized Research Model of Employee Attribution

The model begins with the employees' assessment of the organization's compensation practices and their perception of management's rationale for their implementation, whether quality-based or exploitative. Organizational commitment is positioned as a mediating variable with a path that predicts both turnover intent and extra-role job performance. Organizational commitment is operationalized using a three-dimensional construct of affective, normative and continuance commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1996, 2000; Meyer et al., 1993), where each dimension has varying impact on employees' turnover intent and extra-role job performance. In the simplest interpretation of the model, employee attribution of managerial HR practices creates varying levels of organizational commitment, which ultimately helps to predict employee turnover intent and extra-role job performance.

The steps outlined by Groves et al. (2011) in Figure 2 (below) will be used throughout this chapter to guide the methodological design process from concept to execution. Arising from the research objectives, the two major design decisions involve 1) the measurement process (data collection mode/questionnaire construction) and 2) the sampling design process, with both converging at the recruitment and data collection phase (Groves et al., 2011). After the data are collected, they are coded, edited, adjusted and analyzed in preparation for the findings to be presented.



*Figure 2. A survey from a process perspective. Reproduced from “Survey methodology” by Groves et al., John Wiley & Sons, Vol. 561, (2011).*

### **Purpose of the Study/Research Objectives**

The present study has 3 main purposes:

- (1) to examine whether police officers employed by local government agencies attribute recession-linked HR compensation practices to internal or external factors, and the impact of these attributions on their

commitment levels, and ultimately turnover intent and extra-role job performance.

- (2) to determine if there are any significant differences between pre-and post-recession hires with respect to the independent, mediating and dependent variables identified in (1) above.
- (3) to add an HR perspective to the literature on the 2007-2009 Great Recession fallout, which has mostly been explored from financial, economic and political perspectives.

### **Hypotheses**

On the basis of the theories and findings resulting from the literature review, four research hypotheses were tested:

*H<sub>1</sub>*: Police officers' attribution of the locus of causality for the personal, financial impact arising from pension reforms will be significantly related to their commitment to the organization.

*H<sub>2</sub>*: Organizational commitment will mediate the relationship between HR practices and turnover intent.

*H<sub>3</sub>*: Organizational commitment will mediate the relationship between HR practices and extra-role job performance.

*H<sub>4</sub>*: Post-recession police hires with reduced pension benefits will experience higher continuance commitment, and higher turnover intent than their longer-tenured colleagues.

## Research Design

The multivariate research design may be described as quantitative, cross-sectional, and explanatory non-experimental. It is designated multivariate as subsets of the variables are combined and analyzed together (Johnson et al., 2012). A quantitative approach is also appropriate as the research objective is to measure relationships between variables to provide explanations for certain attitudes and behaviors among local government police employees. The current research solicits the officers' current attitudes toward their organization's HR practices and therefore data will be cross-sectional, that is, collected at a single point in time, with the relationships explored between the variables outlined in the attribution model presented. The main advantage of cross-sectional research is that data can be collected from many different types of respondents in a short time period (Johnson et al., 2012), including important demographic factors such as age, gender, race, rank, pay, tenure, education and union status.

Cross-sectional designs have, however, been criticized for common method bias linked to measurement techniques (Rindfleisch, Malter, Ganesan & Moorman, 2008). Common method variance (CMV), a type of variance resulting from the measurement methods, can sometimes create false correlations among variables generated by common sources (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003). The main sources of CMV have been identified as common rater (when the same respondents provide data for the independent and the outcome variables), the measurement design, and the contexts within which the items on the questionnaire are presented and the measures obtained. Scales used to measure attitudes, for example, have been found at times to influence responses (Tourangeau, Rips & Rasinski, 2000), and there is also the tendency of some persons to

respond to the survey in a consistent manner or to try and present themselves positively. These issues can create false relationships where the researcher, runs the risk of inflating or deflating the relationships observed between the constructs (Jiang, 2014; Podsakoff et al., 2003; Reio, 2010).

To reduce these problems, it is recommended that the study be comprehensively rooted in research, the measurement scales and formats be varied, and diverse respondents included in the survey (Rindfleisch et al., 2008). The election of a large sample size also helps to reduce the problem by bringing the sample values closer to the population values (Johnson et al., 2012; Meyers, Gamst & Guarino, 2013). Bias can also be reduced through the use of strong survey designs from development to execution and providing precise directions for participants (Podsakoff et al., 2003). While data for both the independent and outcome variables for this research will be collected exclusively from the police officers, an extensive literature review was conducted on the relations between HR practices, attribution, organizational commitment, job performance and turnover intent. The hypotheses being tested and the use of mediation analyses also serve to reduce consistent responses as the independent and outcome variables are mediated by the effect of an intervening variable. The use of validated instruments with their various response techniques of open- and closed-ended questions and five- and seven-point Likert-type scales with built-in reverse-keyed items should help to reduce problems associated with consistent response. The inclusion of all levels of the police hierarchy in the survey also helps to reduce the negative effects of common method bias (Rindfleisch et al., 2008). Finally, statistical approaches such as marker variable techniques are



available as needed to control for CMV effects (Jiang, 2014), having been found to be quite reliable in approximating their impact (Malhotra, Kim & Patil, 2006).

The study design is classified as explanatory non-experimental because the respondents will not be randomly assigned to groups and there is no manipulation of the predictor variable (Johnson et al., 2012). When making practical recommendations, however, the use of non-experimental research data has been cautioned against in applied disciplines such as human resource development (Reio, 2016). The focus will therefore be on testing the stated hypotheses, with the goal of explaining the officers' attitudes and behaviors in response to post-recession HR practices implemented. In testing the hypotheses, three multivariate techniques will be applied, to include multiple regression analysis, structural equation modeling with confirmatory analysis, and multivariate analysis of variance.

### **Errors**

To ensure that sound survey estimates are attained, all stages of the process depicted in Figure 2 must allow for coordination and checks and balances from start to finish (Groves et al., 2011). Checks and balances are important as errors may occur at the point of population coverage, sampling, measurement, adjustment, processing and the level of the respondents themselves, with each of these stages impacting the other. Coverage, sampling and measurement errors occur early on in the research, starting with the potential for gaps between the sample and the population under research (coverage errors); gaps between the sampling frame and the actual sample (sampling errors); and problems arising from the design of a poorly constructed instrument (measurement errors) (Dillman, Sinclair & Clark 1993; Groves et al., 2011). Non-response errors where

persons in the sample choose not to respond or to simply skip certain questions (Dillman, Tortora & Bowker, 1999) may occur as a consequence of prior measurement errors or data collection mode, hence the need for simultaneous attentiveness to all stages of the process. Finally, processing and adjustment errors are post-survey errors (Groves et al., 2011) with the potential to produce coding error issues with respect to the former, and estimates bias with respect to the latter. Methods to reduce all these various types of errors are discussed throughout chapter III.

### **Variables**

Human Resource attribution is measured using the intact HR attribution scale (Nishii et al., 2008). Affective, Normative and Continuance employee commitment are measured using intact segments from the revised Three Component Model (TCM) employee commitment scale (Meyer et al., 1993). Turnover intent is measured using the intact intention to quit/turnover scale (Colarelli, 1984); and extra-role job performance is measured using the intact contextual segments of Carlos & Rodrigues' (2016) Job Performance scale. While the constructs of HR attribution (Nishii et al, 2008), extra-role job performance (Carlos et al., 2016) and intent to turnover (Colarelli, 1984) have not specifically been validated with police officers, the organizational commitment scale (Meyer et al., 1993), has previously been explored among law enforcement personnel (Beck & Wilson, 2000; Jaramillo et al., 2005; McElroy, Morrow & Wardlow, 1999).

#### *Attributions of HR Practices*

Nishii et al. (2008) proposes three distinct employee HR attribution factors in the workplace, with two driven by internal factors and the third by external forces. The internal factors are “quality and employee enhancement” and “cost and employee

exploitation,” where the former represents the extent to which employees perceive that HR practices are designed to enhance service quality and promote their best interests, and the latter representing the organization’s focus on keeping costs down and extracting the most work from the employees. The external and third factor is outside the full control of the organization, and in the case of the Nishii et al. (2008) study, it is an obligation to comply with union agreements. External attributions are described as circumstances where HR practices are adopted as a result of external constraints and, as such, employees perceive management’s role as impassive (Nishii et al., 2008). Examples include union agreements, federal laws, industry norms, and the like. In keeping with the current study’s objective of examining the compensation changes that took place during and after the 2007-2009 Great Recession, the measure will be modified by replacing “union agreements” with “external economic pressures.”

Employee attitudes were found to be positively related to management’s commitment to enhancing service quality and employee well-being, and negatively related to management’s interest in exploiting employees and cost cutting (Nishii et al., 2008). The authors further advise that the conceptual link between employee attribution of HR practices and organizational outcomes can be studied in one of two ways. The first approach is to study the dependent variable outcomes across organizations, while examining the relationship between the organization’s HR practices and employee attributions. The second approach, used in their research, is to study the organization’s dependent variable outcomes across department units. This study uses the former approach.

Nishii et al (2008) conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to determine the data fit to the proposed HR attribution factors. They found their three-factor attributions model to be a good fit ( $\chi^2(194) = 2,439.03$ ; CFI = .91; RMSEA = .06; SRMR = .06). Quality and Employee Enhancement HR Attribution reported Cronbach's alpha of .91 while Cost and Employee Exploitation HR Attribution reported Cronbach's alpha of .82. The external attribution factor "union agreements," identified as the external pressure facing management in the 2008 study, reported a Cronbach's alpha of .79.

The HR internal/external attribution factors are computed by presenting a statement representing each HR practice being examined, followed by five response items that are measured with a five-point Likert scale. The scale ranges from 1 = *not at all* at one end, to 5 = *to a great extent* at the other, indicating the extent to which respondents perceive the HR practice as designed to enhance service quality, to keep costs down, or to respond to external circumstances. While the original study explored five HR practices, this research only addresses three: retirement, health insurance benefits and pay, a total of 15 response items overall. The statements targeting these three HR practices are: "My company provides employees the retirement benefits that it does...," "My company provides employees the health insurance benefits that it does...," and "My company pays employees what it does..." followed by the five response items:

- a. in order to help employees deliver quality service to customers
- b. so that employees will feel valued and respected (to promote employee well-being)
- c. in response to economic pressures that are external to the organization (e.g. the 2007-09 recession)

- d. to try to keep costs down
- e. in order to get the most work out of employees.

From the HR Attribution factors, this study aggregated six separate HR Attribution scales firstly, to measure the officers' attribution to their overall compensation package and secondly to measure their attribution to their retirement plan. These scales are presented in Table 7 as HR Attribution, Quality/Enhancement, Cost/Exploitation, Economic Pressure, Retirement Quality/Enhancement and Retirement Cost/Exploitation.

Retirement benefits, health insurance and pay were aggregated as one scale to measure the officers overall HR attribution to their compensation package. Items (a) and (b) constitute the internal scale *Quality and Employee Enhancement*, items (d) and (e) constitute a second internal scale *Cost and Employee Exploitation*, while responses to (c) constitute the external scale of economic pressure in this study. Consequently, responses to all (a)s and (b)s were aggregated to determine the total Quality and Employee Enhancement HR Attribution for the three HR practices being examined, all (d)s and (e)s were aggregated to determine the total Cost and Employee Exploitation HR Attribution, while all (c) response items were aggregated to arrive at the External HR attribution. To arrive at the HR Attribution scale for only retirement benefits, responses to items (a) and (b) of the retirement responses were aggregated, followed by responses to items (d) and (e). The aggregated Cost and Employee Exploitation scale was eventually excluded due to its unreliable score. Table 7 outlines the reliability results for all five scales.

#### *Organizational Commitment*

The 2004 revised version of the 1993 TCM Employee Commitment Survey (Meyer et al., 1993; 2004) was used to measure the police officers' commitment to their

organization, with affective commitment (ACS), normative (NCS) and continuance commitment (CCS) each measured with a six-point scale. Meyer et al. (2002) found that while the degree of the correlations differed, affective and normative commitment were highly correlated with respect to antecedent, correlate and outcome variables, in their meta-analyses of research papers studying the three components of commitment. Specifically, most of the workplace variables that correlated with affective commitment also had positive though weaker correlations with normative commitment. As questionnaire acceptability is usually increased by reducing length (Johnson et al., 2012), the six-item version of each scale was chosen because Meyer et al. (2004) advise that it is very similar to the eight-item scale and recommend that selection be determined on the basis of desirable questionnaire length.

Meyer et al. (1993) recommend that to arrive at the most effective results, the scale items should be mixed on the questionnaire and employees should complete the survey anonymously. The commitment scales are a series of statements representing feelings respondents may have about their organization, with scores ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*, where higher scores denote higher levels of commitment. One example of an ACS statement is: “This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me,” while an example of a CCS statement is, “I feel I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.” An example of a NCS statement is “This organization deserves my loyalty.” The employees’ responses to the items in each scale are averaged to arrive at an overall score for each of the commitment components. Some of the statements are reverse-keyed and so when tabulating, the scores should be

reconfigured where 1 = 7, 2 = 6, and so on. An example of an ACS reversed-keyed statement is “I do not feel a strong sense of ‘belonging’ to my organization.”

For the six-item scales, Meyer et al. (1993) reported reliability scores of .82 for the ACS, .83 for the NCS, and .74 for the CCS. Similar reliability scores have been found with ACS .89, NCS .79 and CCS .77 (Gellatly, Meyer & Luchak, 2006) and ACS .847, NCS .670 and CCS .749 (Xu & Bassham, 2010). The construct validity is generally supported by confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with RMSEA suggesting a good fit: (.075, 90% CI = .067, .083), SRMR (.074), and CFI (.90) (Xu et al., 2010). When interpreting results for the organization, the optimal ACS scores should be high and the CCS scores should be low, that is, above the scale mid-point in the case of the former, and below the mid-point in the case of the latter (Meyer et al., 2001). They advise further that high CCS scores in the organization may indicate high numbers of employees who feel stuck in the organization and while not about to quit, they do the minimum required.

#### *Extra-Role Job Performance*

Extra-role job performance was measured using the Carlos et al. (2016) self-reported, contextual performance measures. The newly developed 2016 questionnaire was designed to be applied across the two performance dimensions of job tasks and contexts, which are further divided into seven sub-dimensions. There are three job tasks sub-dimensions, which include job knowledge (four items), efficiency (three items) and organizational skills (five items), for a total of 12 job task measures. There are four contextual performance sub-dimensions of cooperation (three items), persistence (five items), organizational conscientiousness (five items) and interpersonal skills (four items), a total of 17 items used to measure contextual/extra-role performance. The researchers

report that although the results of their validity tests were satisfying and adequate for use in the United States, the results did not live up to their expectations. Chi-square divided by the degrees of freedom with a value of 1.64 ( $p = .000$ ), suggests a good fit; RMSEA = .05 indicate a very good fit, GFI = .838 indicate a tolerable fit, and finally PGFI = .716 also indicating a good fit. Internal consistency was reported at .749 using Cronbach's alpha and the overall job performance construct reported a moderately high reliability score of .878.

For the purposes of the present research, only the four contextual sub-dimensions (17 items) will be used to measure the employees' extra-role behaviors. Measured on a seven-point Likert scale, where scores range from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*, the contextual performance items include four reverse-scaled indicators. One example of a cooperation statement is, "Usually, I also perform tasks that are not related to my specific duties," while an example of an organizational conscientiousness statement is, "It's really difficult for me to miss work, even when I'm feeling sick." An example of an interpersonal and relational skills statement is "Communication inside organizations, even in workgroups, is fundamental so that people can perform their tasks effectively," while a reverse-scaled persistent effort item is "When something is not right at work, I don't complain because I am afraid that others won't agree with me." Reverse-scaled items will be configured during tabulation where 1 = 7, 2 = 6, and so on.

#### *Turnover Intention*

Employee turnover intention was measured using Colarelli's (1984) three-item measurement scale for which he reported a coefficient alpha of .75, with similar reliability scores found by subsequent researchers: .80 (Zikic & Klehe, 2006); .79



(Gyensare, Otoo, Asare & Twumasi, 2015). In their 2015 study of antecedents and consequence of employee turnover intention, Gyensare et al. (2015), used LISREL 8.5 with maximum likelihood estimation to examine the scales and reported discriminant validity scores of .59, confirming the legitimacy of the scale in measuring turnover intent. The three items on the measure are, "If I have my own way, I will be working for (current organization) one year from now," "I frequently think of quitting my job," and "I am planning to search for a new job during the next 12 months." All three items are measured on a five-point scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*. The one reverse-scaled item will be configured during tabulation where 1 = 7, 2 = 6, and so on.

### **Data Collection Mode, Measurement Design and Sampling Process**

Great care was taken to ensure that the questionnaire items matched the research objectives (Johnson et al., 2012) with the instrument designed to elicit both demographic and sensitive information about the officers' perceptions of their organization's human resources practices.

#### **Data Collection Mode**

On the basis of the pros and cons of various data collection methods, including the recommendations of the instrument developers (Carlos et al., 2016; Meyer et al., 1993), it was determined that a web-based, self-administered questionnaire survey best fits the study to assess the sensitive employee issues identified. Participation is strictly voluntary with respondents able to refuse to take part or to opt out of the study at any time. The data collection mode affects measurement quality as it could potentially influence the respondents' judgmental processes and strategies (Groves et al., 2011).

Self-administration is a tradeoff for privacy concerns, as more questions are usually left unanswered when surveys are self-administered as opposed to having an interviewer (Tourangeau et al., 2000). Interviewer involvement, however, reduces confidentiality and so responses to the measures of employee commitment levels, intent to turnover and job performance require complete anonymity and privacy to ensure that employees are comfortable enough to respond freely without offering up socially desirable responses (Carlos et al., 2016; Meyer et al., 1993; Schwarz, Strack, Hippler & Bishop, 1991). Privacy is important, as some employees fear repercussions for submitting unfavorable answers that they believe the organization will not appreciate.

The web-based option was attractive because it reduced the survey administration timetable (Couper, 2000), removing the need for data entry, which also has the potential to increase errors (Cantrell & Lupinacci, 2007; Groves et al, 2011). Web based options can, however, create selection bias issues as employees differ in technical abilities, and it may require skill sets that some employees lack (Groves et al., 2011; Weigold, Weigold & Russell, 2013), an issue that can also result in non-response errors (Fan & Yan, 2010). The actual level of influence is still uncertain however, as general equivalency has been found between internet data collection and traditional paper-and-pencil methods (Weigold et al., 2013). The communication channel is visual, with respondents required to read each question and select or type the answer. The questionnaire layout and the various answer options presented can also impact the respondents' answers (Groves et al., 2011; Schwarz et al, 1991), and so to reduce these potential measurement errors, tried and true strategies are addressed in the measurement design and sampling section below.

## **Measurement Design and Sampling Process**

The self-administered, survey instrument was developed to measure the relationship of employee attribution of HR practices with organizational commitment, extra-role job performance and turnover intent (Appendix A).

### **Instrumentation**

The questionnaire is divided into three sections comprising 24 distinct questions, with some questions having a range of three to seventeen sub-items that measure varying dimensions of a concept, requiring 71 total overall responses. Section I has three questions that seek to capture pension benefits information. Section II has eleven questions that include 58 sub-items that explore the employees' opinions about the organization's HR compensation policy, their affective, normative and continuance organizational commitment, extra-role job performance and turnover intent. Section III has ten demographic questions such as gender, marital status, education, pay and age.

It is important to ensure that the questionnaire design is simple and user-friendly, bearing in mind the burden that respondents face in terms of comprehension, retrieval, estimation and judgment when selecting or communicating an answer (Groves et al., 2011; Schwarz et al., 1991). In a study of questionnaire length and sensitive issues, Dillman et al., (1993) found that shorter, respondent-friendly survey instruments increased response rates, while sensitive or objectionable questions had the opposite effect. Consequently, strategies applied to reduce non-response and measurement errors included educating the respondents on the benefits of the survey, minimizing the length of the questionnaire to 24 questions (71 maximum possible responses) with Qualtrics software estimating an average 10-15 minutes to complete, avoiding double-barreled and

leading questions, using plain and familiar language and providing a visually attractive layout and ordering of questions (Groves et al., 2011; Johnson et al., 2012; Maitland, 2008; Thayer-Hart, Dykema, Elver, Schaeffer & Stevenson, 2010).

Instrument development was guided by the existing literature on the most effective ways to measure employee attitudes. Maitland (2008) recommends the use of surveys, advising that five to seven point scales are sufficient for most attitudes. To measure the strength of the attitudes, Groves et al. (2011) endorses scale use while advocating for the use of closed questions. In sections II, respondents were, therefore, asked to indicate the degree of agreement or disagreement with a number of statements using five-point and seven-point Likert scales. On both scales, the opinion “strongly disagree” or “not at all likely,” was assigned a weight of one at one end and “strongly agree” or “extremely likely,” a weight of either five or seven at the other end.

Reduction in sampling errors starts with the high quality of the sample frame and so the representativeness of the population was increased by securing a comprehensive list of all law enforcement agencies as well as a viable means to identify all local governments with Defined Benefit plans. Non-response errors were identified as the greatest threat for this study, potentially causing Type I or Type II errors (Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007). While increasing the sample size minimizes non-response errors, encouraging participation and engaging both the agency administrators and the sample population was important. To increase the reliability and validity of the four constructs being studied, the recommendation to use multiple closed-ended statements to measure each one (Johnson et al., 2012), was accepted, with each statement ranging from a minimum of three statements to a maximum of seven. The use of open-ended questions

is, however, desirable in those cases where the researcher wants to understand the respondents' answers in greater depth than the close-ended questions will allow (Maitland, 2008). Two open-ended questions were, therefore, added to the questionnaire, where the officers were asked to share their attitudes toward their current pension plans and also state the actual number of years in law enforcement. The rationale for the former question was to have employees tell us, in their own words, how they feel about their current pension benefits, and for the latter, to capture actual years of service in the profession, as opposed to the years of service range at their current job.

### **Population**

Law enforcement officers were selected for study from among public sector employees because they perform a number of essential and unique duties above and beyond the terms of their job description (Riketta, 2002). On a daily basis, they protect lives and property, patrol communities, respond to emergency and routine calls and resolve a range of domestic and other problems (Maguire, 2003; Maguire et al., 2000), duties that are enhanced by extra-role activities. It is important to understand their attribution of post-recession HR compensation practices including pension reform, as their attribution could impact commitment, turnover and their extra-role performance, which in turn could directly affect the community's customer service and security levels. The state of Florida was selected because the researcher is a HR Director of a local government municipality within the state, with strong theoretical research and practical interest in adding to the literature on compensation and pension reform. The goal is to provide data that will guide management and decision makers as they continue to

struggle with the connection between HR practices and employee commitment levels, attitudes and behaviors.

The study population was full-time police officers in Florida who had been actively employed with their agency for at least six months at the start of the survey period, and were employed by a local government agency (minimum of 15 full-time officers) with a defined benefit pension plan in place, whether currently active or closed to new entrants. The rationale for only including agencies with 15 or more employees is that the inclusion of too many small agencies becomes impractical and unwieldy. Local government agencies with State FRS-managed plans were excluded because they were not responsible for pension reforms that took place within their agencies. With the 2011 FRS pension reform legislated by the State of Florida, local government employers were not directly involved in those changes that eventually impacted their organization's HR compensation practices, and would not, therefore, be appropriate subjects for the present study.

### **Sample Frame**

The sample frame was created by first retrieving a list of all police agencies in Florida from the Florida Department of Law Enforcement (FDLE) website, last updated on May 30, 2017 (FDLE, 2017). The site grouped the agencies by police departments, state agencies and Sheriff's offices, of which 280, or 62%, represented the target group of municipal government police departments. These numbers are consistent with national findings that local government police departments typically account for 60% of total sworn personnel (Reaves, 2011). The FDLE's three groupings also coincide with

Wareham et al.'s (2015) agency types, which they recommend as the standard to allow for ease of comparison:

- Municipal (i.e., city, township and village police departments),
- County (i.e., sheriff's offices), and
- State (i.e., state police and highway patrol).

