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Forecasting Attrition by AFSC for the United States Air Force

Trey S. Pujats

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FORECASTING ATTRITION BY AFSC
FOR THE
UNITED STATES AIR FORCE

THESIS

Presented to the Faculty

Department of Operational Sciences
Graduate School of Engineering and Management
Air Force Institute of Technology
Air University
Air Education and Training Command

in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
Degree of Master of Science in Operations Research

Trey S Pujats, B.S.
2nd Lieutenant, USAF

March 26, 2020

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FORECASTING ATTRITION BY AFSC
FOR THE
UNITED STATES AIR FORCE

THESIS

Trey S Pujats, B.S.
2nd Lieutenant, USAF

Committee Membership:

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Member
Abstract

Retention and personnel management is a challenge for every organization, particularly the military due to its hierarchical structure and barriers to entry. Talent must be developed and retained to become leaders, beginning at the lowest level in the Air Force. The Air Force faces a retention problem unlike most organizations that requires a unique perspective and tailored solution to each Air Force Specialty Code (AFSC). There exists previous efforts to predict attrition rates in the Air Force based on economic factors. This study expands upon the economic factors and tailors the predictor variables of attrition based on the AFSC. The current research hypothesizes that AFSC attrition has a relationship with comparable civilian jobs and their employment rates. The methodology identifies the key factors influencing attrition, creates forecasts for the variables, and reintroduces the forecasts of the variables into the original regression to provide forecasts of expected attrition along with confidence regions. This study finds that seven of the eight AFSCs show a relationship with comparable employment in the civilian sector. More insights show that AFSCs have different predictor variables and should be modelled separately to capture the trends for each specific AFSC. These insights to leadership will aid in decisions for AFSC retention bonuses as well as informing recruitment services of critically manned career fields.
To my family and friends that have supported me throughout this entire process.
Especially my parents and grandparents who have encouraged me every step of the way.
Acknowledgements

I would like to express my gratitude to my faculty research advisor, Raymond Hill, Ph.D., for all of his guidance, patience and assistance.

I would like to thank all of my peers and friends that have assisted me through the coursework and analysis needed for this analysis.

Trey S Pujats
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I. Introduction

1.1 Background

Retention is a concern for every company, whether it is in the private sector or public sector. Conditions within the company as well as external factors outside of the company could sway an individual to search and accept another job. This is a serious concern in military personnel management. The question of interest in this research is determining which factors may have such an impact and how to use this so military leadership may determine if there exists any solution to maintain a balance between retention and voluntary separation in the military.

There may be many reasons to leave the military to include a positive economic outlook enhancing post-military job prospects, social factors that do not coincide with the military lifestyle, or personal characteristics that impact one’s decision to serve. Despite these individual reasons to leave, the military must maintain a certain readiness with the overall number of airmen it employs. These manning levels are dictated by law to the military. The actual manning levels, which adhere to the congressional mandates, are affected by the number of new military assessed each year and the number of separations each year. Thus, the challenges of meeting these defined manning levels drives the need for an in depth analysis of the current force and the potential risks that may affect retention and the readiness of the Air Force.
The line commissioned officer component of the military has a unique retention issue since each officer that joins the military must begin their career as a second lieutenant and progress through the ranks. Officers cannot bypass ranks, regardless of prior experience or qualifications. This means the military must “grow their own” leaders. This puts greater stress on retention in the military, potentially leaving leadership positions unfilled or filling the positions with under qualified officers in the future. Other than the number of officers needed to fill the positions, attracting the best officers is crucial to the retention issue.

As with any company, private or public, the Air Force wants the most qualified and productive leaders, so insight in how to retain this talent needs specific attention in retention analysis. However, talent is extremely qualitative in terms of categorizing an officer, so developing a characterization of talent based on awards, education, and productivity is beneficial to ensure the Air Force understands retention trends of these individuals and formulates useful incentives to keep these officers.

Beyond the overarching retention problems in the Air Force, certain career fields are at a greater risk for lower retention rates due to the technical nature of these careers and external influence from outside the military. The private sector affects military retention as it can offer a different life style than found in the military and greater flexibility in their payroll. Certain indicators in the private sector, specific to each career field, such as job openings in the airlines affecting pilots, are hypothesized to influence actions leading to decisions to leave the military. This should hold true for all career fields and identifying these trends in the private sector could allow the Air Force to preemptively incentivize officers to remain in the military.