After the removal of colleges, aviation/port authorities and school board police agencies from the FDLE's list, the number was reduced to 256 eligible agencies. Next, using the 2017-18 FRS membership directory (FRS, 2017), a total of 48 local government agencies that were active members of the state's retirement plan were excluded. The reduced schedule of 208 agencies was then cross-checked against the Department of Management Services registered listing of local government DB pension plans (DMS, 2013). Finally, after the removal of very small agencies with fewer than 15 full-time officers, the final sample frame had a total of 141 agencies, the names of which are listed in Appendix B.

### **Sample Design, Size and Selection**

Wareham et al. (2015) suggests five agency categories determined by the total number of full-time sworn officers as follows:

- Small agencies: 1 to 49 full-time sworn officers
- Medium agencies: 50 to 99 full-time sworn officers
- Large agencies: 100 to 299 full-time sworn officers
- Extra-large agencies: 300 to 1,999 full-time sworn officers
- Super agencies: 2,000 or more full-time sworn officers.

With no municipal agency in Florida employing more than 2,000 officers (City of Miami being the largest with 1,022 officers), only the categories of small (15-49); medium (50-99); large (100-299) and extra-large (300-1,999) were relevant for this study.

The FDLE assigns regional numbers to each agency ranging from 1-14, with low numbers representing the northernmost agencies and high numbers assigned to agencies in South Florida. To ensure a high degree of representativeness and also enhance the statistical precision of the population estimate (Hinkle, Wiersma & Jurs, 2003; UNICEF, 1995), a multi-stage, stratified random sampling strategy combined with probability proportional to size (PPS) technique was initially used to allocate equal numbers of officers to each regional group. The agencies were divided into four major groupings of North, North-Central, South-Central and South using a randomly selected PPS sampling interval of 2,016 across the 15,143 officers spread within the 141 agencies in the sample frame. Next, 24 of the 141 municipal agencies in the sample frame were randomly selected from the four regional groups (twelve small, four medium, four large and four extra-large), broken down into three small, one medium one large and one extra-large from each region. Of the 24 agencies (population, 3,624), only nine however consented to participate (population, 548). Table 4 outlines distribution by region and agency size.

Table 4  
*Agency Participation by Region & Size*

<b>Agency Size</b>	<b>Region I (North)</b>	<b>Region II (North-Central)</b>	<b>Region III (South-Central)</b>	<b>Region IV (South)</b>	<b>Total</b>
Small	1 (18)	2 (94)	3 (85)	1 (22)	7 (219)
Medium	0	0	0	1 (97)	1 (97)
Large	0	0	0	1 (232)	1 (232)
Extra-large	0	0	0	0	0
<b>Total:</b>	<b>1 (18)</b>	<b>2 (94)</b>	<b>3 (85)</b>	<b>3 (351)</b>	<b>9 (548)</b>



A list of all full-time police officers and work email addresses was requested from each of the nine consenting agencies. It was anticipated that many of the officers may be reluctant to respond because of topic sensitivity and social desirability bias (King & Bruner, 2000; Meyer et al, 2004; Nederhof, 1985), a problem that could potentially result in non-response bias. A population of 15,000 officers requires an approximate sample size of 375 when random sampling is used (Johnson et al., 2012). They also advise that the sample size can be reduced when dealing with homogenous populations and stratified random sampling. To approximate the required sample size, and in order to increase statistical power, a decision was made to invite all 548 officers to participate in the study.

### **Survey Administration and Procedures**

The current section starts with the data collection process, including pilot testing, followed by the data management process (coding, editing and general post-survey adjustments) and data analysis.

#### **Data Collection**

The data collection process started with permission from Florida International University Institutional Review Board (IRB-18-0256). Then, to further reduce measurement and non-response errors, cognitive interviewing (Shapiro, 2008), a form of pilot testing was conducted using two respondents outside the study. The goals were to observe, discuss and make adjustments to the instrument as necessary on the basis of:

- 1) The respondents' understanding of the questions on the survey instrument,
- 2) The respondents' mental retrieval process used to answer the questions,
- 3) The adequacy of the answers supplied, and
- 4) How the respondents actually select their answers.

After revising the questionnaire using the cognitive interview findings, the measurement instrument was next pre-tested on one law enforcement personnel and then with a small agency that met all the criteria as the agencies in the sample frame. These tests helped to assess the adequacy of the instrument, identify logistical issues and potential problems that may occur with the proposed data analysis procedures (Peat, 2001). Pilot-testing with the small agency served to improve the internal validity of the instrument, where the questionnaire was administered in the same manner as the main study. Feedback from all the sources was used to determine ideal questionnaire length, wording and response-time acceptability, clarity, adequacy and questionnaire interpretation issues (Peat, 2001; Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002). Problem questions were reworded and the instrument had minor revisions where one of the major feedback was to reduce wordiness and simplify the language.

Written permission was sought from each of the participating agency while the assistance of two police chiefs was solicited to act as research sponsors in encouraging support from their colleagues (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). The researcher also made contact with HR counterparts in these agencies to explain the importance of the research and to obtain additional buy-in and increase response rates. Personalized approaches, explanations and pre-contact with the sample frame units have been shown to be affiliated with reduction in non-response rates (Dillman, Smyth & Christian, 2009; Fan et al., 2010; Odom, 1979; Shih & Fan, 2008), and so it was prudent to encourage participation prior to circulating the survey. It is recognized that an aggressive approach can also lead to a different kind of bias where respondents simply insert an arbitrary response because they feel pressured (Sanchez & Morchio, 1992), and so a balanced

approach was taken. One week prior to circulating the survey, the law enforcement officers were sent a promotional email from their police chief, introducing the researcher and the research topic, and encouraging them to participate. It outlined the usefulness of the survey and the personal meaning for them individually as past research has shown that interest in the research topic has a significant relationship with whether or not respondents choose to participate (Geer, 1988).

The data were collected via a secure internet website operated by Florida International University (FIU) using their Qualtrics data collection survey tool. The invitation was sent to the 548 officers via an email that contained an embedded web-link to the survey. With privacy being so pervasive of an issue, the secure use of a link was expected to be more reassuring to respondents as their responses would not be available to their organization's email server, a detail that was painstakingly shared. Each respondent was able to access the questionnaire on their phones, tablets and computers, or other similar mode. The unique URL address for each survey response allowed for automatic response rate tracking and automatic follow-up emails to persons who had not completed their survey, while also restricting respondents to one submission per person.

Three days prior to administering the survey, the researcher briefly introduced herself to the officers via email, confirming the reasons for the study. On September 5, 2018 at the point of survey administration, a brief introduction on the web-based questionnaire restated confidentiality assurances, the survey purpose and survey source. Since studies have consistently shown that reminders significantly boost response rates (Fan et al., 2010; Thayer-Hart et al, 2010), six automatic reminder were sent. The

recommended timeframe for survey completion is 7-10 days (Thayer-Hart et al, 2010) and therefore the instrument was administered for two weeks (14 days) from September 5-19, 2018 to allow for the possibility of employees being out of the office for various short-term reasons.

### **Data Management**

A plan was developed for organizing, editing and analyzing the survey data ahead of receiving the responses (Thayer-Hart et al., 2010). The data were downloaded to the researcher's personal laptop, which is password protected, after which it was backed up to an external hard drive, which is kept in a secured home office. After study completion, the data will be kept for five years before being destroyed, in keeping with the Code of Federal Regulations 45 CFR 4 minimum three years' requirement (USDHHS, CFR title 45, part 46).

Editing serves to ensure that the data match the measurement design (Groves et al., 2011) and various editing techniques and procedures were applied to improve the data quality. For example, to keep respondents' errors to a minimum, consistency edits were applied where respondents identifying themselves as "Other" were reclassified as "Officer/Corporal" group after examining their hourly/exempt status and pay. Demographic datasets such as "tenure" and "pay" were also collapsed into fewer categories.

Missing data are a major issue that can influence the survey's analysis and interpretation and one school of thought recommends regression imputation as one of the best ways to predict the imputed value of missing observations by using information from the complete observations (McDonald, Thurston & Nelson, 2000). However, the risk of

Type 1 errors may increase as the standard error tends to be underestimated because of the uncertainty of the imputed values, (Enders, 2010). Maximum likelihood provides an approach to handle missing data. Where data are assumed to be randomly missing, it has been found to be advantageous over multiple imputation (Allison, 2012). The MPLUS statistical software used to analyze hypotheses 2 and 3 applies Full Information Maximum Likelihood (FIML) to account for missing data by using all available data to estimate the structural equation model. Instead of adding missing values for each respondent (Muthén, 1999), the population parameters most likely to produce the required estimates from the sample data, are assessed.

With respect to the open-ended question (number 15), which asks respondents to use one word to describe their feelings about their current pension benefits, each word was assigned to a category that captured similar responses. Open-ended questions, however, have the potential for similar responses to be coded differently or sometimes have an answer crop up with no preset category that fits (Groves et al., 2011). Adjustment error was kept in check however, as the researcher was the only person coding the responses and made necessary category amendments as the need arose.

### **Data Analysis**

Meyer et al., (2004) advise that the most common way to explore commitment scores is through regression analysis, by examining their relationship with the scores of other antecedents, correlates or outcome variables. Regression analysis was used to analyze hypothesis 1, which examines the relationship between the antecedent variable HR Attribution and commitment levels.

Structural equation modeling is a statistical technique that collapses observable variables into smaller numbers of latent variables by examining covariation among the observed variables (Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow & King, 2006; Rastegar, 2006; Stage, Carter, & Nora, 2004). Structural equation modeling was used with MPLUS (a statistical program for estimating models), to test the hypothesized relationships between the exogenous HR attribution variable and the three endogenous variables of organizational commitment, turnover intent and job performance. Causal modeling was selected because complicated events such as attitudes and behaviors in the workplace are usually influenced by more than one variable (O'Rourke et al., 2013). Conventional regression methods alone were not suitable for all the multiple variable interactions in the research problem being studied (Stage et al., 2004). In addition to multivariate analyses, structural equation modeling allows for the simultaneous study of direct and indirect effects across independent and outcome variables (Stage et al., 2004), while estimating the model's goodness-of-fit, the significance of the hypothesized relationships among the variable sets and testing the strength of the effects on the outcome variables (Lleras, 2005; 2013; Stage et al., 2004). The MPLUS output also provides a number of goodness-of-fit indicators to determine whether or not the relationships in the sample data are accounted for in the model (O'Rourke et al., 2013).

There are however, some necessary conditions and assumptions for applying latent variable modeling (Muthén et al., 1998-2017), a few of which include:

- A theoretical basis for model specification
- Continuously and normally distributed endogenous variables
- A reasonable sample size

- Identified model equations
- Complete data or appropriate handling of incomplete data

While sample size determination depends on the intricacies of the specific model, and the common recommendation is a minimum of 200 cases, the use of Confirmatory Factor Analysis/SEM software is considered workable here as the model is rooted in a solid theoretical foundation, with substantial extrapolations pulled from the literature review. Finally, although missing data was not a huge problem in this study, it received maximum attention through the application of Full Information Maximum Likelihood (FIML).

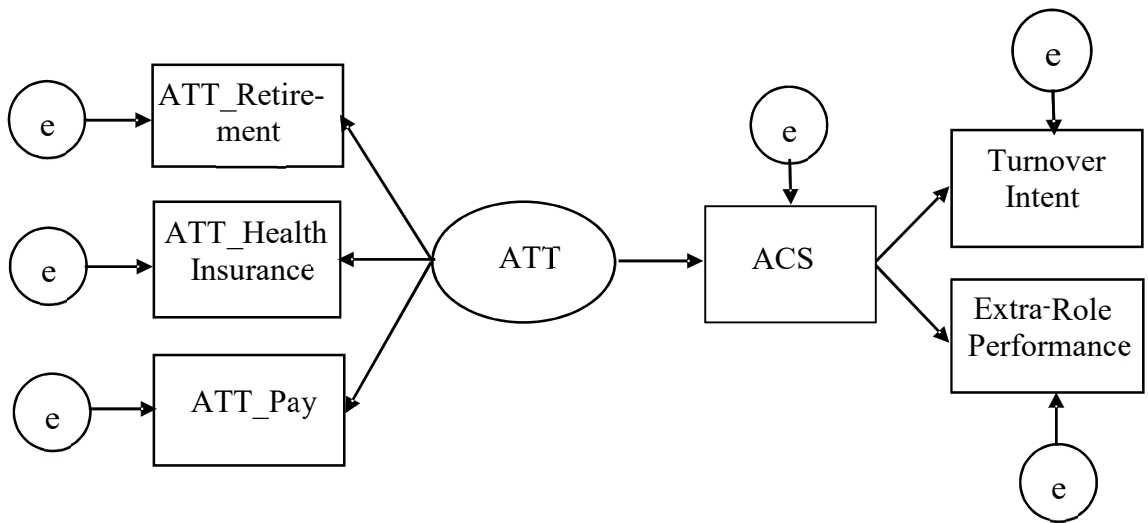
#### Summary

Chapter III outlined the design, administration and specific procedures followed in collecting data pertinent to the research questions posed in this study. Chapter IV will present the detailed findings from the survey and Chapter V will discuss the results and implications for application, theory and future research.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

Chapter IV presents the data analysis results which starts with a description of the sample demographics and their observed associations, followed by an examination of the four hypotheses, and ends with a brief chapter summary. Multiple regression analysis was used to explore  $H_1$ , which examines the officers' internal/external attribution for pension plan changes and any corresponding impact on their commitment levels. Multivariate analysis of variance was used to examine  $H_4$ , which predicted that newer police officers would display significantly higher turnover intent and continuance commitment levels than their longer-tenured colleagues. Finally, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was used to examine  $H_2$ , and  $H_3$ , via an attribution model (Figure 3) that hypothesized the mediating role of employee commitment between HR attribution and dependent variables, turnover intent and extra-role performance. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to validate the latent variables.



*Figure 3:* Hypothesized structural equation model of employee attribution. ATT is Employee Attribution Scale. ACS is Affective Commitment Scale.



## Participants' Sample Description

One hundred and forty-seven respondents completed the study, representing seven small, one medium and one large agency. Of the 147 respondents, 7.5% were missing data, and consequently, the frequencies in table 5 are different across categories. The following sections examine the participants' demographics, the cross tabulation of the demographic variables and the questionnaire measures, including scale reliability, means and standard deviations.

### *Demographics*

The majority of the sample were officers/corporals or equivalent (53.3%), males (86.8%), married or domestic partner relationship (77.9%), in the 40-49 age group (38.5%) and held either a two-year Associate's (23.5%) or a Bachelor's degree (31.6%). Based on an examination of their pay, unionization and hourly/exempt status, 7.4% of respondents who originally identified their positions as "other" were reclassified to the "officer/corporal" group. Frequency analyses revealed a 65.4% unionization rate, with 85.2% classified as hourly/non-exempt. Most had 16-25 years in law enforcement (41.4%) and 27.6% had been with their current agency for over 20 years. Finally, 31.1% identified earnings of over \$90,000, while 27.4% selected a range of \$50,000-\$69,999.

Table 5 provides the frequencies for the demographic variables.

Table 5  
*Frequency Table of Demographic Variables*

Category	Variable	<i>f</i>	Percent
Gender	Male	118	86.8
	Female	18	13.2
	Total	136	100.0
Marital Status	Single (never married)	17	12.5
	Married/Domestic Partnership	106	77.9

<b>Category</b>	<b>Variable</b>	<b><i>f</i></b>	<b>Percent</b>
	Divorced	13	9.6
	Total	136	100.0
Age	19-39 years	44	32.6
	40-49 years	52	38.5
	50 & over	39	28.9
	Total	135	100.0
Highest Level of Education	High school/Some college	39	28.7
	Associates (2-year)	32	23.5
	Bachelor's/Some post-graduate	43	31.6
	Post-Graduate Degree	22	16.2
	Total	136	100.0
Position in Organization	Police Officer/Corporal/Other	72	53.3
	Police Sergeant	34	25.2
	Police Lieutenant	13	9.6
	Police Captain & Above up to Chief	16	11.9
	Total	135	100.0
Union or Non-Union	Union	89	65.4
	Non-Union	47	34.6
	Total	136	100.0
Hourly/Exempt	Hourly	115	85.2
	Exempt	20	14.8
	Total	135	100.0
Tenure with Current Agency	Under 5 years	25	18.7
	Over 5-10 years	20	14.9
	Over 10-15 years	22	16.4
	Over 15-20 years	30	22.4
	Over 20 years	37	27.6
	Total	134	100.0
Total Number of Years in Law Enforcement	Under 5 years	17	12.8
	6-15+ years	30	22.6
	16-25+ years	55	41.4
	26-34+ years	28	21.1
	35 years and over	3	2.3
	Total	133	100.0
Annual Base Pay	Less than \$49,999	25	18.5
	\$50,000 to \$69,999	37	27.4
	\$70,000 to \$89,999	31	23.0
	\$90,000 or more	42	31.1
	Total	135	100.0

*Chi-Square Analysis of Demographic Variables*

Chi-square testing was used to determine whether the observed relationships in the contingency tables were significant or generalizable to a wider population (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). With statistical significance set at the .01 level, the null hypothesis was rejected for eighteen combinations of the cross tabulations conducted, confirming statistically significant differences among these combinations. These results are presented in Table 6.

*Table 6: Significant Demographic Variables Cross Tabulation*

Variable Combination	$\chi^2$ Value	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	$\eta^2$
Age and Years in Law Enforcement	98.03	8	.000	.675
Age and Years in Current Agency	58.45	8	.000	.593
Age and Marital Status	26.25	4	.000	.341
Age and Pay	41.68	6	.000	.436
Education and Hourly/Exempt Status	18.19	3	.000	.367
Education and Position in Organization	36.37	9	.000	.443
Hourly/Exempt Status and Union/Non-Union Status	32.69	1	.000	.492
Pay and Marital Status	25.87	6	.000	.311
Pay and Position	58.69	9	.000	.606
Pay and Years in Law Enforcement	49.51	12	.000	.514
Pay and Years in Current Agency	78.49	12	.000	.676
Position and Hourly/Exempt Status	106.18	3	.000	.887
Position and Years in Current Agency	49.126	12	.000	.562
Position and Years in Law Enforcement	39.01	12	.000	.468
Position and Union/Non-Union Status	39.95	3	.000	.537
Years in Current Agency and Marital Status	27.30	8	.001	.381
Years in Current Agency and Years in Law Enforcement	167.45	16	.000	.761
Years in Law Enforcement and Marital Status	29.57	8	.000	.412

The variable combinations did not yield any surprising significant results; it was expected, for example, that education would correlate with position held, that older employees would hold higher paid positions, that most unionized employees would be paid hourly, that years of service would be related to age, pay, position, et cetera.

### *Descriptive Statistics*

Table 7 presents the means and standard deviations for the questionnaire items measuring the independent and dependent variables, along with the reliability of the items measuring the latent variables. A good rule of thumb is that, for research purposes, the coefficient alpha for the scales should be equal to or greater than .70 (Johnson et al., 2012). Nevertheless, scholars have recommended against arbitrarily applying a cutoff criterion, so with no empirical data to support a specific number, .70 remains a subjective recommendation (Cho & Kim, 2015; Peterson, 1994). Similarly, Goforth (2015) counsels that the term “good” alpha coefficient is arbitrary and should be tied to one’s theoretical knowledge of the scale in question, advising further that coefficients less than 0.5 typically would be undesirable.

The extra-role job performance scale measured .54, and while this score is well below the reputable .70 cut-off, as a newly developed scale in its infancy, it is in need of further testing (Nunnally, 1978). For this reason and the fact that it was slightly above the 0.5 undesirable mark, it was kept in the study. The reliability estimate for the aggregated HR attribution scale was .86. The internal retirement quality and employee enhancement scale measured .82, while the internal retirement cost and employee exploitation scale measured .084 and was consequently removed from the study. The details of the six attribution scales are explained in the “Variables” section of Chapter 3.

Table 7  
*Scale Reliability Scores and Means/Standard Deviations of Questionnaire Items*

Variables	Items	Mean (SD)
<b>HR Attribution Scales:</b>		
HR Attribution ( $\alpha = .86$ )		9.16 (3.6)
Quality/Enhancement ( $\alpha = .90$ )		17.65 (5.3)

Variables	Items	Mean (SD)
Cost/Exploitation ( $\alpha = .71$ )		18.82 (4.2)
Economic Pressure ( $\alpha = .80$ )		9.26 (2.9)
Retirement Quality/ Enhancement ( $\alpha = .86$ )		5.63 (2.0)
Retirement Cost/ Exploitation ( $\alpha = .084$ )		6.07 (1.6)
<i>Retirement Benefits Items</i>		2.97 (0.69)
My company provides the retirement plan it does:	a. In order to help employees deliver quality service to customers ( $Y_1$ )	2.77 (1.11)
	b. So that employees feel valued and respected (to promote employee well-being) ( $Y_2$ )	2.87 (1.11)
	c. In response to economic pressures external to the organization (e.g. the 2007-2009 recession) ( $Y_3$ )	3.14 (1.2)
	d. To try to keep costs down ( $Y_4$ )	3.48 (1.18)
	e. To get the most work out of employees ( $Y_5$ )	2.59 (1.08)
<i>Health Insurance Items:</i>		3.04 (0.76)
My company provides the health insurance benefits plan that it does:	a. In order to help employees deliver quality service to customers ( $Y_6$ )	2.99 (1.10)
	b. So that employees feel valued and respected (to promote employee well-being) ( $Y_7$ )	3.03 (1.08)
	c. In response to economic pressures external to the organization (e.g. the 2007-2009 recession) ( $Y_3$ )	2.97 (1.14)
	d. To try to keep costs down ( $Y_9$ )	3.41 (1.15)
	e. To get the most work out of employees ( $Y_{10}$ )	2.83 (1.08)
<i>Pay Items:</i>		3.09 (0.73)
My company pays its employees what it does:	a. In order to help employees deliver quality service to customers ( $Y_{11}$ )	3.00 (1.03)
	b. So that employees feel valued and respected (to promote employee well-being) ( $Y_{12}$ )	2.92 (1.03)
	c. In response to economic pressures external to the organization (e.g. the 2007-2009 recession) ( $Y_3$ )	3.12 (1.18)
	d. To try to keep costs down ( $Y_{14}$ )	3.45 (1.11)
	e. To get the most work out of employees ( $Y_{15}$ )	2.99 (1.08)
<b>ACS Scale (<math>\alpha = .86</math>)</b>		4.54 (1.35)
	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me. ( $Y_{16}$ )	5.27 (1.67)
	I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. ( $Y_{17}$ )	4.53 (1.93)

Variables	Items	Mean (SD)
<b>NCS Scale (<math>\alpha = .88</math>)</b>	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (Y18)	4.39 (1.91)
	I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization. (Y19)	4.71 (1.76)
	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own. (Y20)	3.43 (1.77)
	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization. (Y21)	4.96 (1.65)
		3.94 (1.43)
	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. (Y22)	3.97 (1.79)
	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now. (Y23)	3.52 (1.71)
	I would feel guilty if I left my organization now. (Y24)	3.41 (1.81)
	This organization deserves my loyalty. (Y25)	4.39 (1.78)
	I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it. (Y26)	3.89 (1.98)
<b>CCS Scale (<math>\alpha = .71</math>)</b>	I owe a great deal to my organization. (Y27)	4.45 (1.68)
		4.18 (1.16)
	Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire. (Y28)	4.96 (1.70)
	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to. (Y29)	4.5 (1.96)
	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now. (Y30)	4.69 (1.90)
	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization. (Y31)	3.48 (1.72)
	If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere. (Y32)	3.99 (1.88)
	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives. (Y33)	3.4 (1.72)
		2.07 (0.99)
	<b>Turnover Intent (<math>\alpha = .74</math>)</b>	
If I have my own way, I will be working for this organization one year from now. (Y34)	1.76 (1.10)	
I frequently think of quitting my job. (Y35)	2.50 (1.33)	

Variables	Items	Mean ( <i>SD</i> )
	I am planning to search for a new job during the next 12 months. ( <i>Y36</i> )	1.93 (1.20)
<b>Extra-Role Job Perf. (<math>\alpha = .54</math>)</b>		5.36 (0.45)
Persistent Effort	When something is not right at work, I don't complain because I am afraid that others won't agree with me. ( <i>Y37</i> )	5.41 (1.39)
	Usually, I take the initiative to give constructive feedback in order to improve the performance of other workers (subordinates, colleagues, supervisor or workgroups). ( <i>Y38</i> )	5.47 (1.15)
	In the event the organization did not provide the training that I consider necessary to perform my duties effectively, I would seek information from other sources. ( <i>Y39</i> )	5.59 (1.19)
	I'm still able to perform my duties effectively when I'm working under pressure ( <i>Y40</i> )	6.15 (0.92)
	As soon as I arrive at work, I set aside all my personal problems, so that my performance is not harmed. ( <i>Y41</i> )	5.63 (1.05)
Cooperation	Usually, I dedicate less effort to work when performing a task in conjunction with other people. ( <i>Y42</i> )	5.41 (1.40)
	I am always willing to assist other workers from the organization, even when I don't have much time available. ( <i>Y43</i> )	6.13 (0.82)
	Usually, I also perform tasks that are not related to my specific duties. ( <i>Y44</i> )	5.67 (1.29)
Organizational Conscientiousness	It's really difficult for me to miss work, even when I'm feeling sick. ( <i>Y45</i> )	4.93 (1.83)
	Frequently, I arrive late at work. ( <i>Y46</i> )	6.56 (0.84)
	I would never adopt actions that could harm the well-being of the other workers. ( <i>Y47</i> )	6.45 (1.13)
	When I think that the goals of the organization conflict with my personal goals, my dedication to work decreases. ( <i>Y48</i> )	4.55 (1.60)
	I take my job really seriously, so I always comply with the rules and procedures imposed by my supervisor or by the organization even when no one is around. ( <i>Y49</i> )	6.15 (0.83)
Interpersonal and Relational Skills	My communication skills are so good that I'm able to capture everyone's attention. ( <i>Y50</i> )	4.99 (1.20)

Variables	Items	Mean (SD)
	Communication inside organizations, even in work-groups, is fundamental so that people can perform their tasks effectively. (Y <sub>51</sub> )	6.17 (1.06)
	When I write a message to other workers I feel a certain difficulty in expressing what I'm thinking. (Y <sub>52</sub> )	2.41 (1.33)
	When someone has a different opinion from mine, I usually convince them that my opinion is the best. (Y <sub>53</sub> )	3.33 (1.14)

### *Examination of Hypotheses*

This section starts with a review of the main purposes of the analyses, followed by an examination of the statistical assumptions, after which the research hypotheses will be analyzed.

The three main purposes of the analyses were to determine a) whether police officers in Florida attributed changes to their pension plans to internal or external circumstances and how the locus of causality influenced their commitment levels, b) whether organizational HR practices significantly affected turnover intent and extra-role performance via the mediating role of organizational commitment, and c) whether newer police officers' attitudes differed from longer-tenured officers. Fundamental to the analysis of results obtained through SEM and regression analysis, the four assumptions of normality, homoscedasticity, linearity and multicollinearity were examined prior to hypotheses testing.

### *Normality*

The assumption of normality requires the frequency distribution of the variables' values to have a normal distribution or a bell-shaped curve. A graphical approach was used to determine normality using histograms and normal probability Q-Q plots, along



with IBM SPSS statistical Shapiro-Wilk's test results. Using the general rule of thumb that skewness between -0.5 and 0.5 is approximately symmetric, and skewness between -1 and -0.5 or 0.5 and 1 moderately skewed (GoodData, (n.d.), the datasets were considered normal with the exception of turnover intent which was slightly over 0.5, with a test result of 0.647. The assumption of normality was therefore met (See Appendix C).

#### *Homoscedasticity*

Related to normality, the assumption of homoscedasticity requires quantitative dependent variables to have equal levels of variability across a range of independent variables. Using the predictor variables identified, Levene's test of homogeneity of variance was applied to test the five dependent variables pinpointed in the various models under scrutiny (ACS, NCS, CCS, Turnover Intent and Extra-Role Job Performance). As shown in Table 8, the statistic was not significant, confirming homogeneity of variance (or equal variances).

Table 8

<i>Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances: DVs with IVs</i>				
<u>Dependent Variable</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>df1</u>	<u>df2</u>	<u>Sig.</u>
Turnover Intent	1.208	120	9	.408
Extra-Role Job Performance	1.084	119	9	.492
ACS	1.083	111	21	.437
NCS	.859	111	21	.703
CCS	.955	111	21	.585

#### *Linearity*

The assumption of linearity accepts that the variables are related to each other in a linear manner (Meyers et al., 2013). Bivariate scatterplots were used to assess linearity

and all variables produced scatterplots that were elliptical in shape, thus meeting the assumption of linearity.

### *Multicollinearity*

Multicollinearity occurs when more than two of the predictor variables are highly correlated, which can generate misleading results. Meyers et al. (2013) recommend reviewing Pearson correlations between predictor variables; where correlations are in the mid .7s or higher, they advise against proceeding with regression or multivariate analyses. Normative commitment was therefore removed from any model where it was used as a predictor due to high correlation with affective commitment when tested with dependent variables turnover intent and extra-role job performance ( $r = .801$ ). All other correlations were well below the “red flag” level, for example, when normative commitment was used as a predictor with affective commitment to test the same two dependent variables ( $r = -.130$ ). Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) statistics were also reviewed for predictor variables HR attribution and organizational commitment, and their various subscales. All VIF statistics were below 1.5 (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1995), with tolerance statistics ranging from .724 to .983, indicating that multicollinearity was not a concern (Neter, Wasserman & Kutner, 1989).

### *Testing the Research Hypotheses*

SPSS Version 25 (IBM, 2017) was used to conduct multiple linear regressions in respect to  $H_1$ , while a MANOVA multivariate analysis was conducted on  $H_4$ . Structural equation modeling was used to explore  $H_2$  and  $H_3$  via Mplus Version 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2015), with its added ability to estimate missing data. In accounting for missing values, Mplus uses all available data to estimate the model using the advanced

missing data method of full information maximum likelihood. Instead of adding missing data values for each respondent (Muthén, 1999), the population parameters most likely to produce the required estimates from the sample data are estimated.

### Hypothesis One

The first hypothesis stated that police officers' attribution of the locus of causality for the personal financial impact arising from pension reforms will relate significantly to their commitment to the organization. Simple linear regression analysis was conducted to determine how the officers' attitudes towards their pension plans influenced their commitment levels. Next, their HR attribution to internal versus external circumstances was examined using the variables created from the three typologies of HR attributions outlined in Table 3, namely the two internal factors of "quality and employee enhancement" versus "cost and employee exploitation," and the external factor of "economic pressure."

The officers' feelings about their pension plan were captured from question nine, which was open-ended, giving all respondents the opportunity to express their attitude toward their pension plan in one word. Responses were arranged on a five-point scale titled "Pension Feelings," with one representing high levels of dissatisfaction, and five representing high levels of satisfaction. Answers such as "betrayed" and "criminal" were coded as ones, "declining" and "deficient" as twos, "adequate" and "average" as threes, "blessed" and "content" as fours, and finally, responses such as "excellent" and "great" were coded as fives. The results of the three linear regression tests are shown in Table 9a.

Table 9a

<i>Pension Feelings and Organizational Commitment - Coefficient Table (N = 134 )</i>						
DV: Affective Commitment	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	Sig.	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>
Constant	3.448	.283		12.193	.000	
Pension Feelings	.418	.099	.346	4.232	.000	.117
<hr/>						
DV: Normative Commitment	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	Sig.	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>
Constant	2.580	.290		8.903	.000	
Pension Feelings	.504	.100	.401	5.023	.000	.155
<hr/>						
DV: Continuance Commitment	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	Sig.	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>
Constant	4.800	.250		19.224	.000	
Pension Feelings	-.231	.087	-.225	-2.657	.009	.050

In addition to significance level (*p*-value), the coefficient of determination (*R*<sup>2</sup>) was examined for meaningfulness based on effect size standards where .01-.07 represent a small effect, .08-.14 represent a medium effect size, and .15 and greater, a large effect size (Cohen, 1988). Pension feelings had a significant effect on the three types of commitment, with effect sizes chiefly ranging from medium to large (Cohen, 1988). As positive feelings toward pension benefits increased, so did ACS and NCS commitment levels. On the other hand, increased goodwill toward participants' pension plan saw a decline in CCS or a reduction in feelings of being trapped in the organization. While not a part of the hypothesis, comparative analysis was conducted with only those officers (*N* = 80) who confirmed having knowledge of post-recession changes to the pension plan, whether or not they were employed with their agency at the time. ACS and NCS levels were lower for this group, but still maintained a significant relationship and medium effect sizes. When compared to the sample in Table 9a, the magnitude of this group of officers' pension feelings increased inversely with continuance commitment to a medium effect size.

Table 9b

<i>Pension Feelings and Organizational Commitment - Coefficient Table (N=80)</i>						
DV: Affective Commitment	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	Sig.	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>
Constant	4.091	1.170		3.497	.001	
Pension Feelings	.333	.135	.272	2.466	.016	.078
DV: Normative Commitment						
Constant	3.333	1.257		2.651	.010	
Pension Feelings	.409	.146	.307	2.797	.007	.099
DV: Continuance Commitment						
Constant	5.320	1.001		5.317	.000	
Pension Feelings	-.311	.117	-.295	-2.659	.010	.084

Next, multiple regression analysis was used to determine the officers' HR attribution to internal versus external circumstances and their corresponding attitudes. Reliability testing for the internal retirement cost and employee exploitation scale was too low (.084) and therefore not used in the analysis. The internal scale, quality and employee enhancement, and the external variable of economic pressure were used to ascertain the officers' levels of commitment. These results are presented in Table 10.

Table 10

<i>Officers' Internal/External Attribution: Retirement Attribution by Commitment</i>						
DV: <i>Affective Commitment</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	Sig.	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>
Constant	3.401	.469		7.255	.000	
Quality & Employee Enhancement	.560	.129	.361	4.345	.000	.112
External Economic Pressure	-.156	.115	-.113	-1.354	.178	.001
DV: <i>Normative Commitment</i>						
Constant	2.516	.486		5.172	.000	
Quality & Employee Enhancement	.618	.133	.383	4.628	.000	.131
External Economic Pressure	-.130	.119	-.090	-1.087	.279	.000
DV: <i>Continuance Commitment</i>						
Constant	3.675	.428		8.592	.000	
Quality & Employee Enhancement	-.025	.119	-.018	-.209	.835	.000
External Economic Pressure	.188	.105	.158	1.792	.075	.024

Attributions were found to be internally driven by employee perceptions of the organization's management philosophy and HR business strategies. With a medium effect size, employee discernment of quality and employee enhancement was positively and significantly related to ACS ( $R^2 = .112, p < .001$ ) and NCS commitment ( $R^2 = .131, p < .001$ ), and served to increase both ACS and NCS commitment levels. The external variable of economic pressure only had a weak, positive relationship with CCS ( $R^2 = .024; p = .075$ ). The overall findings, however, support  $H_1$  as both ACS and NCS commitment levels were significantly related to the officers' determination of internal causality for changes to their pension plan.

Additional analysis was conducted to determine the overall impact of the "Big 3" of retirement benefits, health insurance and pay on the officers' commitment levels. The results in Table 11 are very similar to those in Table 10 where quality and employee enhancement was positively and significantly related to both ACS and NCS, with normative commitment maintaining a larger effect size of .162, or 16.2% of the variance, versus affective commitment with .135, or 13.5% of the variance. Economic pressure once again had a weak, positive relationship with CCS ( $R^2 = .031; p = .068$ ). With a reliability of .80, the internal cost and employee exploitation attribution scale aggregated from the retirement, health insurance and pay scale items, returned a significant, negative relationship with ACS ( $R^2 = .004; p < .05$ ) and NCS commitment ( $R^2 = .001; p < .05$ ).

Table 11

<i>Officers' Internal/External Attribution: Retirement, Health Insurance and Pay by Commitment Levels</i>						
<i>DV: Affective Commitment</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>
Constant	3.900	.507		7.698	.000	
Quality & Employee Enhancement	.118	.022	.464	5.472	.000	.135
Cost & Employee Exploitation	-.086	.031	-.272	-2.761	.007	.004
External Economic Pressure	.019	.043	.042	.444	.658	.000
<i>DV: Normative Commitment</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>
Constant	2.984	.522		5.721	.000	
Quality & Employee Enhancement	.130	.022	.494	5.868	.000	.162
Cost & Employee Exploitation	-.085	.032	-.258	-2.646	.009	.001
External Economic Pressure	.025	.044	.052	.568	.571	.002
<i>DV: Continuance Commitment</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>
Constant	3.605	.472		7.645	.000	
Quality & Employee Enhancement	.001	.020	.004	.042	.967	.002
Cost & Employee Exploitation	-.007	.029	-.024	-.226	.821	.007
External Economic Pressure	.074	.040	.188	1.842	.068	.031

## Hypotheses Two and Three

Hypothesis two ( $H_2$ ) predicted that organizational commitment would mediate the relationship between HR practices and turnover intent, while hypothesis three ( $H_3$ ) predicted that organizational commitment would mediate the relationship between HR practices and extra-role job performance. In preparation for applying confirmatory factor analysis to the proposed three-component commitment variable within the structural equation model of employee attribution, regression analysis was initially used to

determine the relationship between ACS, NCS, CCS and the dependent variables. As seen in Table 12, only ACS had a significant relationship with the dependent variables turnover intent ( $p < .001$ ) and extra-role job performance ( $p < .05$ ). The variables CCS and NCS were therefore removed from the final SEM model presented in Figure 4.

Table 12

<i>Hypotheses 2 and 3: Results of Intermediate and Dependent Variable Coefficients</i>					
DV: Turnover Intent	<i>B</i>	SE	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	Sig.
Constant	.751	.069		10.878	.000
ACS	-.089	.016	-.579	-5.528	.000
NCS	-.023	.015	-.160	-1.539	.126
CCS	.004	.011	.021	.339	.735
DV: Extra-Role Performance	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	Sig.
Constant	4.869	.184		26.492	.000
ACS	.096	.043	.291	2.230	.028
NCS	.065	.041	.207	1.594	.113
CCS	-.049	.030	-.128	-1.632	.105

Next, confirmatory factor analysis was performed to test the measurement model. Using the aggregated scores, the latent construct HR attribution was measured via the three observed variables retirement, insurance and pay, which loaded strongly on the construct, with factor loadings of .850, .829 and .805, respectively (Table 13).

Table 13

<i>CFA - Standardized and Unstandardized Coefficients for HR Attribution</i>				
<u>Observed Variable</u>	<u>Latent Construct</u>	$\beta$	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>
Retirement	HR Attribution	0.850	1.00	.037
Health Insurance	HR Attribution	0.829	1.09	.038
Pay	HR Attribution	0.805	1.00	.041

The goodness-of-fit indices used to assess the model were the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), the Non-Normed Fit Index (also known as the TLI), the Root Mean Square



Error of Approximation (RMSEA), the Standard Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) and the Chi-Square Test of Model Fit. Using Schreiber et al.'s (2006) recommendations, all indices indicated a good fit between the model and the data, with residuals that gave no indication of problems. The Chi-Square Goodness of Fit ratio for the hypothesized model ( $\chi^2:df$ ) = 1.97, below the maximum recommended criterion of two. The CFI for the hypothesized model was 0.982 while the TLI was 0.956, both above their recommended criterion of  $\geq 0.95$ . The SRMR = 0.033 ( $\leq 0.08$ ), and RMSEA = 0.081 ( $\leq 0.08$ ), both within acceptable ranges. Consequently, no post-hoc modifications were made to the model (Schreiber et al., 2006).

The SEM model results confirmed a significant relationship between HR attribution and ACS  $\beta = .196$ ,  $SE = .089$ ,  $B = .452$ ,  $p < .05$  (Figure 4). The results further showed the mediating variable, affective commitment, to be predictive of both dependent variables, turnover intent,  $\beta = -.686$ ,  $SE = .046$ ,  $B = -.496$ ,  $p < .001$  and extra-role performance  $\beta = .472$ ,  $SE = .068$ ,  $B = .157$ ,  $p < .001$ . Affective commitment, however, had a greater effect on turnover intent than it did on extra-role performance, explaining 69% of the variance in the case of the former and 47% of the variance for the latter.

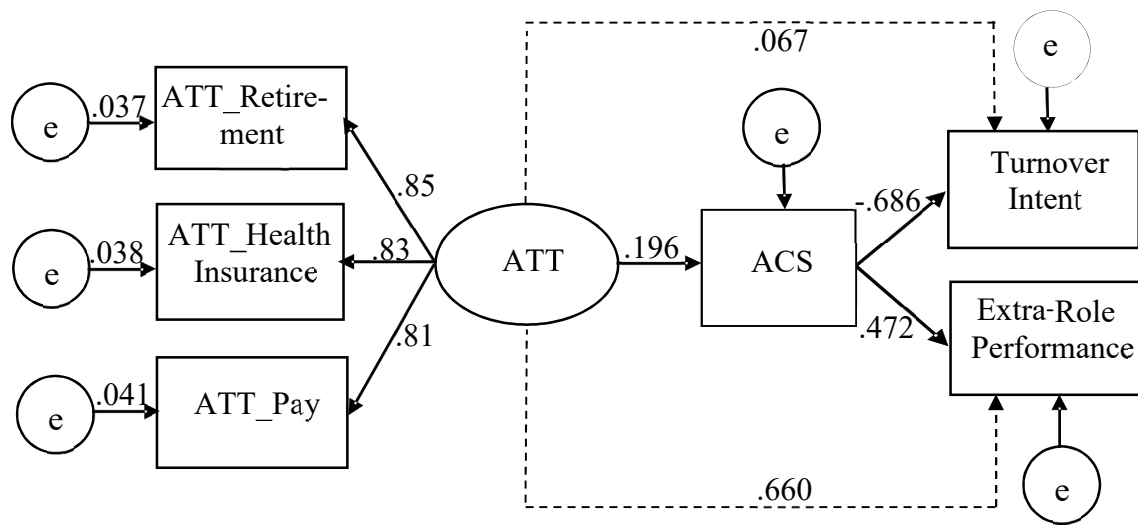


Figure 4. Observed Results: Structural Equation Model of Employee Attribution. ATT is Employee Attribution Scale. ACS is Affective Commitment Scale.

By itself, as hypothesized, HR attribution was not a significant direct predictor of the dependent variables turnover intent and extra-role performance. Specifically, the direct effects show HR attribution marginally affecting turnover intent ( $p = .067$ ), with no significant effect on extra-role job performance ( $p = .660$ ). HR attribution, however, had a significant negative indirect path to turnover intent via affective commitment ( $p < .05$ ), and a significant positive indirect path to extra-role performance via affective commitment ( $p < .05$ ). However, while the total effect for turnover intent is significant ( $p < .05$ ), it was not significant for extra-role job performance ( $p > .05$ ). The complete direct, indirect and total effects are captured in Table 14.  $H_2$  is supported, with ACS mediating the relationship between HR practices and turnover intent, with significant total and indirect paths.  $H_3$  is only partially supported, because while ACS mediates the relationship between HR practices and extra-role performance with an indirect path that is significant, the total effect is insignificant. These findings also support  $H_1$ , confirming

once again that police officers' HR attribution is significantly related to their organizational commitment.

Table 14

Parameter Estimates, Standard Error, and P-Values							
Hypothesized Path		Direct Effect	SE	Indirect Effect	SE	Total Effect	SE
ATT	Turnover Intent	-0.122	0.067	-0.134*	0.061	-0.257*	0.087
ATT	Extra-Role Job Performance	0.037	0.085	0.093*	0.045	0.130	0.093

ATT = HR Attribution, \* ( $p < .05$ )

#### Hypothesis Four

Hypothesis four ( $H_4$ ) theorized that post-recession police hires would experience higher continuance commitment and higher turnover intent than their longer-tenured colleagues. To ensure the robustness of the MANOVA, and to avoid committing a type-one error, Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices was used to test the null hypothesis that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across groups (Salkind & Green, 2011). The results show that the null hypothesis was accepted ( $p = .287$ ), indicating no significant difference between the variance and covariance matrices for the two groups. Applying Wilks' Lambda test at the multivariate level, no significant difference was found between newer and longer-tenured police officers within their agency, as years of service only marginally affected turnover intent and continuance commitment (Wilk's  $\Lambda = .957$ ,  $F(2, 128) = 2.91$ ,  $p = .058$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .043$ ).

Using Levene's test, the null hypothesis was also accepted at the univariate level (CCS:  $p = .537$  and turnover intent:  $p = .363$ ), confirming that the error variance of the

dependent variables were equal across groups. A separate ANOVA was conducted for both dependent variables and again there was no significant difference between newer and longer-tenured police officers. With respect to turnover intent, the results were  $F(1, 129) = 3.319, p = .071, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .025$ ; with respect to continuance commitment,  $F(1, 129) = 2.830, p = .095, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .021$ . Interestingly, when the means were examined in Table 15, the trend suggested that the longer-tenured officers were more likely to exhibit higher levels of turnover intent and continuous commitment, contrary to the theorized hypothesis.  $H_4$  was therefore rejected.

	Years of Service	Mean	SD	N
Turnover Intent	1-5 Years	1.7500	.84699	24
	5 Years & Over	2.1558	1.01386	107
	Total	2.0814	.99494	131
Continuance Commitment	1-5 Years	3.8125	1.09049	24
	5 Years & Over	4.2445	1.14703	107
	Total	4.1654	1.14513	131

Additional analysis of the overall data for items of interest revealed a significant effect at the level of unionization and organizational commitment. Applying Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices, the null hypothesis was accepted ( $p = .254$ ), indicating no significant difference between the variance and covariance matrices for the three groups. Results for continuance commitment at the multivariate level for unionized versus non-unionized officers showed Wilk's  $\Lambda = .833, F(3, 129) = 8.63, p = .0000, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .167$ . Unionized employees were more likely to exhibit higher levels of continuance commitment, in contrast to affective and normative commitment levels, which were both found to be nonsignificant.

Using Levene's test, the null hypothesis was also accepted at the univariate level, confirming equal dependent variables error variance across groups (CCS:  $p = .873$ , ACS:  $p = .227$  and ACS:  $p = .226$ ). The results of the between-subjects effects were CCS,  $F(1, 131) = 20.996, p = .000$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .138$ ; ACS,  $F(1, 131) = 1.346, p = .248$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .010$ ; and NCS,  $F(1, 131) = 2.933, p = .089$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .022$ . Unionized workers were therefore more likely to display higher continuance commitment over normative and affective commitment, which were non-significant. These findings suggest that subjects see limited external alternatives, with no choice but to remain with their organizations.

### Summary

The results of this study mostly support the proposed hypotheses. The mediating role of employee commitment was confirmed as operating between HR attribution and the dependent variables of turnover intent and extra-role job performance. Also confirmed was the significant link between the officers' internal/external attitude toward their pension plan changes and, ultimately, their commitment levels. No significant difference was found, however, between newer and longer-tenured officers with respect to their continuance commitment and turnover intent. Chapter 5 discusses the results of these findings and implications for research, theory, and practical application.

## CHAPTER V

### DISCUSSION

Attribution theory proposes that individuals typically arrive at causal explanations by assigning motives, dispositions and philosophies to a player's actions (McLeod, 2012). HR attribution theory proposes that employee beliefs about the management philosophies that drive HR practices represent the organization's assessment of employees' contributions and worth (Allen et al., 2003; Tremblay et al., 2010). These beliefs affect employee emotions (Weiner, 1985), which in turn influence attitudes, behaviors and organizational outcomes (Guest, 1997; Nishii et al., 2008). To manage attributional influences—and ultimately, desired attitudes, behaviors and outcomes—an appreciation for employees' attributional processes becomes important at the organizational decision-making level.