To best examine what helps or hurts retention, analyses must explore the possible influences on an individual’s job satisfaction and an ultimate decision to leave or stay in the military. Political, social, and economic circumstances may potentially
influence this decision and each could be a potential indicator for the Air Force to recruit and train new officers or offer incentives to retain current officers. The focus in this work is identifying how changes of employment in the civilian sector can predict and forecast upcoming retention rates for officers in the Air Force.

1.2 Overview

The Air Force recognizes the potential long term problems associated with low retention rates and the factors that influence an officer’s decision to stay or leave the military. Studies have used logistic regression techniques to predict the potential risk of a member leaving the military and the retention rate of the entire force. These past studies used actual retention data as the response with internal personnel data and external economic data as predictor variables. The goal of this current research is to examine these factors but add employment trends to improve the prediction power of the overall retention rates for each AFSC. This analysis focuses on political aspects as well as specific job employment numbers in the civilian sector that may impact their decision to remain in the military.

Each AFSC is believed to have different factors that affect the probability of an individual’s likelihood of retention such as employment in the civilian sector. Regression techniques model the influence that employment for comparable civilian jobs has on certain AFSCs. Forecasting techniques such as Box-Jenkins and ordinary least squares regression are used to predict and ultimately forecast manning levels for certain officer AFSCs. The eight AFSCs shown in Table I are examined for a variety of reasons including their applicability to jobs in the civilian sector, the degree to which they are critically-manned, and emerging career fields that are expected to grow rapidly.
Table 1. Table of AFSCs considered in the analyses

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1.3 Problem Statement

This research examines potential factors affecting officer retention to better predict the overall readiness of the United States Air Force. To this end, a model assesses the likelihood of officer retention given the current social, political, and economic factors. Use of the model may provide leadership insight into the drivers of military retention problems, and ultimately insight into actions to avoid retention problems.

1.4 Thesis Outline

The remainder of this thesis provides four additional chapters. Chapter two is a literature review that examines previous work and the methodologies used to predict retention. The Chapter two discussion helps direct this study by uncovering methods that have proved useful in the past studies. Chapter three overviews the data preparation and overall methodology used in this analysis. The methodology discussion examines each technique and the contribution each brings to retention analysis. Chapter four overviews the analysis of retention and the factors that appears to influence separations from the Air Force; the analysis identifies the statistically significant factors as well as the models that enhance the understanding of retention problems. Chapter five summarizes the findings from the study, the conclusions drawn from the
analysis, and offers insights for leadership.
II. Literature Review

2.1 Overview

This section examines existing studies that pertain to Air Force retention, the factors that seemingly affect an individual’s decision to leave the military, and the statistical methods and metrics useful for analyzing retention. An initial review of these studies reveals preexisting coverage of this topic and the analytical techniques used. This allows more thorough analysis based upon the successes or failures of previous research. The literature review examines two important topics; those involving the specific AFSC attrition and the analyses on each of these AFSCs. The specific AFSC topic will focus on the historic and current trends of the retention rates and emerging threats to retention. The second topic focuses on the factors that have been effective in predicting retention and the techniques used to evaluate these factors previously.

2.2 Military Retention Problem

The military has a unique retention problem in that it must grow its own leaders; the military cannot direct hire its senior military leaders. Predicting attrition is valuable to understand and mitigate those factors that most heavily encourage separation for military members. Every organization has competition for qualified employees and therefore has employee turnover, but the military directly competes with the civilian sector. Attrition results in a cost that is larger than just the cost of training new members; it also includes the indirect costs to the unit described by morale and performance [1]. Commitment is a strong component of the military’s retention issue, but the high stress caused by deployments, relocation, and under-manning in certain career fields increases attrition among military members [2]. While deployments and
certain stressors drive higher attrition, they cannot be eliminated as they are necessary to military operations. Short of getting rid of deployments for Air Force officers, there are other methods of retention programs that could be evaluated and refined in the military. Ramlall suggests that training, rewards, career advancements, and flexibility of work schedules can combat the attrition of individuals from an organization [3]. Unfortunately, the freedom within the military, the merit-based promotion structure, and job flexibility does not seem present in the military [4]. Kane argues that the military fails to retain the most talented leaders due to the military functioning as a bureaucracy rather than meritocracy [4]. The civilian sector becomes more attractive to these talented individuals where their talent may be better recognized and the stresses of military life less realized.