Groups of employees who perceive their organizational HR practices to be fair, tend to exhibit higher commitment and job performance levels, with fewer reports of turnover intentions (Bartle et al., 1999; Cohen-Charash et al., 2001), and increased extra-role job performance (Meyer et al., 2004; 2002; Riketta, 2002). To achieve these outcomes, the most desired form of employee commitment is psychological attachment or emotional investment in the organization because this helps with stability and inspires employees to go the extra mile, qualities that are very important for law enforcement personnel. Related to affective commitment, high levels of normative commitment signal loyalty and allegiance to the organization. Both affective and normative commitment are negatively related to turnover (Meyer et al., 2002, 2004), and positively related to job and extra-role job performance (Morrison 1994; Riketta, 2002). High levels of continuance

commitment, on the other hand, is a sign that the employees are simply hanging on to their jobs while seeking to improve their lot elsewhere. The downside of continuance commitment is that it reduces effort and encourages turnover and absenteeism.

While past research on organizational commitment and the fledgling concept of HR attribution have contributed to a broader understanding of these constructs and their relationship with employee outcomes, there are no empirical studies on law enforcement attribution of HR practices and the mediating role of organizational commitment on their turnover intent and extra-role job performance. In 2008, Nishii et al. were the first researchers to conduct a workplace study providing evidence that employee attribution of HR practices is antecedent to employee attitudes and behavior, with consequences for individual and group results. The current paper was built on the proposed attribution model, theorizing that employees attributed HR practices to internal or external causes, which in turn connect to their behaviors via their commitment levels. High levels of the various commitment types found to be linked to employee HR attribution of HR practices were therefore expected to predict distinct variance in the dependent variables.

The basis for my study is rooted in the existing literature, which directed the research. Consequently, the hypotheses and survey instrument were developed to investigate the association among the four identified variables of HR attribution, organizational commitment, turnover intent and extra-role job performance. To this effect, the following four research hypotheses were tested:

*H<sub>1</sub>*: Police officers' attribution of the locus of causality for the personal, financial impact arising from pension reforms will be significantly related to their commitment to the organization.

*H<sub>2</sub>*: Organizational commitment will mediate the relationship between HR practices and turnover intent.

*H<sub>3</sub>*: Organizational commitment will mediate the relationship between HR practices and extra-role job performance.

*H<sub>4</sub>*: Post-recession police hires with reduced pension benefits will experience higher continuance commitment, and higher turnover intent than their longer-tenured colleagues.

The findings revealed that the officers' feelings about their pension plans had a significant effect on all three commitment types. Affective and normative commitment levels increased when positive feelings toward pension benefits increased. Feelings about their pension plans had an inverse relationship with continuance commitment, where positive attitudes toward pension benefits served to lower the officers' inclinations toward quitting. Employee attributional process for pension benefits offerings was found to be internally driven, linked to management's philosophy and HR business strategies. By itself, HR attribution was not a significant predictor of turnover intent and extra-role job performance. Instead, affective commitment was identified as a significant mediating variable between HR attribution of HR practices and the dependent variables. Finally, no significant differences were found between newer and longer-tenured police officers with respect to their continuance commitment levels and their intentions to quit the organization, however the results suggest that further research may be required.

#### *Discussion of the Results*

The following section discusses the results of the hypotheses as well as other significant findings.



### *Hypothesis One*

The first hypothesis stated that the officers' locus of causality for the personal financial impact arising from pension reform would significantly impact their organizational commitment. Multiple regression analysis results supported  $H_1$ , and therefore the null hypothesis theorizing no significant impact between HR attribution of pension reform and commitment levels, was rejected. The officers' attributed internal causes for their personal, financial impact from pension reforms and overall compensation changes, with locus of causality significantly related to commitment levels.

When it was perceived that the organization was internally committed to quality service and employee enhancement, positive feelings toward retirement benefits significantly increased both the officers' affective commitment ( $R^2 = .112$ ;  $p = .000$ ), and normative or strong feelings of obligations to remain with the organization ( $R^2 = .131$ ;  $p = .000$ ). In addition to the significantly positive relationship between the variables, the results indicate a medium effect size (Cohen, 1988), providing further support for  $H_1$ . The external variable of economic pressure returned a non-significant relationship with continuance commitment ( $R^2 = .024$ ;  $p = .075$ ).

When the officers' overall compensation package of retirement, pay and health insurance was analyzed with commitment levels, perceptions of the organization's commitment to quality and employee enhancement once again significantly increased ACS or emotional investment in the organization ( $R^2 = .135$ ;  $p = .000$ ), along with NCS or organization loyalty ( $R^2 = .162$ ;  $p = .000$ ). Here, the significantly positive relationship between the variables, also experienced medium to high effect size (Cohen, 1988), providing further support for  $H_1$ . However, attribution to HR practices from a cost and

exploitation angle significantly reduced both ACS or emotional investment ( $R^2 = .004$ ;  $p = .007$ ), and NCS or organization loyalty ( $R^2 = .001$ ;  $p = .009$ ). These findings also suggest that the officers view alterations to the compensation package within a holistic context, with changes to income and benefits assessed both individually and as a whole, the “big three” for law enforcement officers being pay, pension and health insurance. The external variable economic pressure returned a weak, positive relationship with continuance commitment ( $R^2 = .031$ ;  $p = .068$ ). Here, compensation changes attributable to external circumstances sparked an increase in continuance commitment, a noteworthy factor, as high levels of CCS are negatively associated with performance, attendance and extra-role activities.

These results for affective and normative commitment are consistent with Nishii et al.’s (2008) introductory model of HR attributions, which revealed significant relationships between an organization’s HR practices and the employees’ attitudes and behaviors. Specifically, they found attributions to internal HR practices that held positive results for employees to be associated with feelings of reciprocity and duty among employees, while internal practices that signified negative consequences for employees were associated with lower levels of commitment and satisfaction. External HR attribution was, however, unrelated to the employees’ attitudes in their study, which was not entirely the case in this study.

An interesting finding in this study was that normative commitment levels were slightly higher than affective commitment levels for those agencies that focused on quality and employee enhancement. This is noteworthy because previous studies have found a stronger link between compensation practices and affective commitment. For

example, Nawab et al. (2011), in a study of compensation practices and the various commitment dimensions, found benefits to be a strong influencer of employees' affective commitment. Similarly, affective commitment was found to have a greater correlation with fringe benefits (Ahmad & Scott, 2015; Nawab et al., 2011), while wages exhibited strong correlations with normative and continuance commitment. These prior studies did not, however, examine internal versus external employee attributions to the employer's HR compensation practices as an antecedent to organization commitment.

Although the concept of an HR attribution model is only a few years old, its foundation is rooted in literature on exchange and early attribution theories. Social exchange theorists describe the employment relationship as transactional with the compensation package as an integral part of the arrangement (Aggarwal & Bhargava, 2009; Morrison, 1994; Parzefall et al., 2011; Rousseau, 1989). Early attribution theory proposes that individuals tend to associate uncontrollable happenings to external circumstances, while attributing manageable events to internal conditions (Heider, 1958). Employee determination of locus of causality is important to organizations because actions attributed to internal factors are linked to character, and as such, are useful in predicting behaviors (Jones et al., 1965). Attributions to external circumstances, on the other hand, reflect less about an actor's character and behavior (Kelley et al., 1980). After a crisis such as a recession, external attributions would be more favorable to the employer as individuals tend to be more neutral to outside influences and consequently, commitment levels are less likely to be affected. On the other hand, positive or negative attribution to internal causes would be favorable or unfavorable to the actor, in this case, the organization (Heider, 1958; Kelley et al., 1980; Nishii et al., 2008).

Internal/external causality has also been found to be related to emotional assessments of temperament or disposition (Weiner, 1985; Weiner et al., 1979) with strong emotions normally associated with internal attributions over external (Harvey et al., 2014). Feelings of anger and resentment also increase when employees blame the employer for failing to explore other employee-centered avenues during a crisis (Cropanzano & Folger, 1989). This emotional aspect is demonstrated in the use of adjectives by some officers such as “excellent” or “great” and “betrayal” or “criminal” when asked to share their feelings about changes to their pension plan.

#### *Hypotheses Two and Three*

Hypothesis two stated that organizational commitment would mediate the relationship between HR practices and turnover intent, while hypothesis three stated that organizational commitment would also mediate the relationship between HR practices and extra-role job performance. Structural equation modeling analysis substantiated the mediating role of affective commitment with the dependent variables under study, in support of  $H_2$ , and partially supported  $H_3$ . HR attribution established a significant negative indirect path to turnover intent via affective commitment and a significant positive indirect path to extra-role job performance, also via affective commitment. These findings also sustain  $H_1$ , reconfirming that law enforcement HR attribution is significantly related to their organizational commitment.

These results are once again consistent with Nishii et al.’s 2008 HR attribution model, which demonstrated that varying levels of affective commitment mediate the relationship between employees’ attributions and their behaviors. A number of previous studies have also supported the intermediary role of organizational commitment between

HR practices and behavioral outcomes such as turnover intent (Guzzo et al., 1994), increased levels of performance (Gould-Williams, 2003) and organizational effectiveness (Meyer et al., 2000; Whitener, 2001). Similarly, Paré et al. (2007) reported affective and continuance commitment as partially mediating the effects of certain HR practices on turnover intentions.

Employee commitment was earlier identified in the literature review as the attitudinal outcome variable most affected by HR practices (Guest, 1997; Wright et al., 2004), with affective commitment being the most stable predictor of attitudes and behaviors (Meyer et al., 1993; Porter et al., 1974). Normative and continuance commitments were removed from the model because, similar to these previous findings, regression analysis revealed that of the three dimensions, only affective commitment was a significant predictor of turnover intent and extra-role job performance.

The precise HR practices that form commitment-based environments have tended to vary across research studies and types of organizations; however, compensation practices have been identified as a major influential factor on group and organizational outcomes (Collins et al., 2006). This study confirms the influence of HR compensation practices on law enforcement officers' attitudes and ultimately on group behavior. Experiences in the workplace that are consistent with positive employee expectations have also revealed stronger affective attachment compared to those employees with less satisfying experiences (Meyer et al., 1991, 1993, 2004). This study similarly confirms these prior findings as law enforcement HR attribution demonstrated a strong negative association with turnover intent and a significant positive association with extra-role job performance, directly linked to the officers' affective attachment levels.

Organizational commitment has regularly exhibited a weak-to-moderate positive relationship with job performance (Cohen, 1991; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 1997), in contrast to a strong negative relationship with turnover intent (Conway et al., 2005; Guzzo et al., 1994; Kickul et al., 2001; Maertz et al., 2004; Youndt, 2000). Consequently, this study chose to focus on extra-role or contextual job performance, as more moderate levels of significance are being discovered between organizational commitment and performance when a distinction is made between company-assigned tasks versus the employee's voluntary extra-role duties (Carlos et al., 2016; Riketta, 2002). The findings supported a moderate connection between organizational commitment and extra-role job performance, and as expected, demonstrated a strong relationship with turnover intent.

#### *Hypothesis Four*

The fourth hypothesis theorized that post-recession police hires with reduced pension benefits would experience higher continuance commitment, and higher turnover intent than their longer-tenured colleagues. Multiple regression analysis results rejected  $H_4$  with the null hypothesis accepted, indicating no significant difference between the variance and covariance matrices for the two groups. Years of service only marginally affected turnover intent and continuance commitment at the multivariate level ( $p = .058$ ) and at the univariate level ( $p = .095$ ). However, contrary to the theorized hypothesis, an examination of the means suggested that the longer-tenured officers were more likely to exhibit higher levels of turnover intent and continuous commitment.

The hypothesis was developed from the findings of a 2015 survey of public sector finance and HR directors in Florida where approximately two-thirds of these “boots-on-

the-ground” senior managers projected that compensation and pension benefit changes by cohort would create a two-tier workforce and negatively affect employee commitment and morale. They further theorized that this new two-tier benefit structure could also cause antagonism between newer and longer-tenured employees, and possibly pose problems with attracting and hiring younger employees. Johnson (2015) also argued that organizational practices that create inequalities among employees performing the same duties would be seen as violating standards of basic fairness.

The finding that longer-tenured officers are more likely to have higher levels of continuance commitment and are more likely to want to exit the organization can be explained by previous research on police burnout. Tenure in high-stress jobs such as police work have long been identified as having an inverted U shape, where newer officers start out eager, then burnout after a number of years, and eventually regain some of their original spirit as they approach retirement (Dantzer, 1987; Oligny, 1994; Staw, 1980). Police burnout related to emotional exhaustion, however, typically sets in after seven to 12 years on the job (Oligny, 1994). While the newer officers have not actually shown higher levels of continuance commitment or intent to quit, it is of some interest that officers with less than five years’ tenure are registering attitudes similar to longer-tenured officers when research suggests that they should still be enthusiastic and motivated to serve. A more appropriate hypothesis to test for the attitudinal effect of the disparity in pay and benefits would have been, “Newer, post-recession police hires with reduced pension benefits will experience continuance commitment and turnover intent levels on par with longer-tenured officers.”

### *Unionization and Organizational Commitment*

Additional analysis of the data revealed that continuance commitment is significantly high among unionized officers, while affective and normative commitment levels were both non-significant. This is noteworthy because continuance commitment is negatively associated with performance, attendance and extra-role activities (Meyer et al., 2002). With 65% of the respondents indicating that they were unionized, this represents a sizeable number of workers who are unhappy with their current work situation, which could be hurting the agencies. Negative continuance behaviors include calling in sick frequently, arriving late to work on a regular basis, doing the bare minimum of job duties and an unwillingness to go the extra mile, factors that can prove costly and threaten service quality over time.

### *Implications for Theory, Research and Practice*

HR Attribution theory has gained traction over the past ten years as HR professionals, researchers and organization executives continue their journey for insight into the extent to which HR practices explain employee attitudes and behaviors. This study contributes to the body of increasing evidence that HR attribution is an antecedent to HR practices and a significant organizational variable with connections to commitment, turnover intent and extra-role job performance. The following section examines implications for theory building, research and practice.

### *Implications for Theory*

Attribution theories have been around since the mid-twentieth century when Heider (1958) first advanced the idea that individuals determine behavior as internally or externally driven when seeking to understand or explain events. This concept influenced



successive attribution theories in the field of social psychology, to include Kelley's Co-Variational Model (1973), and Weiner's Attributional Theory of Motivation and Emotion (1985) before reaching its saturation point in the 1980s. In recent times, Nishii et al. (2008) reignited the attributional concept in the HR field, with the introduction of an HR attribution model that seeks to explain employee inferences about their company's HR practices, how they arrive at these inferences, and how these inferences affect their attitudes and behaviors. Since Nishii et al.'s seminal work in 2008, more than thirty papers have been published in the field of HR attribution, and the field is expected to grow rapidly with recent calls for papers from major publishers (Hewett et al., 2018). Only four of these publications, however, addressed HR attribution's link to employee commitment attitudes (Hewett, et al., 2018) and none of the four explored the connection between attitudes and behaviors, or whether employee attribution of HR practices has a direct connection to employee behaviors or influences behaviors via an intermediary attitudinal variable.

With the exception of Nishii et al., (2008)—who examined HR attribution's influence on attitudes (affective commitment and job satisfaction), behaviors (organizational citizenship behaviors) and unit outcomes (customer satisfaction)—no identified research has examined this model's connection to employee turnover intent and extra-role performance via the mediating attitudinal variable of affective commitment, neither in a law enforcement environment nor otherwise. The empirical data in this study provides support for HR attribution's predictive ability, confirming Harvey et al.'s (2014) findings that attribution theory is on par with other concepts that seek to explain

workplace issues. Research data from this study also established a significant relationship between locus of causality for pension reform and organizational commitment.

Arising from the first hypothesis, the linear regression model demonstrated that law enforcement officers' feelings regarding post-recession pension reforms significantly influenced all three dimensions of Meyer et al.'s (1991) organizational commitment concept. Additionally, for the first time in identified research, empirical data confirms that the officers' HR attribution for the HR practices that drove these reforms credit the locus of causality to internal conditions. These findings continue the work of building the HR attribution model where quality and employee enhancement attribution was found to be positively related to affective and normative commitment, with cost and employee exploitation attribution negatively related to both. This finding is very important from a Human Resource Development perspective, because attributions help individuals rationalize the underlying causes for events and experience positive and negative reinforcement depending on whether the outcome was desirable or disagreeable.

Nishii et al.'s (2008) study hypothesized and later confirmed that external explanations are less helpful than internal rationalizations in predicting future behaviors, and are therefore nonsignificant. It is noteworthy, however, that while their findings found external union compliance HR attribution to be unrelated to employee attitudes, this study returned a relationship between external economic pressure HR attribution and continuance commitment attitude that suggest a need for further research and analysis ( $R^2 = .031$ ;  $\beta = .188$ ;  $p = .068$ ). While non-significant, external economic pressure demonstrated a positive relationship with continuance commitment, suggesting that as

HR attribution to external economic pressure increased, so did continuance commitment, which may not bode well for organizations. It is possible that the limiting opportunities created by a recession could strain the officers' relationship with their agency even when attribution is credited to circumstances outside the employer's control.

Arising from the second and third hypotheses, empirical evidence supports the HR attributional model of HR practices. One of the major goals of this research was to understand the extent to which police officers' commitment levels, intent to quit and extra-role job performance were affected by changes to their post-recession compensation structure via the lens of the employees' attributional processes. Theoretically rooted in attribution theory, this study applied the attributional model of HR practices to provide evidence that internal attribution is linked to turnover intent and extra-role job performance through the mediating influence of organizational commitment, with implications for vital public sector services such as law enforcement. Using structural equation modeling analysis, the results revealed that the mediating variable, affective commitment, predicted both turnover intent and extra-role performance, explaining as much as 69% of the variance for the former and 47% of the variance for the latter, adding validity to the theoretical model.

#### *Implications for Research*

There are a number of opportunities for future research resulting from this study. Firstly, this study was limited to Florida and replication in other states and countries would be useful in further understanding if these findings can be generalized nationally and internationally, considering that the recession simultaneously affected the United States and numerous countries around the world. Secondly, it is established that a two-

tiered system of benefits exists for law enforcement officers with newer officers receiving reduced benefits while performing the same duties and responsibilities. While hypothesis four was rejected as written, more research is needed to understand precisely how reduced compensation packages are affecting the newer officers. The current findings suggest that officers with five years or less on the job are demonstrating turnover intent and continuance commitment levels on par with longer-tenured officers, a few years before this phenomenon should be manifesting itself. A larger qualitative study with longitudinal design is recommended to grasp the complexities of these issues in agencies of varying sizes. Within this recommended study, the opportunity also exists to explore how organizational HRD efforts can be more effectively applied to formally increase affective commitment, especially during those early years.

Thirdly, there was a stronger link in this study with pension plan and normative commitment, over affective commitment (refer to Tables 9a and 9b), although the literature has consistently found stronger links between benefits and affective commitment (e.g., Ahmad et al., 2015; Nawab et al., 2011). While the gap was not wide, it provides an opportunity to study what drives police officers' and other groups' perceptions of their compensation packages. Meyer et al. (2001) proposed that each commitment type is uniquely related to a mindset, with the affective mindset associated with a desire to be relevant, the normative by a mindset of obligation, and the continuance with the pros and cons of available alternate courses of action. Meyer et al. further propose that HR compensation practices influence these mindsets and ultimately the commitment dimensions. Employee commitment in the police force has long been identified as a neglected area of research (Metcalf et al., 2001), especially the design and

structure of their total compensation packages. Research would be beneficial in providing information on the mindset that drives law enforcement officers and the best way to structure compensation packages that will enhance their affective and normative commitment levels.

Fourthly, HR attribution to internal/external causality is determined to be related to emotional assessments of temperament or disposition (Weiner, 1985; Weiner et al., 1979), and therefore customarily associated with internal attributions (Harvey et al., 2014). Emotions such as anger and resentment increase where employees blame the employer for a negative outcome (Cropanzano & Folger, 1989). More research of an experimental design needs to be conducted to explore HR attribution and the intensification of group emotions within the workplace setting.

Fifthly, the positive relationship between continuance commitment and external economic pressure ( $R^2 = .031$ ;  $\beta = .188$ ;  $p = .068$ ) needs to be researched further as the trend suggests that the more the officers attributed their pension dilemma to external forces, the more they felt trapped in their organization. Organizations need to understand the dynamics at work here as continuance commitment is tied to hopelessness caused by feelings of limited or no options. It is possible that a person's means of livelihood is such a critical, personal issue that whether driven by internal or external change factors, it has to be treated differently from other external situations such as union compliance. A similar question has been asked by Hewett et al. (2018, p. 53), "Do some external attributions matter more than internal ones?" which also needs to be addressed.

Sixthly, the extra-role performance scale was developed in 2015 and there is a need for continued examination of this essential scale especially as it relates to personnel

in the service industry. Extra-role performance has been identified as a better indicator of overall performance compared to in-role performance when affective commitment is used as a predictor (Carlos et al., 2016; Riketta, 2002). This study confirmed a moderate positive relationship between extra-role job performance and affective commitment, an improvement over the mostly weak showing of in-role performance.

Finally, unionized employees were found to exhibit higher levels of continuance commitment over non-unionized employees. Previous research has shown that unionized employees enjoy higher compensation packages over non-unionized employees (Munnell et al., 2007) and so the question arises whether or not union members attribute the positive aspects of their pay and benefits to their union, and any negative aspects to their organization. A larger study with longitudinal design would contribute to understanding unionization and continuance commitment in law enforcement, with recommendations to address the findings.

#### Implications for Practice

To achieve preferred organizational outcomes, this study has made it clear that employees' perceptions of the company's HR practices should be given as much attention as the HR practices themselves. Antecedent to HR practices are the employees' attribution of the employers' reasons for implementing practices. The attributional process is intricately entwined with observed past behaviors and this presupposes that employees have already formed an impression of the organization and are seeking to confirm and strengthen their beliefs about the organization's rationale for instituting HR or any other practices (Martinko & Thompson, 1998; Nishii et al., 2008).

Organizations, therefore, need to proactively build strong, trustworthy brands so that they are perceived by internal and external stakeholders as an employer of choice. Senior managers, and human resources practitioners in particular, should also play their part in designing and implementing HR practices that increase employee commitment from as early as the recruitment and pre-hire phase. Perception of a good workplace therefore starts before the candidate is hired, and this perception needs to be followed with creative onboarding socialization exercises geared toward increasing a new employee's trust and commitment.

The process of socialization has been described as a continuous learning experience during which employees respond to internal and external events in their organizations (Reio & Callahan, 2004), and when done properly, has been linked to increased organizational commitment, job involvement, trust and tenure. With the results of this study confirming that employee attributions are internally driven by perceptions of the organization's management philosophy and HR business strategies, the primary goal of any new hire socialization program should be a focus on developing organizational commitment and positive job attitudes. New employees who attend orientation training are found to have significantly higher levels of affective organizational commitment early on over new employees who did not (Klein & Weaver, 2000). The training variables of goals, values and company history in particular were identified as related to affective organizational commitment.

Orientation and socialization programs should therefore be mandatory with the focus on establishing the organization's objectives, principles and history. The initial part of the orientation process should quickly resolve all of the new hire's on-boarding

administrative needs such as payroll set-up, employee handbook and benefits highlights—using technology where affordable—even before the employee’s official start date. This will allow the new employee to focus their attention on their new environment and responsibilities and HR personnel, managers and supervisors can start the cultural development process. With data showing benefits linked to affective and normative commitment, it is very important to restate the various benefits offered, the company’s journey to date, and expectations of both customers and the company, while sharing information about the various resources and personnel available to help them meet and exceed those expectations.

Compensation packages should also be designed to meet the demands of each unique industry and that design should be fully explained to incoming employees, bearing in mind once again that over time a sense of responsibility to the organization is developed through employee benefits. Employers should have a clear compensation philosophy, provide a fair compensation package tied to internal and external considerations, explaining how the compensation structure was determined, where it stands in comparison to similar organizations and why. As indicated in the literature review, public-sector employees receive a significantly higher percentage of their compensation package in the form of benefits over private-sector employees and employers need to provide regular information on the unseen cost of the total compensation package. Immediately after the recession in 2010, for example, employer contributions to the Florida Retirement System for officers were 22.1% of payroll in comparison to 2.3% of payroll for the average private sector employee around the same period.



Law enforcement officers have been found to place greater value on job security and benefits (White et al., 2010) and this knowledge should also be used to develop compensation packages targeted to maintain stability and influence retention and continuity. In this research, pension feelings had the greatest impact on law enforcement normative commitment as the more the pension plans were seen in a positive light, the more the officers' loyalty to the organization increased. This finding supports research that links benefits to organizational commitment, especially when determined to be discretionary (Koys, 1991).

Special initiatives should be developed to foster affective commitment in employees by creating the right work environment (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Meyer et al., 2001). HR policies and practices set the stage for employee perceptions of support and contribute to the development of affective commitment (Meyer et al., 2001, 2002; Naumann, Bennett, Bies, & Martin, 1999). Policies, including those regarding compensation, must be documented and applied uniformly to reduce the perception of unfair treatment within organizations (Bartle et al., 1999; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al, 2001). Feelings of cost and employee exploitation can be reduced with biannual anonymous surveys that alert management to the employees' perception of company HR practices, policies and other pertinent issues. Relevant interventions should be conducted when valid issues are raised, and programs developed to resolve the major findings from surveys, ensuring that the outcomes and resolutions are disseminated. Communication tools such as internal electronic media, bulletin boards, newsletters and regular staff meetings, among others, should be utilized to transfer important information affecting employees and keep management's agenda transparent, front and central.

### *Limitations of the Study*

This research has four limitations of consequence. Firstly, while 24 agencies across Florida with 3,624 officers were randomly selected from 141 eligible agencies with a total population 15,143, only nine agencies with 548 officers gave permission for participation in the survey. To ensure a viable sample size, all 548 officers were invited to participate, which may have increased selection bias. Additionally, there was over-representation of officers from the southern region, under-representation from medium-sized agencies, and no extra-large agency representation, which serves to limit generalizability. Secondly, the study was limited to Florida and the findings may be unique to that state, which also limits its generalizability. Larger studies involving individual states or multi-state studies are recommended.

Thirdly, the small sample size response of 147 officers could be associated with higher standard errors that may result in unstable and imprecise estimates of the population parameters (Meyers et al., 2013). The sample size and limited randomness outlined in the first limitation serve to restrict the generalizability of these findings. A larger sample size would have also helped to reduce issues of common method variance (CMV) by bringing the sample values closer to the population values. As outlined in Chapter 3, cross-sectional designs sometimes create false correlations among variables generated by common sources. In this study, police officers were the common source for both independent and outcome variables, one of the chief causes of CMV wherein the researcher runs the risk of inflating or deflating observed relationships between constructs.

To reduce these problems the study was rooted in an extensive literature review involving these constructs, diverse respondents were included in the survey, measurement scales and formats were varied, and hypotheses were tested via mediation analyses, which helps to reduce consistent responses. It should be noted, however, that although the sample size was small, it reflected the larger population as an examination of one of the demographic variables of gender revealed similarity to national averages. Gender participation rate for the study was 86.8% male to 13.2% female and this is nearly identical to the national ratio of male (87.5%) to female (12.5%) law enforcement officers (DOJ, UCR 2017).

The fourth limitation involves one of the eleven scales used in the research. The extra-role performance reliability scale measured only .54 and so findings related to this variable have to be approached with care. This scale is fairly new, developed in 2015 and applied at the time to lecturers in higher education, a very different population from law enforcement officers. More studies across disciplines are needed to validate this scale, which serves an important purpose in differentiating in-role versus extra-role performance. It will prove especially useful for professions in the public-sector service industry such as police, firemen and teachers, where outcomes are intricately tied to extra-role job performance, or going the extra mile.

### *Conclusion*

These findings contribute to the fledging growth of research that purports the need to understand antecedents to HR practices and their connection to employee attitudes, behaviors and outcomes. It also adds an HR perspective to the literature on the Great Recession, which has chiefly been explored from financial, economic and political

perspectives. This paper has demonstrated the importance of employee attribution when establishing or revising HR practices and how commitment attitudes are formed. This research explains how employee behaviors of turnover intention and extra-role job performance can be positively controlled by increasing affective and normative commitment through the manipulation of the organization's compensation package. Further research is recommended to improve understanding of compensation design, internal and external attribution and commitment types.

## REFERENCES

- Adams, J.S. (1963). Toward an understanding of inequity. *Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology, 67*, 422-436.
- Adams, J.S. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.) *Advances in experimental social psychology* (pp. 267-299). New York, NY: Academic Press.
- Aggarwal, U., & Bhargava, S. (2009). Reviewing the relationship between human resource practices and psychological contract and their impact on employee attitude and behaviours: A conceptual model. *Journal of European Industrial Training, 33*, 4-31.
- Ahlichs, N. S. (2000). *Competing for talent: Key recruitment and retention strategies for becoming an employer of choice*. California: Davies-Black Publishing.
- Ahmad, R., & Scott, N. (2015). Fringe benefits and organizational commitment: The case of Langkawi hotels. *Tourism Review, 70*, 13-23.
- Alanez, T. (2011, September 13). Hollywood voters give go-ahead to pension reform. *Sun Sentinel*. Retrieved from [http://articles.sun-sentinel.com/2011-09-13/news/fl-hollywood-vote-tuesday-20110913\\_1\\_pension-reform-hollywood-voters-retirement-ages](http://articles.sun-sentinel.com/2011-09-13/news/fl-hollywood-vote-tuesday-20110913_1_pension-reform-hollywood-voters-retirement-ages).
- Allen, S. G., & Clark, R. L. (1987). Pensions and firm performance. In Kleiner, M.M., Block, R.N., Roomsted, M., Salsburg, S.W., (Eds). *Human resources and the performance of the firm* (pp. 159-242). Madison, WI: Industrial Relations Research Association.
- Allen, S. G., Clark, R. L. & McDermed, A. (1993). Pension bonding and lifetime jobs. *Journal of Human Resources, 28*, 463-481.
- Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 63*, 1-18.
- Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1996). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: An examination of construct validity. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 49*, 252-276.
- Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (2000). Construct validation in organizational behavior research: The case of organizational commitment. In R. D. Goffin & E. Helms (Eds.), *Problems and solutions in human assessment*. (pp. 285-314). Norwell, MA: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

- Allen, D., Shore, L., and Griffeth, R. (2003). The role of perceived organizational support and supportive human resource practices in the turnover process. *Journal of Management*, 29, 99–118.
- Allison, P. D. (2012, April). Handling missing data by maximum likelihood. *Statistical Horizons*, SAS Global Forum, Havenford, PA.
- Almeida, B. & Boivie, I. (2009, January). *Recruitment and retention in the public sector: The role of pensions*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Labor and Employment Relations Association (LERA), Washington, DC.
- Alpert, G. P., Flynn, D., & Piquero, A. R. (2001). Effective community policing performance measures. *Justice Research and Policy*, 3, 79-94.
- Alpert, G. P., & Moore, M. H. (1993). Measuring police performance in the new paradigm of policing. *Performance Measures for the Criminal Justice System: Discussion papers from the BJS-Princeton project* (pp. 109–142). Washington DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics.
- Anzia, S. F., & Moe, T. M. (2017). Polarization and policy: The politics of public sector pensions. *Legislative Studies Quarterly*, 42, 33-62.
- Appelbaum, E., Bailey, T., Berg, P., & Kalleberg, A. (2000). *Manufacturing advantage: Why high-performance work systems pay off*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.
- Averill, J. R. (1983). Studies on anger and aggression: Implications for theories of emotion. *American Psychologist*, 38, 1145-1160.
- Bakker, A. B., & Heuven, E. (2006). Emotional dissonance, burnout, and in-role performance among nurses and police officers. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 13(4), 423-440.
- Barney, J. B., & Wright, P. M. (1998). On becoming a strategic partner: The role of human resources in gaining competitive advantage. *Human Resource Management*, 37(1), 31-46.
- Bartle, S. A., & Hayes, B. C. (1999, April). *Organizational justice and work outcomes: A meta-analysis*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Atlanta, GA.
- Bashaw, R. E., & Grant, E. S. (1994). Exploring the distinctive nature of work commitments: Their relationships with personal characteristics, job performance, and propensity to leave. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 14(2), 41-56.

- Bassi, L. J., & Van Buren, M. E. (1999). Valuing investments in intellectual capital. *International Journal of Technology Management*, 18, 414-432.
- Beck, K., & Wilson, C. (2000). Development of affective organizational commitment: A cross-sequential examination of change with tenure. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 56, 114-136.
- Belman, D., and Heywood, J. S. (2004). Public sector wage comparability: The role of earnings dispersion. *Public Finance Review*, 32, 567-587.
- Bentein, K., Vandenberg, R. J., Vandenberghe, C., & Stinglhamber, F. (2005). The role of change in the relationship between commitment and turnover: A latent growth modeling approach. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90, 468-482.
- Berg, P. (1999). The effects of high performance work practices on job satisfaction in the United States steel industry. *Relations Industrielles*, 54, 111-34.
- Bewerunge, P., & Rosen, H. S. (2013). Wages, pensions, and public-private sector compensation differentials for older workers. *Public Administration Research*, 2(2), 233-249.
- Bies, R. J. (1987). The predicament of injustice: The management of moral outrage. In L. L. Cummings & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (pp. 289-319). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Blomquist, D. (2016, April 14). *Q1 2016 Foreclosure activity below pre-recession levels in 36 percent of U.S. housing markets*. Retrieved from <http://www.realtytrac.com/news/foreclosure-trends/q1-2016-u-s-foreclosure-market-report/>
- Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S. K. (2007). *Qualitative research for education*. New York, NY: Pearson.
- Nunnally, J. (1978). *Psychometric methods*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Boivie, I., & Weller, C. E. (2012). The fiscal crisis, public pensions, and labor and employment relations. In D. Mitchell (Ed.), *Public jobs and political agendas: the public sector in an era of economic stress* (pp. 167-194). Champaign, IL: Labor and Employment Relations Association.
- Borman, W. C., & Motowidlo, S. J. (1997). Task performance and contextual performance: The meaning for personnel selection research. *Human Performance*, 10(2), 99-109.

- Bowen, D.E., & Ostroff, C. (2004). Understanding HRM-firm performance linkages: The role of the strength of the HRM system. *Academy of Management Review*, 29, 203-221.
- Brett, J. F., Cron, W. L., & Slocum, J. W. (1995). Economic dependency on work: A moderator of the relationship between organizational commitment and performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38, 261-271.
- Brown, R. B. (1996). Organizational commitment: Clarifying the concept and simplifying the existing construct typology. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 49, 230-251.
- Brunetto, Y., Teo, S. T., Shacklock, K., & Farr-Wharton, R. (2012). Emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, well-being and engagement: Explaining organisational commitment and turnover intentions in policing. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 22, 428-441.
- Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2012). *BLS spotlight on statistics: The recession of 2007–2009*. Retrieved from [https://www.bls.gov/spotlight/2012/recession/pdf/recession\\_bls\\_spotlight.pdf](https://www.bls.gov/spotlight/2012/recession/pdf/recession_bls_spotlight.pdf).
- Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2013, March). *Employee benefits survey: Retirement benefits*. Retrieved from [http://www.bls.gov/ncs/ebs/benefits/2013/benefits\\_retirement.htm](http://www.bls.gov/ncs/ebs/benefits/2013/benefits_retirement.htm).
- Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2016, September). *Employer costs for employee compensation*. Retrieved from <https://www.bls.gov/news.release/pdf/ecec.pdf>.
- Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2016, September). *Employee tenure in 2016*. Retrieved from <http://www.bls.gov/news.release/tenure.nr0.htm>.
- Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2016, September). *Median years of tenure with current employer for employed wage and salary workers by industry, selected years, 2006-16*. Retrieved from: <http://www.bls.gov/news.release/tenure.t05.htm>.
- Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2016, May). *National industry-specific occupational employment and wage estimates. NAICS 999300 - Local government, excluding schools and hospitals (OES Designation)*. Retrieved from [https://www.bls.gov/oes/current/naics4\\_999300.htm](https://www.bls.gov/oes/current/naics4_999300.htm)
- Bureau of Labor Statistics. *Occupational outlook handbook, police and detectives*. Retrieved from <https://www.bls.gov/oooh/protective-service/police-and-detectives.htm>.



- Burtless, G. (2010). Lessons of the financial crisis for the design of national pension Systems. *CEifo Economic Studies*, 56, 323-49.
- Buzzacco-Foerster, J. (2010, June 12). Naples police union, city at odds so rare impasse hearing set for today. *Naples News*.
- Caillouet, B. A., Boccaccini, M. T., Varela, J. G., Davis, R. D., & Rostow, C. D. (2010). Predictive validity of the MMPI-2 PSY-5 scales and facets for law enforcement officer employment outcomes. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 37, 217-238.
- Callan, T., Nolan, B., Keane, C., Savage, M., & Walsh, J. (2013). Inequality in Europe: What can be done? What should be done? *Intereconomics*, 48, 328-356.
- Cannon, A. (2011). *Apples to apples: Private-sector and public-sector compensation in Iowa*. Iowa City, IA: The Iowa Policy Project.
- Cantrell, M. A., & Lupinacci, P. (2007). Methodological issues in online data collection. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 60, 544-549.
- Carlos, V. S., & Rodrigues, R. G. (2016). Development and validation of a self-reported measure of job performance. *Social Indicators Research*, 126, 279-307.
- Center for Advanced Human Resource Studies. (2010, June). *Employee compensation: Know the true costs of employment and optimize them to benefit employers, employees* (CAHRS Research Link No. 8). Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press, ILR School.
- Center for State and Local Government Excellence and National Institute on Retirement Security. (2010). *Out of balance: Comparing public and private sector compensation over 20 years*. Washington, DC: Bender, K. A., & Heywood, J. S.
- Chew, J., & Chan, C. C. (2008). Human resource practices, organizational commitment and intention to stay. *International Journal of Manpower*, 29, 503-522.
- Cho, E., & Kim, S. (2015). Cronbach's coefficient alpha: Well-known but poorly understood. *Organizational Research Methods*, 18(2), 207-230.
- Claxton, G., Rae, M., Panchal, N., Whitmore, H., Damico, A., Kenward, K., & Long, M. (2015). Health benefits in 2015: Stable trends in the employer market. *Health Affairs*, 34(10), 1779-1788.
- Cohen, A. (1991). Career stage as a moderator of the relationships between organizational commitment and its outcomes: A metaanalysis. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 64, 253-268.

- Cohen, J. (1992). A power primer. *Psychological Bulletin*, 112(1), 155-159.
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Cohen-Charash, Y., & Spector, P. (2001). The role of justice in organizations: A meta-analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 86, 278-321.
- Colarelli, S. M. (1984). Methods of communication and mediating processes in realistic job previews. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69(4), 633-642.
- Collins, C. J., & Smith, K. G. (2006). Knowledge exchange and combination: The role of human resource practices in the performance of high-technology firms. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49, 544-560.
- Colquitt, J. A., Conlon, D. E., Wesson, M. J., Porter, C. O., & Ng, K. Y. (2001). Justice at the millennium: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of organizational justice research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86, 425-445.
- Cong, Y., Frank, H. A., Gianakis, G., & Guo, H. (2015). Critical issues in the transition from the defined benefit to the defined contribution pension model: Perceptions from Florida municipal finance and human resource directors. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 35, 333-351.
- Conway, N., & Briner, R. B. (2005). *Understanding psychological contracts at work: A critical evaluation of theory and research*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, Inc.
- Coombs, W. T. (2007). Attribution theory as a guide for post-crisis communication research. *Public Relations Review*, 33, 135-139.
- Coombs, W. T., & Holladay, S. J. (2005). An exploratory study of stakeholder emotions: Affect and crises. In N. M. Ashkanasy, W. J. Zerbe, & C. E. Hartel (Eds.), *The effect of affect in organizational settings* (pp. 263-280). Bingley, U.K.: Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Couper, M. P. (2000). Web surveys: A review of issues and approaches. *The Public Opinion Quarterly*, 64, 464-494.
- Crittenden, K. S. (1983). Sociological aspects of attribution. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 9(1), 425-446.
- Cropanzano, R., & Folger, R. (1989). Referent cognitions and task decision autonomy: Beyond equity theory. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74, 293.

- Dannin, E. (2012). Cash-strapped governments: Privatization as a response to the crisis of the Great Recession. In D. Mitchell (Ed.), *Public jobs and political agendas: The public sector in an era of economic stress* (pp. 79-104). Champaign, IL: Labor and Employment Relations Association.
- Dantzer, M. L. (1987). Police-related stress: A critique for future research. *Journal of Police and Criminal Psychology*, 3, 43-48.
- Danzer, A. M., & Dolton, P. J. (2012). Total reward and pensions in the UK in the public and private sectors. *Labour Economics*, 19, 584-594.
- Danzer, A. M., Dolton, P., & Bondibene, C. R. (2016). Who wins? Evaluating the impact of UK public sector pension scheme reforms. *National Institute Economic Review*, 237, R38-R46.
- Davies, R. (2001). How to boost staff retention. *People Management*, 7, 54-6.
- Delaney, J. T., & Huselid, M. A. (1996). The impact of human resource management practices on perceptions of organizational performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39, 949-969.
- Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Investigation, UCR. (2008). *Crime in the United States*. Retrieved from <https://ucr.fbi.gov/crime-in-the-u.s/2008>.
- Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Investigation, UCR. (2012). *Crime in the United States*. Retrieved from [https://ucr.fbi.gov/crime-in-the-u.s/2012/crime-in-the-u.s.-2012/tables/77tabledatadecpdf/table\\_77\\_full\\_time\\_law\\_enforcement\\_employess\\_by\\_state\\_2012.xls](https://ucr.fbi.gov/crime-in-the-u.s/2012/crime-in-the-u.s.-2012/tables/77tabledatadecpdf/table_77_full_time_law_enforcement_employess_by_state_2012.xls).
- Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Investigation, UCR. (2015). *Crime in the United States*. Retrieved from <https://ucr.fbi.gov/crime-in-the-u.s/2015/crime-in-the-u.s.-2015/tables/table-77>
- Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Investigation, UCR. (2017). *Crime in the United States*. Retrieved from <https://ucr.fbi.gov/crime-in-the-u.s/2017/crime-in-the-u.s.-2017/topic-pages/tables/table-77>
- De Thierry, E., Lam, H., Harcourt, M., Flynn, M., & Wood, G. (2014). Defined benefit pension decline: The consequences for organizations and employees. *Employee Relations*, 36, 654-673.
- Dill, K. (2016, January). The 10 most stressful jobs in 2016. *Forbes*. Retrieved from <http://www.forbes.com/sites/kathryndill/2016/01/11/the-10-most-stressful-jobs-in-2016/#7c9d2ca84b54>.

- Dillman, D. A., Sinclair, M. D., & Clark, J. R. (1993). Effects of questionnaire length, respondent-friendly design, and a difficult question on response rates for occupant-addressed census mail surveys. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, *57*, 289-304.
- Dillman, D. A., Smyth, J. D., & Christian, L. M. (2009). *Internet, mail, and mixed-mode survey: The tailored design method*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Dillman, D. A., Tortora, R. D., & Bowker, D. K. (1999). *Principles for constructing web surveys*. Retrieved from:  
<http://survey.sesrc.wsu.edu/dillman/papers/websurveyppr.pdf>.
- Douglas, S. C., & Martinko, M. J. (2001). Exploring the role of individual differences in the prediction of workplace aggression. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*, 547-559.
- Eckardt, R., Skaggs, B. C., & Youndt, M. (2014). Turnover and knowledge loss: An examination of the differential impact of production manager and worker turnover in service and manufacturing firms. *Journal of Management Studies*, *51*, 1025-1057.
- Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *71*, 500-507.
- Elsby, M. W., Hobijn, B., & Sahin, A. (2010). *The labor market in the Great Recession*. No. w15979. National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Enders, C. K. (2010). *Applied missing data analysis*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Fan, W., & Yan, Z. (2010). Factors affecting response rates of the web survey: A systematic review. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *26*, 132-139.
- Ferguson, K. L., & Reio Jr, T. G. (2010). Human resource management systems and firm performance. *Journal of Management Development*, *29*, 471-494.
- Fiorito, J., Bozeman, D. P., Young, A., & Meurs, J. A. (2007). Organizational commitment, human resource practices, and organizational characteristics. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, *19*, 186-207.
- Fiske, S. T., & Taylor, S. E. (2013). *Social cognition: From brains to culture*. London: Sage Publications.
- Florida Department of Law Enforcement (2017). *Criminal justice agency addresses*. Retrieved from <http://www.fdle.state.fl.us/cms/CJSTC/Publications/Criminal-Justice-Agency-Addresses.aspx>.

- Florida Department of Management Services (2016). *Participating police and fire pension funds*. Retrieved from [https://www.rol.frs.state.fl.us/forms/Participating\\_Cities.pdf](https://www.rol.frs.state.fl.us/forms/Participating_Cities.pdf).
- Florida Department of Management Services. (2018). *Contribution rates*. Retrieved from [http://www.dms.myflorida.com/workforce\\_operations/retirement/employers/contribution\\_rates](http://www.dms.myflorida.com/workforce_operations/retirement/employers/contribution_rates).
- Florida Retirement Security Coalition. (2013). *The facts about Florida's public retirement plans*. Retrieved from <http://www.flafcio.org/sites/default/files/Florida%20Retirement%20Security%20Primer.pdf>.
- Florida Retirement System. (2017). *Benefit calculation*. Retrieved from [https://www.myfrs.com/FRSPro\\_ComparePlan\\_BenificCal.htm](https://www.myfrs.com/FRSPro_ComparePlan_BenificCal.htm).
- Florida Retirement System. (2017). *Normal retirement*. Retrieved from [https://www.myfrs.com/FRSPro\\_ComparePlan\\_Normal.htm](https://www.myfrs.com/FRSPro_ComparePlan_Normal.htm).
- Florida Retirement System. (2017). *Participating employers for fiscal year 2017-18*. Retrieved from <https://www.rol.frs.state.fl.us/forms/part-emp.pdf>.
- Florida Statutes. (2017). *Special Risk Class*. Retrieved from [http://www.leg.state.fl.us/Statutes/index.cfm?App\\_mode=Display\\_Statute&Search\\_String=&URL=0100-0199/0121/Sections/0121.0515.html](http://www.leg.state.fl.us/Statutes/index.cfm?App_mode=Display_Statute&Search_String=&URL=0100-0199/0121/Sections/0121.0515.html).
- Florida TaxWatch and the LeRoy Collins Institute. (2013). *Looking at Florida's municipal pensions: How some Florida cities are dealing with pension funding issues*. Retrieved from <http://collinsinstitute.fsu.edu/sites/collinsinstitute.fsu.edu/files/TaxWatch-LCIMuniPensionsFINAL.pdf>.
- Foley, P. F., Guarneri, C., & Kelly, M. E. (2008). Reasons for choosing a police career: Changes over two decades. *International Journal of Police Science & Management*, 10, 2-8.
- Folger, R., 1987. Distributive and procedural justice in the workplace. *Social Justice Research*, 1, 143-159.
- Frank, H., Gianakis, G., & Neshkova, M. I. (2012). Critical questions for the transition to defined contribution pension systems in the public sector. *The American Review of Public Administration*, 42, 375-399.
- Gallop, J., (2009, September 4). Melbourne, Palm Bay officers still split on forced furloughs. *Florida Today*. Retrieved from

[http://www.fop.net/servlet/display/news\\_article?id=1795&XSL=xsl\\_pages%2Fpublic\\_news\\_individual.xsl&nocache=22061000.](http://www.fop.net/servlet/display/news_article?id=1795&XSL=xsl_pages%2Fpublic_news_individual.xsl&nocache=22061000)

- Gardner, J. E. (1986). *Stabilizing the workforce: A complete guide to controlling staff turnover*. New York, NY: Quorum Books.
- Geer, J. G. (1988). What do open-ended questions measure? *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 52, 365-367.
- Gellatly, I. R., Meyer, J. P., & Luchak, A. A. (2006). Combined effects of the three commitment components on focal and discretionary behaviors: A test of Meyer and Herscovitch's propositions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 69, 331-345.
- Gerhart, B., & Fang, M. (2015). Pay, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, performance, and creativity in the workplace: Revisiting long-held beliefs. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 2, 489-521.
- Gerhart, B., & Milkovich, G. T. (1992). *Employee compensation: Research and practice* (CAHRS Working Paper #92-26). Ithaca, NY: Cornell University, School of Industrial and Labor Relations, Center for Advanced Human Resource Studies.
- Gibbons, T.J. (2012, November 19). Jacksonville declares impasse in pension talks with police union. *The Florida-Times Union*. Retrieved from <http://jacksonville.com/news/metro/2012-11-19/story/jacksonville-declares-impasse-pension-talks-police-union>.
- Gilmore, T. N., Shea, G. P., & Useem, M. (1997). Side effects of corporate cultural transformations. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 33, 174-189.
- Gilroy, L. (2015, February 25). Reforming public safety pensions in Tequesta, Florida. *Reason foundation*. Retrieved from <http://reason.org/news/show/public-safety-pension-reform-teques>.
- Gittleman, M., & Pierce, B. (2011). Inter-industry wage differentials job content and unobserved ability. *Industrial & Labor Relations Review*, 64, 356-374.
- GoodData, (n.d.). Normality testing - skewness and kurtosis. Retrieved from <https://help.gooddata.com/doc/en/reporting-and-dashboards/maql-analytical-query-language/maql-expression-reference/aggregation-functions/statistical-functions/predictive-statistical-use-cases/normality-testing-skewness-and-kurtosis#NormalityTesting-SkewnessandKurtosis-KURTOSIS>
- Goforth, C., (2015, November 16), Using and interpreting Cronbach's alpha. University of Virginia Library. Retrieved from <https://data.library.virginia.edu/using-and-interpreting-cronbachs-alpha/>.