2.3 Previous Efforts

This analysis is a continuation of previous research that has applied forecasting techniques to predict attrition, particularly of two recent theses by Jantscher [5] and Elliot [6]. Jantscher examines each AFSC and the correlation of retention by AFSC to continuous economic data. Her study found that every AFSC, except for chaplains and intelligence officers, had a negative correlation, showing that with a flourishing economy, retention decreases [5]. Her findings examined total attrition in the Air Force rather than specific AFSCs, but still provides insight as to how the economy can affect Air Force separation rates. Certain economic factors, specific to career fields, are useful in predicting retention. Jantscher [5] notes which factors show patterns of correlation, but not necessarily significance. These variables are examined and applied to this thesis in conjunction with more than just the economic factors introduced by Jantscher [5].

In a more experimental approach, Elliot [6] tests the theory that economic factors
have a significant relationship to attrition using dynamic regression. Using a more formal approach to predicting attrition, Elliot finds that Jantscher’s hypothesis, that economic variables impact attrition, is correct [6]. Elliot uses ARIMA, exponential smoothing, and dynamic regression approaches to forecast future attrition.

This current study expands upon Elliot’s work using similar techniques, but on AFSC specific attrition rates. Economic stimuli have different affects on job types and certain economic indicators are more beneficial to predicting separation for certain AFSCs. Elliot finds that overall economic conditions impact attrition, but there is evidence from Schofield that more than the overall economy impacts attrition by AFSC.

Each AFSC has specific factors that influence their rates of attrition and affect their manpower. These must be taken into account when evaluating individual AFSCs. Schofield et al [7] analyzes retention in the Air Force based on an individual’s characteristics and history in the Air Force, drawing conclusions on the most and least at risk AFSCs in terms of attrition. Their study finds that operations research analysts had one of the most concerning retention problems, while cyberspace operators had the least retention issues of the non-rated career fields studied [7]. This paper will focus on these two career fields to validate Schofield’s findings. Schofield’s et al analysis is based upon survivability models using logistic regression, potentially yielding different results than the proposed methodology of this analysis. Schofield et al also finds that year group, gender, commission source, prior enlisted, career field, and distinguished graduates were the most influential factors in determining retention of an individual [7]. This analysis looks to use the information from Schofield and build upon it using different techniques and introducing different factors predicting retention.
2.4 Analytical Techniques

Linear regression is a useful technique when performing analysis to predict the number of officers that leave the Air Force monthly. Residual analysis helps determine model adequacy and goodness of fit of the model [8]. It is assumed that residuals must maintain constant variance and normality. Empirical modeling uses ordinary least squares regression to model relationships between input variables and response variables. The best fit of the model is defined by minimizing the sum of the square residuals, or differences between actual and predicted values. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used to determine which parameters have the greatest influence on retention rates. ANOVA allocates to factors the total variability explained by the model and the goodness of fit of the overall model. Since many of the input parameters are employment numbers, and thus related, there are issues with variance inflation. Variance inflation occurs when variables have high correlation, and causes an over-emphasis of the significance of these variables in the model.

To reduce variance inflation, remove the factors that are causing multicollinearity. Variable selection methods help in choosing a good set of factors. Variable selection methods include step-wise regression or all possible models. There exists in this data a set of “candidate predictors” as defined by Montgomery [9]. A step-wise regression adds or removes variables from a model based on a specified criterion [9]. In this study, the criterion used minimizes the Akaike Information Criteria (AIC) of the model which is determined by the log-likelihood and the significance of parameters in the model. Step-wise regression consists of a combination of forward and backward steps that reach the minimum value of the AIC. This method can be deceived by multicollinearity, so it is important to continuously check for multicollinearity in the independent variables of the regression during each iteration of fitting the model.