- Gottfredson, M. R., & Gottfredson, D. M. (1988). *Decision making in criminal justice: Toward the rational exercise of discretion*. New York, NY: Plenum Press.
- Gough, O., & Hick, R. (2009). Employee evaluations of occupational pensions. *Employee Relations, 31*, 158-167.
- Gould-Williams, J. (2003). The importance of HR practices and workplace trust in achieving superior performance: A study of public-sector organisations. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 14*, 28–54.
- Gravetter, F., & Wallnau, L. (2000). *Statistics for the behavioral sciences*. California: Wadsworth/Cengage Learning.
- Grdinovac, J. A., & Yancey, G. B. (2012). How organizational adaptations to recession relate to organizational commitment. *The Psychologist-Manager Journal, 15*, 6-24.
- Greenberg, J. (1987). A taxonomy of organizational justice theories. *Academy of Management Review, 12*, 9-22.
- Greenberg, J. (1990). Employee theft as a reaction to underpayment inequity: The hidden cost of pay cuts. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*, 561-568.
- Griffin, M., Neal, A., & Neale, M. (2000). The contribution of task performance and contextual performance to effectiveness: Investigating the role of situational constraints. *Applied Psychology, 49*, 517-533.
- Groves, R. M., Fowler Jr, F. J., Couper, M. P., Lepkowski, J. M., Singer, E., & Tourangeau, R. (2011). *Survey methodology* (Vol. 561). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Grusky, D. B., Western, B., & Wimer, C. (2011). *The great recession*. New York, NY: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Guest, D. E. (1997). Human resource management and performance: A review and research agenda. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 8*, 263-276.
- Gulati, R., Nohria, N., & Wohlgezogen, F. (2010). Roaring out of recession. *Harvard Business Review, 88*, 62-69.
- Guthrie, J. P. (2001). High-involvement work practices, turnover, and productivity: Evidence from New Zealand. *Academy of Management Journal, 44*, 180–90.

- Guzzo, R., Noonan, K., and Elron, E. (1994). Expatriate managers and the psychological contract. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79, 617–627.
- Gyensare, M., Otoo, E., Asare, J., & Twumasi, E. (2015). Antecedents and consequence of employee turnover intention: Empirical evidence from Ghana. *Management Science Letters*, 5, 781-796.
- Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L. & Black, W. C. (1995). *Multivariate Data Analysis*. New York, NY: Macmillan.
- Harvey, P., Madison, K., Martinko, M., Crook, T. R., & Crook, T. A. (2014). Attribution theory in the organizational sciences: The road traveled and the path ahead. *The Academy of Management Perspectives*, 28, 128-146.
- Haverstick, K., Munnell, A. H., Sanzenbacher, G., & Soto, M. (2010). Pension type, tenure, and job mobility. *Journal of Pension Economics & Finance*, 9(4), 609-625.
- Heider, F. (1958). *The psychology of interpersonal relations*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Heneman, R. L., DeSimone, B., Dooley, A. E., & Jones, D. (2002). Goalsharing as both a lead and lag system. *World at Work Journal*, 11, 65-70.
- Heneman, R. L. (2007). *Implementing total rewards strategies: A guide to successfully planning and implementing a total rewards system*. Alexandria, VA: SHRM Foundation.
- Hetzel, R. L. (2012). *The great recession: Market failure or policy failure?* Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press.
- Hewett, R., Shantz, A., Mundy, J., & Alfes, K. (2018). Attribution theories in human resource management research: A review and research agenda. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 29(1), 87-126.
- Hinkle, D. E., Wiersma, W., & Jurs, S. G. (2003). *Applied statistics for the behavioral sciences*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.
- Hinrichs, K. (2015). In the wake of the crisis: Pension reforms in eight European countries. (Working Paper No. 01/2015), *ZeS-Arbeitspapier*. Retrieved from [https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Karl\\_Hinrichs2/publication/270896615\\_Karl\\_Hinrichs\\_In\\_the\\_Wake\\_of\\_the\\_Crisis\\_Pension\\_Reforms\\_in\\_Eight\\_European\\_Countries/links/54b8d9d30cf2c27adc48fa14/Karl-Hinrichs-In-the-Wake-of-the-Crisis-Pension-Reforms-in-Eight-European-Countries.pdf](https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Karl_Hinrichs2/publication/270896615_Karl_Hinrichs_In_the_Wake_of_the_Crisis_Pension_Reforms_in_Eight_European_Countries/links/54b8d9d30cf2c27adc48fa14/Karl-Hinrichs-In-the-Wake-of-the-Crisis-Pension-Reforms-in-Eight-European-Countries.pdf).



- Holt, T. (2014, October 28). Police union declares impasse with Flagler sheriff. *The Daytona Beach News Journal*. Retrieved from <http://www.news-journalonline.com/article/LK/20141028/News/605076979/DN/>.
- Huriash, L. (2010, August 10). City employees and elected commissioners in Wilton Manors must take unpaid furlough. *Sun Sentinel*. Retrieved from [http://articles.sun-sentinel.com/2010-08-10/news/fl-wilton-manors-budget-20100809\\_1\\_furlough-tax-rate-water-and-sewer-fees](http://articles.sun-sentinel.com/2010-08-10/news/fl-wilton-manors-budget-20100809_1_furlough-tax-rate-water-and-sewer-fees).
- Huriash, L. (2013, December 18). After 18 months, Plantation declares impasse in police contracts. *Sun Sentinel*. Retrieved from [http://articles.sun-sentinel.com/2013-12-18/news/fl-plantation-police-impasse-20131217\\_1\\_joe-mercogliano-yearly-raise-officers-impasse](http://articles.sun-sentinel.com/2013-12-18/news/fl-plantation-police-impasse-20131217_1_joe-mercogliano-yearly-raise-officers-impasse).
- Huselid, M. A. (1995). The impact of human resource management practices on turnover, productivity, and corporate financial performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38, 635-672.
- Hylton, M. (2014). The case for public pension reform: Early evidence from Kentucky. *Creighton Law Review*, 47, 585-611.
- Iacobucci, D. (2010). Structural equations modeling: Fit indices, sample size, and advanced topics. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 20, 90-98.
- Institute for Research on Labor and Employment. (2010). *The truth about public employees in California: They are neither overpaid nor overcompensated*. Berkeley, CA: Allegretto, S. A., & Keefe, J.
- International Association of Chiefs of Police (2011). *Policing in the 21<sup>st</sup> century*. Retrieved from [http://www.theiacp.org/Portals/0/pdfs/Policing\\_in\\_the\\_21st\\_Century-SURVEY\\_RESULTS.pdf](http://www.theiacp.org/Portals/0/pdfs/Policing_in_the_21st_Century-SURVEY_RESULTS.pdf).
- Jaramillo, F., Nixon, R., & Sams, D. (2005). The effect of law enforcement stress on organizational commitment. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 28, 321-336.
- Jiang, W. (2014). *Business partnerships and organizational performance: The role of resources and capabilities*. New York, NY: Springer Science & Business Media.
- Johnson, B., & Christensen, L. (2012). *Educational research: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed approaches*. London: Sage Publications.
- Johnson, R. W. (2015). *Reforming government pensions to better distribute benefits. What are the options?* Washington, DC: Urban Institute. Retrieved from

<https://www.urban.org/sites/default/files/publication/48971/2000171-Reforming-Government-Pensions-to-Better-Distribute-Benefits.pdf>.

- Jones, E. E., & Davis, K. E. (1965). From acts to dispositions: The attribution process in person perception. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*. (Vol. 2, pp. 219-266). New York, NY: Academic Press.
- Jones, E., Kanouse, D., Kelley, H. H., Nisbett, R. E., Valins, S., & Weiner, B. (1971). *Attribution: Perceiving the causes of behavior*. Morristown, NJ: General Learning Press.
- Judge, T. A., Scott, B. A., & Ilies, R. (2006). Hostility, job attitudes, and workplace deviance: Test of a multilevel model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*, 126-138.
- Kaiser Family Foundation, Health Research and Educational Trust. (2016). *Employer health benefits survey: Summary of findings*. Menlo Park, CA. Retrieved from <https://kaiserfamilyfoundation.files.wordpress.com/2016/09/employer-health-benefits-2016-summary-of-findings.pdf>.
- Kearney, R., & Carnevale, D. (2001). *Labor relations in the public sector*. New York, NY: Marcel Decker.
- Keefe, J. (2012). Are public employees overpaid? *Labor Studies Journal, 37*, 104-126.
- Kelley, H. H. (1973). The processes of causal attribution. *American Psychologist, 28*, 107-128.
- Kelley, H. H., & Michela, J. L. (1980). Attribution theory and research. *Annual Review of Psychology, 31*, 457-501.
- Kellough, J. E., & Selden, S. C. (2003). The reinvention of public personnel administration: An analysis of the diffusion of personnel management reforms in the states. *Public Administration Review, 63*, 165-176.
- Kelly, W. (2016, May 12). Palm beach council adopts pension overhaul for police, firefighters; New plan aims to stop employee exodus. *Palm Beach Daily News*. Retrieved from <http://www.palmbeachdailynews.com/news/local-govt--politics/palm-beach-council-adopts-pension-overhaul-for-police-firefighters/11iyDgup1OKcTydfYeJ5L/>.
- Kickul, J. R., Neuman, G., Parker, C., & Finkl, J. (2001). Settling the score: The role of organizational justice in the relationship between psychological contract breach and anticitizenship behavior. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 13*, 77-93.

- Kiewiet, D. R., & McCubbins, M. D. (2014). State and local government finance: The new fiscal ice age. *Annual Review of Political Science*, 17, 105-122.
- King, M. F., & Bruner, G. C. (2000). Social desirability bias: A neglected aspect of validity testing. *Psychology and Marketing*, 17(2), 79-103.
- Klein, H. J., & Weaver, N. A. (2000). The effectiveness of an organizational-level orientation training program in the socialization of new hires. *Personnel Psychology*, 53(1), 47-66.
- Knudsen, H. K., Johnson, A. J., Martin, J. K. & Roman, P. M. (2003). Downsizing survival: The experience of work and organizational commitment. *Sociological Inquiry*, 73, 265–283.
- Kopelman, J. L., & Rosen, H. S. (2014). *Are public sector jobs recession-proof? Were they ever?* Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Koper, C. S. (2004). *Hiring and keeping police officers*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, National Institute of Justice.
- Koper, C. S., Maguire, E. R., Moore, G. E., & Huffer, D. E. (2001). *Hiring and retention issues in police agencies: Readings on the determinants of police strength, hiring and retention of officers, and the federal COPS program*. Washington, DC: Urban Institute.
- Korsgaard, M. A., Sapienza, H.J, & Schweiger, D.M., (2002). Beaten before begun: The role of procedural justice in planning change. *Journal of Management*, 28, 497-516.
- Koys, D. J. (1988). Human resource management and a culture of respect: Effects on employees' organizational commitment. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 1, 57-68.
- Koys, D. J. (1991). Fairness, legal compliance, and organizational commitment. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 4, 283-291.
- Krueger, A. B., & Mas, A. (2004). Strikes, scabs, and tread separations: Labor strife and the production of defective Bridgestone/Firestone tires. *Journal of Political Economy*, 112(2), 253-289.
- Lee, R. E., & Thompson, A. M. (2012). Public–private pay comparisons: An analysis of Florida. *Compensation & Benefits Review*, 44, 266-275.

- Lester, S. W., Turnley, W. H., Bloodgood, J. M., & Bolino, M. C. (2002). Not seeing eye to eye: Differences in supervisor and subordinate perceptions of and attributions for psychological contract breach. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23, 39-56.
- Levitt, S. D. (1997). Using electoral cycles in police hiring to estimate the effect of police on crime. *American Economic Review*, 87, 270-290.
- Lewin, D. (2012). Effects of deep recession on public sector pay, benefits, and employment. In D. Mitchell (Ed.), *Public jobs and political agendas: The public sector in an era of economic stress* (pp. 13-40). Champaign, IL: Labor and Employment Relations Association.
- Lindberg, A. (2013, June 4). Kenneth City, police at impasse on negotiations. *Tampa Bay Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.tampabay.com/news/localgovernment/kenneth-city-and-police-department-at-an-impasse-on-negotiations/2124705>.
- Linn, J.W. (2013, July 29). *Village of Tequesta public safety employees' pension plan for firefighters: Overview & options presentation*.
- Linn, J.W., Rizzo, J.J., Lyons, C. (2012, February 16). *Pension reform, Florida government finance officers association* [Webinar]. Retrieved from <http://www.fgfoa.org/Assets/Files/Past%20Presentations/FGFOAPensionReformWebinar.pdf>.
- Lleras, C. (2005). Path analysis. *Encyclopedia of social measurement*, 3, 25-30.
- Luthans, F., & Church, A. (2002). Positive organization behavior: Developing and managing psychological strengths. *The Academy of Management Executive*, 16, 57-75.
- Maciag, M. (2017, January 23). A relic of the recession: Fewer local government workers. *Governing the states and localities*. Retrieved from <http://www.governing.com/topics/mgmt/gov-local-government-payrolls-employment.html>.
- Madland, D., & Bunker, N. (2012, February). *In defense of defined-benefit pensions: Modest reforms to state plans are best option for taxpayers*. Washington, DC: Center for American Progress Action Fund. Retrieved from [https://cdn.americanprogress.org/wp-content/uploads/issues/2012/02/pdf/defined\\_benefit.pdf](https://cdn.americanprogress.org/wp-content/uploads/issues/2012/02/pdf/defined_benefit.pdf).
- Maertz, C. P., Jr., & Griffeth, R. W. (2004). Eight motivational forces and voluntary turnover: A theoretical synthesis with implications for research. *Journal of Management*, 30, 667-683.

- Maertz, C. P., Griffeth, R. W., Campbell, N. S., & Allen, D. G. (2007). The effects of perceived organizational support and perceived supervisor support on employee turnover. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *28*, 1059-1075.
- Maguire, E. (2003). Measuring the performance of law enforcement agencies. *Calea Update*, *83*, 84.
- Maguire, E. R., & Uchida, C. D. (2000). Measurement and explanation in the comparative study of American police organizations. *Criminal Justice*, *4*, 491-557.
- Maitland, A. (2008). Attitude measurement. In P. J. Lavrakas (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of survey research methods* (Vol. 1, pp. 37-38). London: Sage Publications.
- Malhotra, N. K., Kim, S. S., & Patil, A. (2006). Accounting for common method variance in IS research: Reanalysis of past studies using a marker-variable technique. *Management Science*, *52*, 1865-1883.
- Marchington, M., & Grugulis, I. (2000). Best practice human resource management: Perfect opportunity or dangerous illusion? *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *11*, 1104–1124.
- Martinko, M. J., Harvey, P., & Dasborough, M. T. (2011). Attribution theory in the organizational sciences: A case of unrealized potential. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *32*, 144-149.
- Martinko, M. J., Harvey, P., & Douglas, S. C. (2007). The role, function, and contribution of attribution theory to leadership: A review. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *18*, 561-585.
- Martinko, M. J., & Thomson, N. F. (1998). A synthesis and extension of the Weiner and Kelley attribution models. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, *20*, 271–284.
- Maslach, C. (1978). The client role in staff burn-out. *Journal of Social Issues*, *34*(4), 111-124.
- Mastrofski, D. (1999). *Ideas in American policing: Policing for people*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Police Foundation. Retrieved from <https://www.policefoundation.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/06/Mastrofski-1999-Policing-For-People.pdf>.
- Mathieu, J. E., & Zajac, D. M. (1990). A review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment. *Psychological Bulletin*, *108*, 171-194.

- Mayer, G. (2014). *Selected characteristics of private and public sector workers*. Washington, DC: Congressional Research Service. Retrieved from <http://www.fas.org/sgp/crs/misc/R41897.pdf>.
- Mazzei, P. (2013, August 28). Miami-Dade commissioners to vote on union impasses. *Miami Herald*. Retrieved from <http://www.miamiherald.com/news/local/community/miami-dade/article1954514.html>.
- McCrary, J. (2002). Using electoral cycles in police hiring to estimate the effect of police in crime: Comment. *American Economic Review*, 92, 1236-1243.
- McDonald, R. A., Thurston, P. W., & Nelson, M. R. (2000). A Monte Carlo study of missing item methods. *Organizational Research Methods*, 3, 71-92.
- McElroy, J. C., Morrow, P. C., & Wardlow, T. R. (1999). A career stage analysis of police officer work commitment. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 27, 507-516.
- McIntyre, R. W., Stageberg, P., Repine, S. K., & Mernard, D. R. (1990). *Why police officers resign: A look at the turnover of police officers in Vermont*. Montpelier, VT: Vermont Criminal Justice Center.
- McLeod, S. A. (2012). Attribution theory. *Simply Psychology*. Retrieved from <http://www.simplypsychology.org/attribution-theory.html>.
- McNichol, V. (2012, June 15). *Some basic facts on state and local government workers*. Washington, DC: Center on Budget and Policy Priorities. Retrieved from <http://www.cbpp.org/sites/default/files/atoms/files/2-24-11sfp.pdf>.
- McWhinney, J. E. (2009). The demise of the defined-benefit plan. *Investopedia*. Retrieved from <http://www.investopedia.com/articles/retirement/06/demiseofdbplan.asp/>.
- Mendis, B. V. G., & Fasana, S. F. (2015). Relationship of job satisfaction and organizational commitment: A field study in insurance sector. Proceedings of the *Research Symposium of Uva Wellassa University: Technical Session—Entrepreneurship and Management*, 20-22. Badulla, Sri Lanka: Uva Wellassa University.
- Metcalfe, B., & Dick, G. (2001). Exploring organisational commitment in the police: Implications for human resource strategy. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management*, 24, 399-419.
- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 1, 61-89.

- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research and application*. London: Sage Publications.
- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (2004). *TCM employee commitment survey academic users guide*. London, Ontario, Canada: The University of Western Ontario, Department of Psychology.
- Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J., & Smith, C. A. (1993). Commitment to organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualization. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*, 538-551.
- Meyer, J. P., & Herscovitch, L. (2001). Commitment in the workplace: Toward a general model. *Human Resource Management Review, 11*, 299-326.
- Meyer, J. P., Paunonen, S. V., Gellatly, I. R., Goffin, R. D., & Jackson, D. N. (1989). Organizational commitment and job performance: It's the nature of the commitment that counts. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74*, 152-156.
- Meyer, J. P., & Smith, C. A. (2000). HRM practices and organizational commitment: Test of a mediation model. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences, 17*, 319-331.
- Meyer, J. P., Stanley, D. J., Herscovitch, L., & Topolnytsky, L. (2002). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: A meta-analysis of antecedents, correlates, and consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 61*, 20-52.
- Meyer, J. P., Stanley, L. J., & Parfyonova, N. M. (2012). Employee commitment in context: The nature and implication of commitment profiles. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 80*, 1-16.
- Meyers, L. S., Gamst, G., & Guarino, A. J. (2013). *Applied multivariate research: Design and interpretation*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Milkovich, G. T., Newman, J. M., & Milkovich, C. (1999). *Compensation*. Burr Ridge, IL: Irwin/McGraw-Hill.
- Milkovich, G. T., Newman, J., & Gerhart, B. (2017). *Compensation*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Mitchell, D. J. (2012). *Public jobs and political agendas: The public sector in an era of economic stress* (pp. 1-12). Champaign, IL: Labor and Employment Relations Association.

- Mitchell, O. S. (1982). Fringe benefits and labor mobility. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 17, 286-298.
- Mobley, W.H. (1982). Some unanswered questions in turnover with withdrawn research. *The Academy of Management Review*, 7, 111-116.
- Montizaan, R., de Grip, A., Cörvers, F., & Dohmen, T. (2016). The impact of negatively reciprocal inclinations on worker behavior: Evidence from a retrenchment of pension rights. *Management Science*, 62, 668-681.
- Morgeson, F. P., & Hofmann, D. A. (1999). The structure and function of collective constructs: Implications for multilevel research and theory development. *Academy of Management Review*, 24, 249-265.
- Morrison, D. E. (1994). Psychological contracts and change. *Human Resource Management*, 33, 353-372.
- Morrison, E. W., & Robinson, S. L. (1997). When employees feel betrayed: A model of how psychological contract violation develops. *Academy of management review*, 22(1), 226-256.
- Motowidlo, S. J., Borman, W. C., & Schmit, M. J. (1997). A theory of individual differences in task and contextual performance. *Human Performance*, 10(2), 71-83.
- Mowday, R.T., Porter, L.W., & Steers, R.M. (1982). *Employee organization linkages: The psychology of commitment, absenteeism and turnover*. New York, NY: Academic Press.
- Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. (1979). The measurement of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 14, 224-247.
- Munnell, A. H. (2011, August). *What is the average retirement age?* Center for Retirement Research at Boston College. Retrieved from [http://crr.bc.edu/wp-content/uploads/2011/08/IB\\_11-11-508.pdf](http://crr.bc.edu/wp-content/uploads/2011/08/IB_11-11-508.pdf).
- Munnell, A. H., Aubry, J. P., Hurwitz, J., & Quinby, L. (2011, September). *Comparing compensation: State-local versus private sector workers*. Center for State & Local Government Excellence. Retrieved from [http://crr.bc.edu/wp-content/uploads/2011/09/slp\\_20-508.pdf](http://crr.bc.edu/wp-content/uploads/2011/09/slp_20-508.pdf).
- Munnell, A. H., Cahill, K. E., & Jivan, N. A. (2003, September). *How has the shift to 401(k)s affected the retirement age?* Chestnut Hill, MA: Center for Retirement Research at Boston College.



- Munnell, A. H., Golub-Sass, A., Haverstick, K., Soto, M., & Wiles, G. (2008). *Why have some states introduced defined contribution plans?* Boston: Center for Retirement Research at Boston College.
- Munnell, A. H., Golub-Sass, F., Soto, M., & Vitagliano, F. (2006, March). *Why are healthy employers freezing their pensions?* Boston: Center for Retirement Research at Boston College.
- Munnell, A.H., Haverstick, K., & Soto, M. (2007, December). *Why have defined benefit plans survived in the public sector?* Center for Retirement Research at Boston College. Retrieved from [http://crr.bc.edu/wp-content/uploads/2007/12/slp\\_2.pdf](http://crr.bc.edu/wp-content/uploads/2007/12/slp_2.pdf)
- Muthen, L. (1999). Missing data [Msg 2]. Message posted to <http://www.statmodel.com/discussion/messages/22/24.html?1429060790>.
- Muthén, L.K. and Muthén, B.O. (1998-2017). *Mplus user's guide* (8<sup>th</sup> ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Muthén & Muthén.
- Naumann, S. E., Bennett, N., Bies, R. J., & Martin, C. L. (1998). Laid off, but still loyal: The influence of perceived justice and organizational support. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 9, 356-368.
- Nawab, S., & Bhatti, K. K. (2011). Influence of employee compensation on organizational commitment and job satisfaction: A case study of educational sector of Pakistan. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2(8), 25-32.
- Nederhof, A. J. (1985). Methods of coping with social desirability bias: A review. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 15, 263-280.
- Neter, J., Wasserman, W. & Kutner, M. H. (1989). *Applied Linear Regression Models*. Homewood, IL: Irwin.
- Nishii, H. L., David, L. P., & Benjamin, S. (2011). Perception is reality: How employees perceive what motivates HR practices affects their engagement, behavior and performance. *Cornell University ILR School*, 14, 1-7.
- Nishii, L. H., Lepak, D. P., & Schneider, B. (2008). Employee attributions of the “why” of HR practices: Their effects on employee attitudes and behaviors, and customer satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology*, 61, 503-545.
- Novy-Marx, R., & Rauh, J.D. (2011). Policy options for state pension systems and their impact on plan liabilities. *Journal of Pension Economics & Finance*, 10(2), 173-194.

- Nyce, S. A. (2007). Behavioral effects of employer-sponsored retirement plans. *Journal of Pension Economics and Finance*, 6, 251-285.
- Oberfield, Z. (2014). Motivation, change, and stability findings from an urban police department. *The American Review of Public Administration*, 44, 210-232.
- Odom, J. G. (1979, April). *Validation of techniques utilized to maximize survey response rates*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, CA.
- Office of Community Oriented Policing Services. (2011). *The impact of the economic downturn on American police agencies*. Retrieved from [http://www.ncdsv.org/images/COPS\\_ImpactOfTheEconomicDownturnOnAmericanPoliceAgencies\\_10-2011.pdf](http://www.ncdsv.org/images/COPS_ImpactOfTheEconomicDownturnOnAmericanPoliceAgencies_10-2011.pdf).
- Oliff, P., Johnson, N., & Palacios, V. (2012, June 27). States continue to feel recession's impact. *Center on Budget and Policy Priorities*. Retrieved from <http://www.cbpp.org/sites/default/files/atoms/files/2-8-08sfp.pdf>.
- Oligny, M. (1994). Burnout in the police environment. *International Criminal Police Review*, 446, 22-25.
- O'Rourke, N., & Hatcher, L. (2013). *A step-by-step approach to using SAS for factor analysis and structural equation modeling*. Cary, North Carolina: SAS Institute, Inc.
- Orrick, W. D. (2002). Calculating the cost of police turnover. *Police Chief*, 69(10), 100-103.
- Orrick, W. D. (2008). *Recruitment, retention, and turnover of police personnel: Reliable, practical, and effective solutions*. Springfield, IL: Charles C Thomas Publisher.
- Paik, Y., Parboteeah, K. P., & Shim, W. (2007). The relationship between perceived compensation, organizational commitment and job satisfaction: The case of Mexican workers in the Korean Maquiladoras. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 18, 1768-1781.
- Paré, G., & Tremblay, M. (2007). The influence of high-involvement human resources practices, procedural justice, organizational commitment, and citizenship behaviors on information technology professionals' turnover intentions. *Group & Organization Management*, 32, 326-357
- Park, S. M., & Rainey, H. G. (2007). Antecedents, mediators, and consequences of affective, normative, and continuance commitment: Empirical tests of

- commitment effects in federal agencies. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 27, 197-226.
- Parker, O., & Wright, L. (2001). Pay and employee commitment: the missing link—the company that enhances compensation conditions and practices will likely see an improvement in employee commitment. *Ivey Business Journal*, 65, 70-73.
- Parzefall, M., & Coyle-Shapiro, J. (2011). Making sense of psychological contract breach. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 26, 12-27.
- Peat, J. (2001). *Health science research: A handbook of quantitative methods*. London: Sage Publications.
- Pellecchia, M. (2013, December 12). Margate police union threatens city with impasse. Asks for pay raises to increase pension amounts. *Margate News*. Retrieved from <http://www.margatenews.net/8821/58568/a/margate-police-union-threatens-city-with-impasse-ask-for-pay-raises-to-increase>.
- Perry, J. L., & Wise, L. R. (1990). The motivational bases of public service. *Public Administration Review*, 50(3), 367-373.
- Peterson, R. A. (1994). A meta-analysis of Cronbach's coefficient alpha. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 21, 381-391.
- Plan Sponsor Council of America (2012). PSCA's 54<sup>th</sup> annual survey of profit sharing and 401(k) plans. *Pension Benefits*. Retrieved from <https://www.pasca.org/54th-annual-survey-highlights>.
- Porter, L. W., Steers, R. M., Mowday, R. T., & Boulian, P. V. (1974). Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicians. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 59, 603-609.
- Porter, M. E. (1998). *Clusters and the new economics of competition*. Boston: Harvard Business Review.
- Porter, M. E. (1985). *Competitive advantage: Creating and sustaining superior performance*. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Porter, M. E. (1980). *Competitive strategy, techniques for analyzing industries and competitors*. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 879-903.

- Price, J. L., & Mueller, C. W. (1981). A causal model of turnover for nurses. *Academy of Management Journal*, 24, 543-565.
- Raganella, A. J., & White, M. D. (2004). Race, gender, and motivation for becoming a police officer: Implications for building a representative police department. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 32, 501-513.
- Ramoni-Perazzi, J., & Bellante, D. (2007). Do truly comparable public and private sector workers show any compensation differential? *Journal of Labor Research*, 28, 117-133.
- Rastegar, M. (2006). Causal modeling-path analysis: A new trend in research in applied linguistics. *The Linguistics Journal*, 1, 97-107.
- Reaves, B.A. (2011, July). *Census of state and local law enforcement agencies*. U.S. Department of Justice. Retrieved from <https://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/csllea08.pdf>.
- Reilly, T. (2013). Comparing public-versus-private sector pay and benefits examining lifetime compensation. *Public Personnel Management*, 42, 521-544.
- Reio, T. G., Jr. (2016). Nonexperimental research: Strengths, weaknesses and issues of precision. *European Journal of Training and Development*, 40, 676-690.
- Reio, T. G., Jr. (2010). The threat of common method variance bias to theory building. *Human Resource Development Review*, 9, 405-411.
- Reio, T. G., Jr. & Callahan, J. L. (2004). Affect, curiosity, and socialization-related learning: A path analysis of antecedents to job performance. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 19(1), 3-22.
- Repecki, T. (2011, Sep. 6). City declares impasse in contract negotiations with police union. *Cape Coral City Breeze*. Retrieved from <http://www.cape-coral-daily-breeze.com/page/content.detail/id/526524/City-declares-impasse-in-contract-negotiations-with-police-union.html?nav=5011>.
- Ridgeway, G., Lim, N., Gifford, B., Koper, C., Matthies, C. F., Hajiamiri, S., & Huynh, A. K. (2008). *Strategies for improving officer recruitment in the San Diego police department*. Rand Corporation.
- Ricketta, M. (2002). Attitudinal organizational commitment and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23, 257-266.

- Rindfleisch, A., Malter, A. J., Ganesan, S., & Moorman, C. (2008). Cross-sectional versus longitudinal survey research: Concepts, findings, and guidelines. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 45, 261-279.
- Robinson, S. L., & Rousseau, D. M. (1994). Violating the psychological contract: Not the exception but the norm. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 15, 245-259.
- Rogelberg, S. G., & Stanton, J. M. (2007). Understanding and dealing with organizational survey nonresponse. *Organizational Research Methods*, 10, 195–209.
- Rousseau, D. (1989). Psychological and implied contracts in organizations. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 2, 121-139.
- Rusbult, C. E., & Farrell, D. (1983). A longitudinal test of the investment model: The impact on job satisfaction, job commitment, and turnover of variations in rewards, costs, alternatives, and investments. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 68, 429-438.
- Salkind, N. J., & Green, S. B. (2011). *Using SPSS for Windows and Macintosh: Analyzing and understanding data*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Sanchez, M. E., & Morchio, G. (1992). Probing “don’t know” answers: Effects on survey estimates and variable relationships. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 56, 454-474.
- Sanders, B. A. (2008). Using personality traits to predict police officer performance. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 31, 129-147.
- Schelle, C. (2012, June 8). Sarasota police union rejects contract. *Sarasota Patch*. Retrieved from <http://patch.com/florida/sarasota/sarasota-police-union-rejects-contract-offer>.
- Schmitt, J. (2010). *The wage penalty for state and local government employees*. Washington, DC: Center for Economic and Policy Research.
- Schreiber, J. B., Nora, A., Stage, F. K., Barlow, E. A., & King, J. (2006). Reporting structural equation modeling and confirmatory factor analysis results: A review. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 99(6), 323-338.
- Schwarz, N., Strack, F., Hippler, H. J., & Bishop, G. (1991). The impact of administration mode on response effects in survey measurement. *Applied Cognitive Psychology*, 5, 193-212.
- Schyns, B., Torka, N., & Gössling, T. (2007). Turnover intention and preparedness for change: Exploring leader-member exchange and occupational self-efficacy as

antecedents of two employability predictors. *Career Development International*, 12, 660-679.

- Settoon, R. P., Bennett, N., & Liden, R. C. (1996). Social exchange in organizations: Perceived organizational support, leader–member exchange, and employee reciprocity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81, 219-227.
- Shapiro, G.M. (2008). Survey design. In P. J. Lavrakas (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of survey research methods*. (Vol. 2). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Shih, T. H., & Fan, X. (2008). Comparing response rates from web and mail surveys: A meta-analysis. *Field Methods*, 20, 249-271.
- Shore, L. M., Barksdale, K. & Shore, T. H. (1995). Managerial perceptions of employee commitment to the organization. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 38, 1593-1615.
- Smith, S. P. (1976). Pay differentials between federal government and private sector workers. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, 29(2), 179-197.
- Snell, R. (2011). *State retirement legislation in 2010 and 2011*. Washington, DC: National Conference of State Legislatures.
- Society for Human Resource Management. (2009). *SHRM poll: Financial challenges to the U.S. and global economy and their impact on organizations*. Retrieved from [http://www.shrm.org/Research/SurveyFindings/Articles/Documents/w031109%20-%20Economy%20%20Final\\_v5.pdf](http://www.shrm.org/Research/SurveyFindings/Articles/Documents/w031109%20-%20Economy%20%20Final_v5.pdf).
- Solinger, O. N., van Olffen, W., & Roe, R. A. (2008). Beyond the three component model of organizational commitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93, 70–83.
- Stage, F. K., Carter, H. C., & Nora, A. (2004). Path analysis: An introduction and analysis of a decade of research. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 98, 5-13.
- Staw, B. M. (1980). The consequences of turnover. *Journal of Occupational Behavior*, 1, 253-273.
- Stearns, T. C. (2015). The failed system: Understanding New Jersey's pension crisis and suggesting practical solutions. *Seton Hall Legislature*, 40, 353-382.
- Steers, R. M., Mowday, R. T., & Porter, L. W. (1980). Employee turnover and post decision accommodation processes. In L. Cummings & B. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (Vol. 3, pp. 235-281). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

- Thayer-Hart, N., Dykema, J., Elver, K., Schaeffer, N. C., & Stevenson, J. (2010). *Survey fundamentals: A guide to designing and implementing surveys*. Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin Press.
- Thompson, J., & Schmitt, J. (2010). *The wage penalty for state and local government employees in New England*. Center for Economic and Policy Research and the Political Economy Research Institute at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst.
- Tourangeau, R., Rips, L. J., & Rasinski, K. (2000). *The psychology of survey response*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Town of Jupiter Island (2013). Audited financial statements and supplementary financial information. Retrieved from <http://townofjupiterisland.com/wp-content/uploads/2014/03/2013-Jupiter-Island-Final.pdf>.
- Tremblay, M., Cloutier, J., Simard, G., Chênevert, D., & Vandenberghe, C. (2010). The role of HRM practices, procedural justice, organizational support and trust in organizational commitment and in-role and extra-role performance. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21(3), 405-433.
- UNICEF. (1995). *Monitoring progress toward the goals of the world summit for children: A practical handbook for multiple-indicator surveys*. New York, NY: UNICEF.
- U.S. Department of Health & Human Service. (2009). *Code of federal regulations title 45, part 46*. Retrieved from <https://www.hhs.gov/ohrp/regulations-and-policy/regulations/45-cfr-46/index.html>.
- Vance, R. J. (2006). *Employee engagement and commitment: A guide to understanding, measuring and increasing engagement in your organization*. Alexandria, VA: SHRM Foundation.
- Van Teijlingen, E., & Hundley, V. (2002). The importance of pilot studies. *Nursing Standard*, 16(40), 33-36.
- Varela, J. G., Boccaccini, M. T., Scogin, F., Stump, J., & Caputo, A. (2004). Personality testing in law enforcement employment settings: A metaanalytic review. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 31, 649-675.
- Wareham, J., Smith, B. W., & Lambert, E. G. (2015). Rates and patterns of law enforcement turnover: A research note. *Criminal Justice Policy Review*, 26, 345-370.

- Way, S. A. (2002). High performance work systems and intermediate indicators of firm performance within the U.S. small business sector. *Journal of Management*, 28, 765-785.
- Weigold, A., Weigold, I. K., & Russell, E. J. (2013). Examination of the equivalence of self-report survey-based paper-and-pencil and internet data collection methods. *Psychological Methods*, 18, 5370.
- Weiner, B. (1985). An attributional theory of achievement motivation and emotion. *Psychological Review*, 92, 548-573.
- Weiner, B., Graham, S., & Chandler, C. (1982). Pity, anger, and guilt: An attributional analysis. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 8, 226-232.
- Weiner, B., Russell, D., & Lerman, D. (1979). The cognition–emotion process in achievement-related contexts. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 37, 1211-1220.
- West, B. J., Patera, J. L., & Carsten, M. K. (2009). Team level positivity: Investigating positive psychological capacities and team level outcomes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 30, 249-267.
- Wetland, D. (2003). The strategic training of employees model: Balancing organizational constraints and training content. *S.A.M Advanced Management Journal*, 68, 56-63.
- Wheeler, H. N., & McClendon, J. A. (1991). The individual decision to unionize. *The State of the Unions*, 47–83. Madison, WI: IRRRA.
- Whelan, C. T., Russell, H., & Maître, B. (2016). Economic stress and the great recession in Ireland: Polarization, individualization or middle class squeeze? *Social Indicators Research*, 126, 503-526.
- White, M. D., Cooper, J. A., Saunders, J., & Raganella, A. J. (2010). Motivations for becoming a police officer: Re-assessing officer attitudes and job satisfaction after six years on the street. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 38, 520-530.
- Whitener, E. M. (2001). Do high commitment human resource practices affect employee commitment? A cross-level analysis using hierarchical linear modeling. *Journal of Management*. 27(5), 515-535.
- Williams, M. L., & Dreher, G. F. (1992). Compensation system attributes and applicant pool characteristics. *Academy of Management Journal*, 35, 571-595.



- Williams, M. L., & MacDermid, S. M. (1994). Linkages between employee benefits and attitudinal and behavioral outcomes: A research review and agenda. *Human Resource Management Review*, 4, 131-160.
- Wilson, J. M., Dalton, C. S., & Grammich, C.A. (2010). *Police recruitment and retention for the new millennium*. California: RAND Corporation.
- Wolf, R., Korosec, R., & Goltz, J. (2008). An analysis of factors affecting the implementation of small municipal police agencies: An open-systems approach. *American Journal of Criminal Justice*, 33, 177-192.
- Wood, D. S. (2002). Explanations of employment turnover among Alaska village public safety officers. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 30, 197-215.
- Wright, P. M., Gardner, T. M., Moynihan, L. M., & Allen, M. R. (2004). The relationship between HR practices and firm performance: Examining causal order. *Personnel Psychology*, 58, 409-446.
- Wright, R., Powell, M. B., & Ridge, D. (2006). Child abuse investigation: An in-depth analysis of how police officers perceive and cope with daily work challenges. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 29, 498-512.
- Xu, L., & Bassham, L. S. (2010). Reexamination of Factor Structure and Psychometric Properties of the Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment. *North American Journal of Psychology*, 12, 297-311.
- Yearwood, D. L. (2003). Recruitment and retention study series: Sworn police personnel. Raleigh, NC: *North Carolina Criminal Justice Education & Training Standards Commission*.
- Youndt, M.A. (2000, August). *Human resource configurations and value creation: The mediating role of intellectual capital*. Paper presented to the 2000 Academy of Management Conference, Toronto, Canada.
- Zahner, L. (2010, September 9). Vero Beach city leaders at impasse with police union. *VeroNews.com*. Retrieved from [http://www.veronews.com/news/vero\\_beach/government/vero-beach-city-leaders-at-impasse-with-police-union/article\\_511d4a50-0423-50bb-ae58-9237eca36440.html](http://www.veronews.com/news/vero_beach/government/vero-beach-city-leaders-at-impasse-with-police-union/article_511d4a50-0423-50bb-ae58-9237eca36440.html).
- Zikic, J., & Klehe, U. C. (2006). Job loss as a blessing in disguise: The role of career exploration and career planning in predicting reemployment quality. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 69, 391-409.

**Questionnaire: Employee Attribution to HR Practices**

---

**Start of Block: Section I**

Thank you for choosing to complete this survey. It is entirely voluntary. Its main focus is on pension reform and how the 2007-2009 post-recession HR changes affected law enforcement officers total compensation packages in respect of their organizational commitment, turnover intentions and extra-role/ancillary duty performance. You will be providing information that will be analyzed and made available to decision makers such as police and city executives, unions, commissioners and HR practitioners.

The survey takes approximately 15 minutes to complete. Please answer honestly. It is administered through a secure website operated by Florida International University. Your agency was randomly selected to participate and your responses are private. The data will be reported as a compilation of LEO responses from randomly selected agencies across Florida and these agency names will be kept confidential.

If you need clarification when completing the questionnaire or you wish to speak to me about the study, please call me at 561-601-0284. Thank for your participation and please make every effort to submit by September 19, 2018.

---

Q2 What type of pension plan do you currently have?

- Defined Benefit Plan offered by your city/village/town (1)
  - 401a or other similar Defined Contribution Plan (2)
  - Florida Retirement System (FRS) (3)
  - Other: (4) \_\_\_\_\_
- 

Q3 Are various sworn members of your agency in different pension plans? (different groups of officers may be in different plans based on date of hire or other factors)

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

*Skip To: End of Block If Are various sworn members of your agency in different pension plans? (different groups of officer... = No*

Q4 If you answered yes to having different pension plans in your agency, would you consider your plan to be:

- Inferior to the other plan(s) in your agency (1)
- About the same (2)
- Superior to the other plan(s) in your agency (3)

**End of Block: Section I**

---

**Start of Block: Section II**

Q5 Are you aware of any changes to your Agency's pension plan offerings in the last 10 years (whether or not you were employed here at the time)?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

*Skip To: Q9 If Are you aware of any changes to your Agency's pension plan offerings in the last 10 years (whethe... = No*

Q6 If you answered yes to being aware of changes to your Agency's pension plan offerings in the last 10 years, please indicate if you believe that your compensation package was affected by the change(s).

- Yes (1)
  - Maybe (2)
  - No (3)
-

Q7 If you answered yes to being aware of changes to your Agency's pension plan offerings in the last 10 years, how do you think these changes are **CURRENTLY** affecting you financially?

- Extremely positively (1)
  - Somewhat positively (2)
  - Neither negatively nor positively (3)
  - Somewhat negatively (4)
  - Extremely negatively (5)
- 

Q8 If you answered yes to being aware of changes to your Agency's pension plan offerings in the last 10 years, how do you think these changes will affect you financially **IN THE LONG TERM?**

- Extremely positively (1)
  - Somewhat positively (2)
  - Neither negatively nor positively (3)
  - Somewhat negatively (4)
  - Extremely negatively (5)
- 

Q9 Using one word, please describe your feelings about your current pension benefits

---

Q10 My company provides employees the **RETIREMENT BENEFITS** plan that it does:

	Not at all (1)	Very little (2)	Somewhat (3)	Quite a bit (4)	To a great extent (5)
a. in order to help employees deliver quality service to customers (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. so that employees will feel valued and respected (to promote employee well-being) (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. in response to economic pressures that are external to the organization (e.g. the 2007-2009 recession) (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. to try to keep costs down (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e. in order to get the most work out of employees (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q11 My company provides employees the **HEALTH INSURANCE** benefits that it does:

	Not at all (1)	Very little (2)	Somewhat (3)	Quite a bit (4)	To a great extent (5)
a. in order to help employees deliver quality service to customers (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. so that employees will feel valued and respected (to promote employee well-being) (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. in response to economic pressures that are external to the organization (e.g. the 2007-2009 recession) (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. to try to keep costs down (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e. in order to get the most work out of employees (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q12 My company **PAYS** its employees what it does:

	Not at all (1)	Very little (2)	Somewhat (3)	Quite a bit (4)	To a great extent (5)
a. in order to help employees deliver quality service to customers (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. so that employees will feel valued and respected (to promote employee well-being) (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. in response to economic pressures that are external to the organization (e.g. the 2007-2009 recession) (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. to try to keep costs down (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e. in order to get the most work out of employees (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q13 Listed below is a series of statements that represent feelings that individuals might have about their organization. With respect to your own feelings about the city, town or Village for which you are **NOW** working, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by selecting a response using the scale below.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Somewhat disagree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly agree (7)
a. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. I owe a great deal to my organization. (18)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it. (17)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
f. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



g. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (5)

h. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now. (6)

i. This organization deserves my loyalty. (16)

j. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization. (7)

k. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization. (8)

l. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own. (9)

m. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now. (15)

n. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere. (10)

o. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization. (11)

p. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives. (12)

q. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. (13)

r. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now (14)

Q14 Please choose from the following responses:

	Strongly disagree (1)	Somewhat disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Somewhat agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
a. If I have my own way, I will be working for this organization one year from now. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. I frequently think of quitting my job (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. I am planning to search for a new job during the next 12 months (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q15 Below are some statements regarding how you normally act in your job using the last 6 months to 1 year of work as a reference point. If any of the questions does not apply to your actions during this time, consider how you would normally act in your current job. 'Organization' refers to the institution you currently work for. When you see the expression 'other workers', consider all the workers, regardless of their position in the organization. Please indicate the best answer to each of the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Some what disagree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Some what agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly agree (7)
a. When something is not right at work, I don't complain because I am afraid that others won't agree with me (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. Usually, I take the initiative to give constructive feedback in order to improve the performance of other workers (subordinates, colleagues, supervisor or workgroups) (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. In the event the organization did not provide the training that I consider necessary to perform my duties effectively, I would seek information from other sources (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. I'm still able to perform my duties effectively when I'm working under pressure (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

e. As soon as I arrive at work, I set aside all my personal problems, so that my performance is not harmed (5)

f. Usually, I dedicate less effort to work when performing a task in conjunction with other people (6)

g. I am always willing to assist other workers from the organization, even when I don't have much time available (7)

h. Usually, I also perform tasks that are not related to my specific duties (8)

i. It's really difficult for me to miss work, even when I'm feeling sick (9)

j. Frequently, I arrive late at work (10)

k. I would never adopt actions that could harm the well-being of the other workers (11)

l. When I think that the goals of the organization conflict with my personal goals, my dedication to work decreases (12)

m. I take my job really seriously, so I always comply with the rules and procedures imposed by my supervisor or by the organization) even when no one is around (13)

n. My communication skills are so good that I'm always able to capture everyone's attention (14)

o. Communication inside organizations, even in work-groups, is fundamental so that people can perform their tasks effectively (15)

p. When I write a message to other workers I feel a certain difficulty in expressing what I'm thinking (16)

q. When someone has a different opinion from mine, I usually convince them that my opinion is the best (17)

End of Block: Section II

---

Start of Block: Section III

Q16 Gender

Male (1)

Female (2)

---

Q17 Marital Status

Single (never married) (1)

Married/Domestic Partnership (2)

Separated (3)

Divorced (4)

Widowed (5)

---

Q18 What is your highest level of education?

- High school graduate (1)
  - Some college but no degree (2)
  - Associate degree in college (2-year) (3)
  - Bachelor's degree in college (4-year) (4)
  - Some post graduate but no degree (5)
  - Post graduate degree (6)
- 

Q19 Please indicate your current annual base pay.