The regression analysis leads to forecasting each variable that is found significant.
Research shows many potential forecasting methods can be applied to predict each independent variable. Ultimately Box-Jenkins (ARIMA) models are chosen for time series forecasting on the independent variables for each AFSC. ARIMA models provide the most sophisticated approach to forecasting seasonal or non-seasonal data. This is a three step approach outlined by Thomopoulos as identification, fitting, and diagnostic checking [10]. This is an iterative process that should meet all assumptions of diagnostic checking as well as reducing model complexity when necessary. Thomopoulos discusses the basic concepts of ARIMA models including the parameters that shape the forecast (p,d,q) which are non-seasonal auto-regressive parameters, differences in the data, and moving average parameters respectively. The generic model, ARIMA(1,d,1), is altered to include more parameters in the model, but over-specifying the model can lead to over-fitting and therefore obtaining biased forecasts. Reducing model complexity is desired.

Diagnostic checking of ARIMA models is similar to regression. The major difference is the auto-correlation function which Thomopoulos describes as finding the correlation of the lags and ensuring the correlations from the lags does not exceed above or beyond a threshold related to the number of lags examined [10]. The equations for the auto-correlation function are in chapter 3 of this study.

The Box-Jenkins forecast equations are particular to the independent variables found significant in each regression. The forecast equations differ greatly depending on the type of model used and are expressed by Thomopoulos, but not included in this literature review for the sake of brevity [10]. With forecasting, the future becomes more unpredictable the further out the attempted forecasts [10]. The confidence bounds surrounding the forecasts become much wider over time. The confidence region informs leadership of the upper and lower expected limits for attrition in a given month rather than a point forecast.
III. Methodology

3.1 Overview

This chapter discusses data collection and the sources from which the data are obtained. The data are collected from multiple sources and compiled into a master data set encompassing data for 67 AFSCs. This chapter highlights how the data are prepared to create a complete data set with which we conduct analysis and draw conclusions. Lastly, this chapter discusses the analytical techniques used to determine potential drivers of attrition. Each AFSC has idiosyncrasies within the data, so there is no single methodology used throughout. Instead, the analytical techniques described in this chapter cover the general approach for linear regression and forecasting as well as key assumptions needed to perform the analysis. Chapter 4 discusses in more detail the individualized analysis needed for each AFSC.

3.2 Data Description

The initial data set was provided by previous efforts on retention analysis for the Air Force [5] [6]. The original data are obtained from the Strategic Analysis branch of the Force Management Division of Headquarters Air Force. The separation count measures the number of officers who left the Air Force during a given month. The data also measures the total number of officers employed in each AFSC and the AFSC labels. Other data includes the monthly economic indicators from October 2004 to September 2017. The statistics included are Consumer Price Index, unemployment rate, Gross Domestic Product per capita, median household income, and labor force momentum. The Bureau of Economic Analysis has open source information of accurate and objective economic statistics for this analysis. This creates an initial and complete data set with 156 observations for 67 different AFSCs. While the data
set is complete and easily obtainable, other factors are introduced to provide better predictions, models, and analysis.

Coupling this existing data set with AFSC specific factors may provide more insight to leadership about the factors influencing retention. For example, pilot retention could be dependent on airline hiring, but acquisitions officer retention is not likely impacted by an increase or decrease in airline hiring. The Bureau of Labor Statistics has employment hiring for hundreds of career fields beginning in the early 2000’s and can be applied to each specific career field within the Air Force based on these comparable jobs in the civilian sector. Each variable introduces the raw increase or decrease in employment hiring specific to certain career fields. The benefit of using this data compared to the unemployment rate as a predictor is that it better represents certain career fields rather than a more general approach with the unemployment rate. The introduction of AFSC specific data sets to retention with general economic conditions may aid in predicting retention more accurately and forecasting future retention rates.

Beyond the economic scope of retention, there are other factors that may serve as a proxy influence on retention. Political conditions shape the general outlook of a population. Creating a proxy variable of the political climate, in terms of the president of the United States, as either Republican or Democrat may benefit retention prediction. Military expenditures are hypothesized to influence an individual to leave if they see a decrease of military expenditures to occur in the upcoming years or previous years. Given the barriers to immediate exit from the military, lags in the data are also introduced to account for the time it takes to make the decision to leave the Air Force and the actual date of separation.

Predicting overall retention helps to maintain total force levels for each career field, but identifying specific individuals could also be used to predict survivability of career
fields and the demographics of the personnel in a career field. These demographics include rank, which is a critical component to retention since you need senior leaders in each career field. The addition of individual analysis would provide a more thorough understanding of retention. Data sets, stripped of personally identifiable information, contain information on an individual’s AFSC, marital status, years of service, and others. Individual data is sensitive by nature and difficult to obtain, but is a critical factor to measure the risk of separation along with the overall outlook of the economy. While the data are available, due to constraints on time and the privacy of individual data, the analysis of individual risk of separation is not studied here, but left for future research.

3.3 Data Preparation

Data generally requires cleaning prior to analysis. Economic data is pulled from the bureau of labor statistics, bureau of economic analysis, and other government websites, and there are compatibility issues across each platform. The new data is formatted to fit the data set containing AFSC separation count and economic indicators.

Merging the data sets yields the final and complete data set. The AFSC data set is recorded on the last day of each month, while the new data sets with civilian job hiring, and military expenditures are recorded on the first day of each month. To align dates, the new data sets dates are subtracted by one day, then matching the initial AFSC data set. Each date entry is then transformed into ”YYYY-MM-DD” format and merged so that every time a date is matched, it completes a single monthly entry with all of the data employed.

Separations for each AFSC are recorded monthly, but many economic factors are not necessarily recorded monthly. Instead of having missing values in the data, if a
factor is recorded every quarter, then that value is assumed the same for each month in the quarter. The same is assumed for biannual data if it applies to one of the independent variables. To introduce continuity in the data, and to better inform the regression models, a 12-month, moving average is then used on the variables that were not recorded monthly. The moving average technique smooths the data so that it is more indicative of economic trends. Equation 1 defines $M_T$ as the moving average of the given time period, in this case month. This smooths the data by using the previous time periods value and adding or subtracting based on the next recorded data point.

$$M_T = M_{T-1} + \frac{X_T - X_{T-N}}{N}$$

(1)

The data have monthly and even daily changes, and smoothing the data captures those changes between observations. The data spans November 2004 to September 2017, with some missing values throughout. These missing values are imputed using K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN) using 31 of the nearest neighbors and a weighted average to determine a new value. This imputation technique introduced minimal bias since the data had very few missing values and the dimensionality of the data is not much greater than 10 in each case. The general rule when using KNN imputation is to reduce dimensionality when imputing greater than 10 dimensions. After imputation, the data obtains the total separation count from 2004 to 2017 for each AFSC and the economic factors for the same time period with no missing values. In addition to imputation, AFSC specific cases require curtailing data that are biased due to irregular events such as the Great Recession in 2008. This assumes typical behaviors seen in the economy, thereby decreasing uncertainty when forecasting expected levels and confidence intervals for attrition.

Lag variables are examined to better predict an individual’s decision to leave the Air Force. Air Force personnel cannot quit in a single day, and individual who decides
to leave likely decides months before their actual separation date. Lag variables are created on the separation count at six months and twelve months. This captures the economic conditions when an individual decides to leave the Air Force and better informs decision makers beforehand on how the certain conditions affects retention. The master data set following the introduction of new variables and cleaning of existing data contained 4670 observations on 51 different variables. The data also consists of 67 different AFSCs. For this analysis, 8 AFSCs were chosen based on a range of critical manning. These AFSCs are shown in Table 1. Each AFSC is individually analyzed to provide the most thorough results.

Lastly, for model validation purposes, the data is split to include a training and test set. The training set comprises roughly the first 80% of the available data for each AFSC. The last 20% of the data is held for model validation purposes to identify the correctly predicted separations within the predicted 95% confidence bounds.

3.4 Regression Analysis

Linear regression analysis is used to assess relationships between independent and dependent variables. Assumptions for regression must be met which include normality of residuals as well as constant variance. Normality of residuals is checked by plotting the difference between actual and predicted separation count from the model. The residuals must follow a normal distribution (or at least reasonably symmetric) for valid inferences. Constant variance means that the residuals do not vary systematically over time, ensuring the model does not fit some observations well and others observations poorly.