- Less than \$40,000 (1)
  - \$40,000 to \$49,999 (2)
  - \$50,000 to \$59,999 (3)
  - \$60,000 to \$69,999 (4)
  - \$70,000 to \$79,999 (5)
  - \$80,000 to \$89,999 (6)
  - \$90,000 to \$99,999 (7)
  - \$100,000 or more (8)
-



Q20 Please indicate your age?

18 to 29 years (1)

30 to 39 years (2)

40 to 49 years (3)

50 years & over (4)

---

Q21 Position in Organization

Police Officer/Corporal or equivalent (1)

Police Sergeant (2)

Police Lieutenant (3)

Police Captain (4)

Police Chief/Deputy Chief/Assistant Chief or any other exempt position above the rank of Captain (5)

Other (6) \_\_\_\_\_

---

Q22 Total number of years as a sworn law enforcement officer (with this organization and any others).

\_\_\_\_\_

---

Q23 Is your position?

Hourly (1)

Exempt (2)

---

Q24 Years of continuous service with this organization as a sworn law enforcement officer

- 5 years or fewer (1)
- Over 5 years to 10 years (2)
- Over 10 years to 15 years (3)
- Over 15 years to 20 years (4)
- More than 20 years (5)

---

Q25 Is your position in a bargaining unit?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

**End of Block: Section III**

---

Sample Frame

APPENDIX B

	<b>POLICE DEPARTMENTS - FLORIDA</b>	<b>Region</b>
1.	<u>Altamonte Springs Police Dept</u>	7
2.	<u>Apopka Police Department</u>	7
3.	<u>Arcadia Police Department</u>	8
4.	<u>Atlantic Beach Police Department</u>	5
5.	<u>Auburndale Police Department</u>	8
6.	<u>Aventura Police Department</u>	14
7.	<u>Avon Park Police Department</u>	8
8.	<u>Bartow Police Department</u>	8
9.	<u>Bay Harbor Islands Police Dept</u>	14
10.	<u>Boca Raton Police Department</u>	12
11.	<u>Boynton Beach Police Department</u>	12
12.	<u>Bradenton Police Department</u>	9
13.	<u>Brooksville Police Department</u>	6
14.	<u>Cape Coral Police Department</u>	10
15.	<u>Casselberry Police Department</u>	7
16.	<u>Clearwater Police Department</u>	9
17.	<u>Clermont Police Department</u>	7
18.	<u>Cocoa Beach Police Department</u>	7
19.	<u>Cocoa Police Department</u>	7
20.	<u>Coral Gables Police Department</u>	14
21.	<u>Coral Springs Police Department</u>	13
22.	<u>Crestview Police Department</u>	1
23.	<u>Dade City Police Department</u>	9
24.	<u>Davie Police Department</u>	13
25.	<u>Daytona Beach Police Department</u>	7
26.	<u>Deland Police Department</u>	7
27.	<u>Delray Beach Police Department</u>	12
28.	<u>Edgewater Police Department</u>	7
29.	<u>Eustis Police Department</u>	7
30.	<u>Fernandina Beach Police Dept</u>	5
31.	<u>Fort Lauderdale Police Department</u>	13
32.	<u>Fort Myers Police Department</u>	10
33.	<u>Fort Pierce Police Department</u>	11
34.	<u>Fort Walton Beach Police Dept</u>	1
35.	<u>Gainesville Police Department</u>	4
36.	<u>Golden Beach Police Department</u>	14
37.	<u>Green Cove Springs Police Dept</u>	5
38.	<u>Groveland Police Department</u>	7

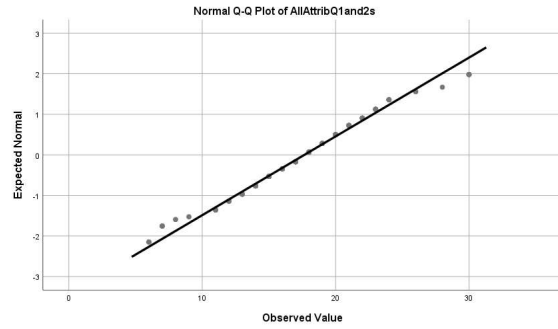
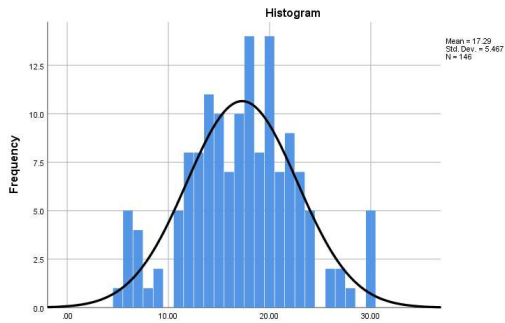
	<b>POLICE DEPARTMENTS - FLORIDA</b>	<b>Region</b>
39.	<u>Gulf Breeze Police Department</u>	1
40.	<u>Gulfport Police Department</u>	9
41.	<u>Haines City Police Department</u>	8
42.	<u>Hallandale Beach Police Dept</u>	13
43.	<u>Hialeah Gardens Police Dept</u>	14
44.	<u>Hialeah Police Department</u>	14
45.	<u>Holly Hill Police Department</u>	7
46.	<u>Hollywood Police Department</u>	13
47.	<u>Holmes Beach Police Department</u>	9
48.	<u>Homestead Police Department</u>	14
49.	<u>Indian Harbour Beach Police Dept</u>	7
50.	<u>Indian River Shores Public Safety Dept</u>	11
51.	<u>Jacksonville Beach Police Dept</u>	5
52.	<u>Jupiter Island Public Safety Department</u>	11
53.	<u>Jupiter Police Department</u>	12
54.	<u>Key Biscayne Police Department</u>	14
55.	<u>Key West Police Department</u>	14
56.	<u>Kissimmee Police Department</u>	7
57.	<u>Lady Lake Police Department</u>	7
58.	<u>Lake City Police Department</u>	4
59.	<u>Lake Mary Police Department</u>	7
60.	<u>Lake Wales Police Department</u>	8
61.	<u>Lakeland Police Department</u>	8
62.	<u>Lantana Police Department</u>	12
63.	<u>Largo Police Department</u>	9
64.	<u>Lauderhill Police Department</u>	13
65.	<u>Leesburg Police Department</u>	7
66.	<u>Lighthouse Point Police Dept</u>	13
67.	<u>Longboat Key Police Department</u>	9
68.	<u>Longwood Police Department</u>	7
69.	<u>Lynn Haven Police Department</u>	2
70.	<u>Maitland Police Department</u>	7
71.	<u>Marco Island Police Department</u>	10
72.	<u>Marianna Police Department</u>	2
73.	<u>Medley Police Department</u>	14
74.	<u>Melbourne Police Department</u>	7
75.	<u>Miami Beach Police Department</u>	14
76.	<u>Miami Police Department</u>	14
77.	<u>Miami Shores Police Department</u>	14
78.	<u>Miami Springs Police Department</u>	14

	<b>POLICE DEPARTMENTS - FLORIDA</b>	<b>Region</b>
79.	<u>Milton Police Department</u>	1
80.	<u>Miramar Police Department</u>	13
81.	<u>Mount Dora Police Department</u>	7
82.	<u>Naples Police Department</u>	10
83.	<u>Neptune Beach Police Department</u>	5
84.	<u>New Port Richey Police Dept</u>	9
85.	<u>New Smyrna Beach Police Dept</u>	7
86.	<u>North Miami Beach Police Dept</u>	14
87.	<u>North Miami Police Department</u>	14
88.	<u>North Palm Beach Police Dept</u>	12
89.	<u>Ocala Police Department</u>	6
90.	<u>Ocoee Police Department</u>	7
91.	<u>Okeechobee Police Department</u>	11
92.	<u>Orange Park Police Department</u>	5
93.	<u>Orlando Police Department</u>	7
94.	<u>Ormond Beach Police Department</u>	7
95.	<u>Oviedo Police Department</u>	7
96.	<u>Palatka Police Department</u>	5
97.	<u>Palm Bay Police Department</u>	7
98.	<u>Palm Beach Gardens Police Dept</u>	12
99.	<u>Palm Beach Police Department</u>	12
100.	<u>Palmetto Police Department</u>	9
101.	<u>Panama City Beach Police Dept</u>	2
102.	<u>Panama City Police Department</u>	2
103.	<u>Pembroke Pines Police Department</u>	13
104.	<u>Perry Police Department</u>	4
105.	<u>Pinellas Park Police Department</u>	9
106.	<u>Plant City Police Department</u>	9
107.	<u>Plantation Police Department</u>	13
108.	<u>Port Orange Police Department</u>	7
109.	<u>Port St. Lucie Police Department</u>	11
110.	<u>Punta Gorda Police Department</u>	10
111.	<u>Quincy Police Department</u>	3
112.	<u>Rivera Beach Police Department</u>	12
113.	<u>Rockledge Police Department</u>	7
114.	<u>Sanford Police Department</u>	7
115.	<u>Sanibel Police Department</u>	10
116.	<u>Sarasota Police Department</u>	10
117.	<u>Satellite Beach Police Department</u>	7
118.	<u>Sebastian Police Department</u>	11

	<b>POLICE DEPARTMENTS - FLORIDA</b>	<b>Region</b>
119.	<u>South Miami Police Department</u>	14
120.	<u>St. Augustine Police Department</u>	5
121.	<u>St. Cloud Police Department</u>	7
122.	<u>St. Petersburg Police Dept</u>	9
123.	<u>Starke Police Department</u>	4
124.	<u>Sunrise Police Department</u>	13
125.	<u>Surfside Police Department</u>	14
126.	<u>Sweetwater Police Department</u>	14
127.	<u>Tallahassee Police Department</u>	3
128.	<u>Tampa Police Department</u>	9
129.	<u>Tarpon Springs Police Department</u>	9
130.	<u>Tavares Police Department</u>	7
131.	<u>Temple Terrace Police Department</u>	9
132.	<u>Tequesta Police Department</u>	12
133.	<u>Titusville Police Department</u>	7
134.	<u>Vero Beach Police Department</u>	11
135.	<u>West Melbourne Police Department</u>	7
136.	<u>West Palm Beach Police Dept</u>	12
137.	<u>Wilton Manors Police Department</u>	14
138.	<u>Winter Garden Police Department</u>	7
139.	<u>Winter Haven Police Department</u>	8
140.	<u>Winter Park Police Department</u>	7
141.	<u>Winter Springs Police Department</u>	7

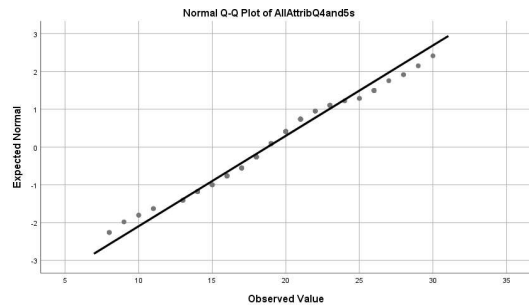
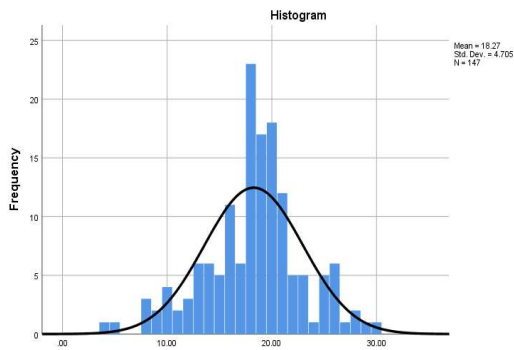
## Histograms and Q-Q Plots: Assumption of Normality

### HR Internal Attribution: Quality and Employee Enhancement



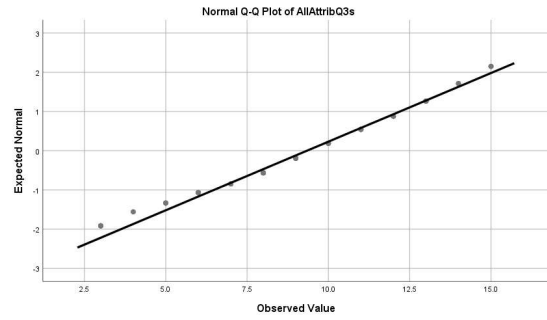
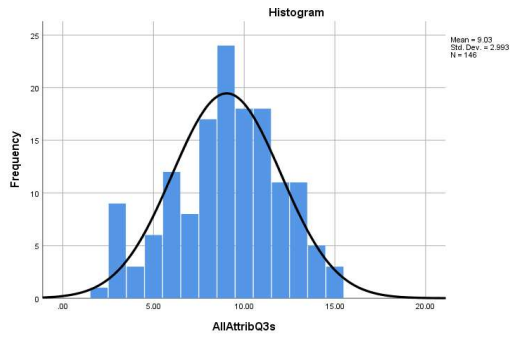
Skewness	.007
Kurtosis	.005

### HR Internal Attribution: Cost and Employee Exploitation



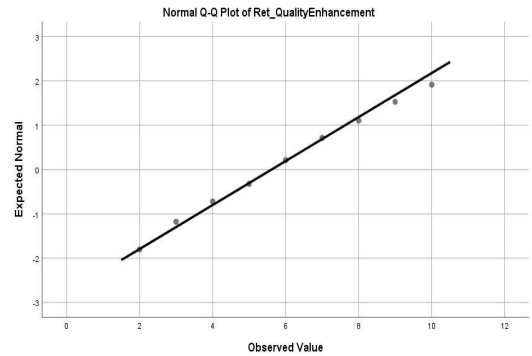
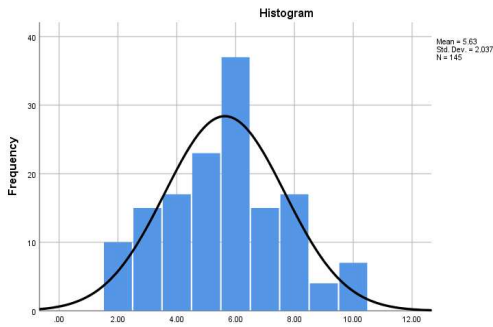
Skewness	-.300
Kurtosis	.576

## HR External Attribution: Economic Pressure



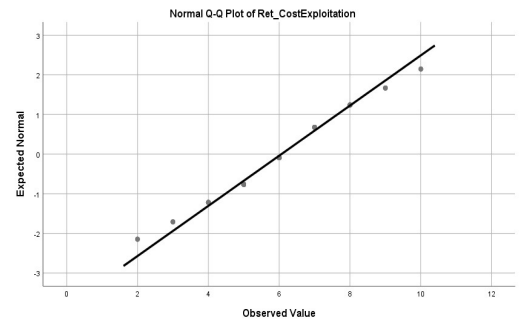
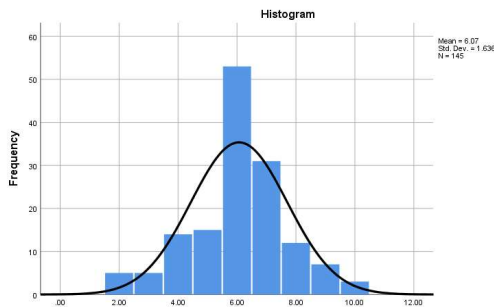
Skewness	-.300
Kurtosis	-.396

## HR Internal Attribution (Retirement): Quality and Employee Enhancement



Skewness	.138
Kurtosis	-.443

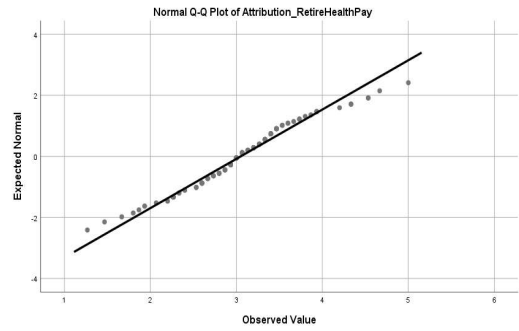
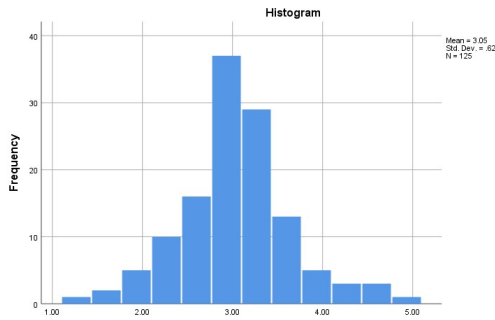
## HR External Attribution (Retirement): Cost and Employee Exploitation



Skewness	-.247
Kurtosis	.489

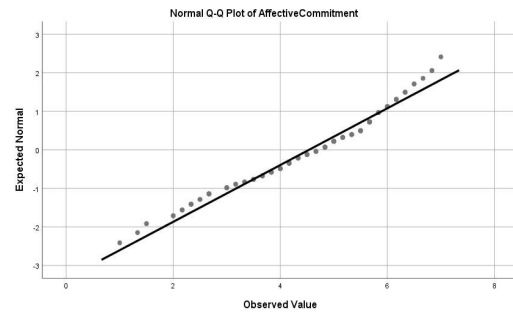
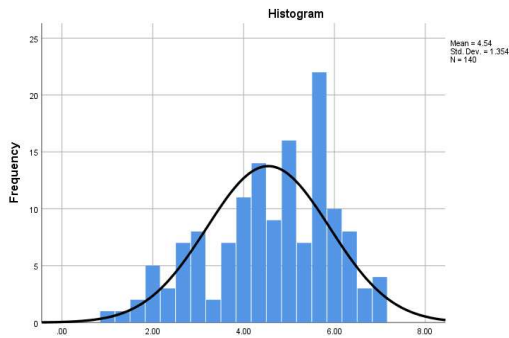


## Attribution: Retirement Plan/HealthInsurance/Pay



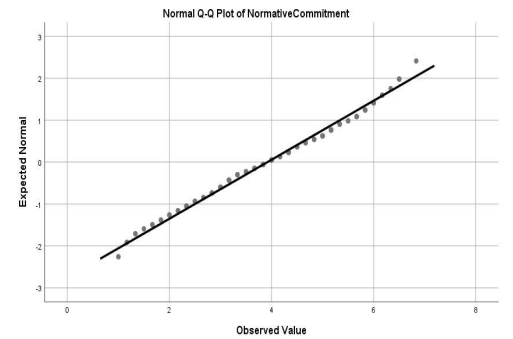
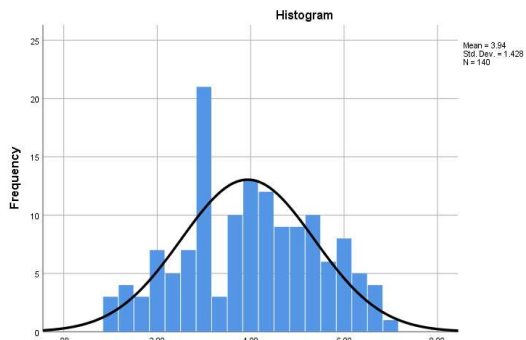
Skewness	.120
Kurtosis	.932

## AffectiveCommitment



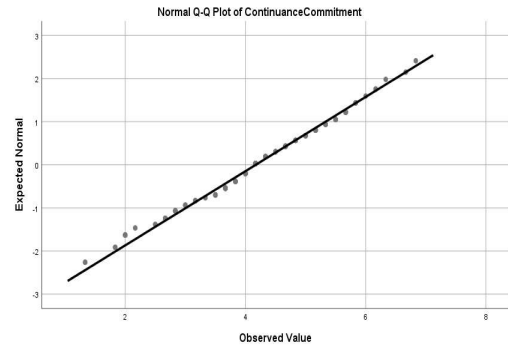
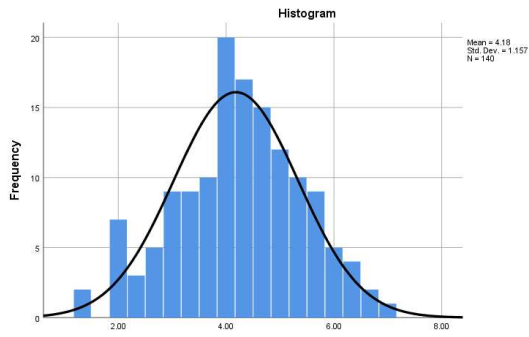
Skewness	-.474
Kurtosis	-.474

## NormativeCommitment



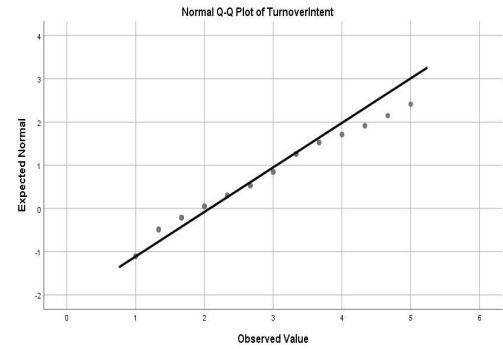
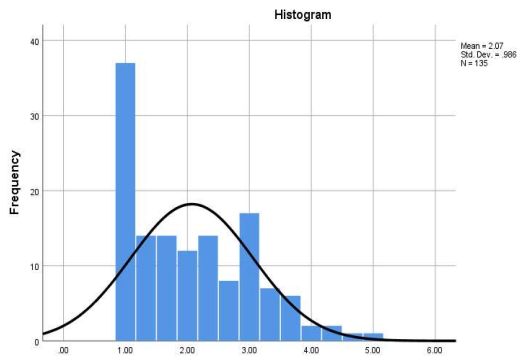
Skewness	-.055
Kurtosis	-.728

## ContinuanceCommitment



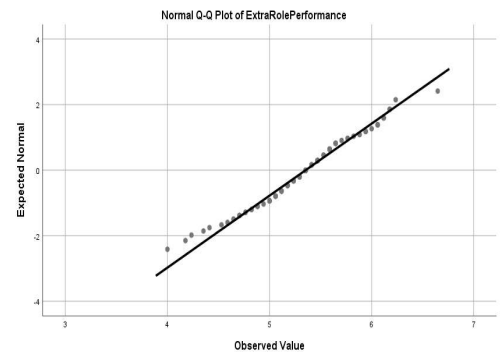
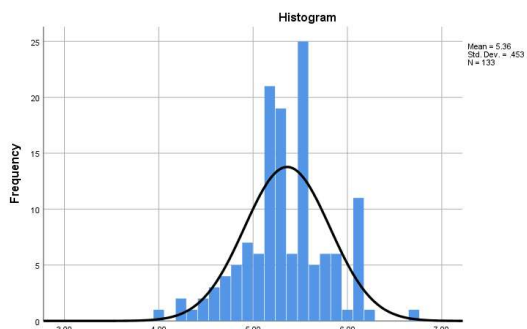
Skewness	-.170
Kurtosis	-.197

## TurnoverIntent



Skewness	.647
Kurtosis	-.407

## ExtraRolePerformance



Skewness	-.177
Kurtosis	.554

## VITA

MERLENE VERONA REID

Born, Kingston, Jamaica

- 1980-1983 B.A., Social Sciences, Language & Literature  
University of the West Indies  
Kingston, Jamaica
- 1996-1998 M.S., Human Resource Development  
University of the West Indies  
Kingston, Jamaica
- 1998-2003 Adjunct Faculty  
University of the West Indies  
Kingston, Jamaica
- 2006-2018 HR Director, Village of Tequesta
- 2012-2019 Doctorate, Adult Education and Human Resource Development  
Florida International University  
Miami, Florida
- 2003-present Member, Society of HR Managers,
- 2006-present Member, Society of HR Managers, Palm Beach County Chapter
- 2018-Present Assistant Village Manager/HR Director, Village of Tequesta

## PUBLICATIONS AND PRESENTATIONS

Reid, M.V., (2014, February). Hiring for fit. *HR News*, 16-17.

Reid, M.V., (2014 March). RESPECT: find out what it means. *HR News*, 8-9.

Reid, M.V., (2014, June). Perspective transformation theory and the Donald Woods experience: From racist to anti-apartheid activist. Paper presented at the 2014 annual South Florida Education Research Conference (SFERC). Miami, FL.