This analysis performs regression analysis on the economic indicators and the specified civilian employment variables for each AFSC. The regression provides insight as to which variables significantly affect officer retention in the Air Force. The research
uses the null hypothesis that the coefficient of each independent variable in the model is equal to zero, thereby having no influence on attrition. The alternative hypothesis is that the coefficients of each independent variable are not equal to zero as shown in equation 2.

\[ H_0 : \beta_i = 0 \quad \forall i \]
\[ H_A : \beta_i \neq 0 \quad \text{for some } i \quad (2) \]

The \( R^2 \) is the proportion of variance explained by the model, ranging from 0 to 1. A larger value is desired, although does not necessarily ensure a good fit of the model. The fit of the model is determined by the p-value of the overall model. ANOVA allocates the variance explained by the model as \( SS_{model} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \bar{y})^2 \) and the variance due to the error as \( SS_{error} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 \). These values have degrees of freedom \( p \) and \( n-p-1 \), respectively. Dividing the sum of squares by their degrees of freedom yield \( MS_{model} \) and \( MS_{error} \). Under the hypothesis in equation 2, both \( MS_{model} \) and \( MS_{error} \) are equal and estimate the variance of the errors. Further, \( F_0 = \frac{MS_{model}}{MS_{error}} \sim F_{p,n-p-1} \) under a true (2). The p-value of the overall test is the tail-area of the F-distribution based on the \( F_0 \) statistic.

This hypothesis is tested by determining the influence or significance an independent variable has on predicting attrition. Significance is assessed by a variable’s corresponding p-value. Under a null hypothesis that the variable’s regression coefficient is zero, the statistic in equation 3 follows a t-distribution with \( k-p \) degrees of freedom. The p-value of \( t_i \) is the tail-area of the \( t_i \) value and if small implies the \( \beta_i \) is significant in explaining variability in the data.

\[ t_i = \frac{\beta_i}{se(\beta_i)} \quad (3) \]
A p-value less than 0.05 is generally a sign of significance and a relationship with separations in the given model. With similarity in predictor variables, correlation between independent variables may cause errors when assessing their significance. This is mitigated by calculating the variance inflation factors (VIF) of the variables and removing the variables with a high VIF value. The $R^2_i$ is the coefficient of determination or the proportion of variance explained for an independent variable by the other independent variables in the model. This is calculated in equation 4.

$$VIF_i = \frac{1}{1 - R^2_i}$$ \hspace{1cm} (4)

For this analysis, a VIF is targeted to be below a value of 10. Satisfying each of the assumptions previously presented for variance inflation, the overall fit and adequacy of the model is addressed to ensure proper predictive abilities.

There are several methods to find a best fit regression model, given the independent variables for a regression. The method chosen in this study is a bidirectional step-wise regression set to minimize the Akaike information criteria (AIC) value of the model. A bidirectional step-wise regression adds or subtracts an independent variable based upon how it affects the AIC of the model. This method first calculates Log-Likelihood of the regression, shown in equation 5.

$$LogLikelihood = \frac{-N}{2} \ln(2\pi) - \frac{N}{2} \ln(2\sigma) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - x_i\beta)^2$$ \hspace{1cm} (5)

The log-likelihood value is then used to calculate the AIC. The AIC minimizes the log-likelihood value, ensuring best fit, but also penalizes the model for too many additional parameters. This reduces the number of parameters in the model, by weighing the benefits to reducing log likelihood and the potential for over fitting the
model, shown in equation 6.

\[ AIC = -2(\text{LogLikelihood}) + 2K \]  

(6)

Minimizing (6) gives a best fit of the models and simultaneously does not over fit the model.

A final model adequacy check of the regression is necessary to begin forecasting techniques. Assuming normally distributed residuals centered around zero, constant variance of the residuals, and a significant model, forecasting methods are used to predict future values of the independent variables in the regression.

### 3.5 Box-Jenkins Models

Once an adequate model is fit, then the significant variables identified through regression are used to inform a forecasting technique. An initial visual assessment identifies potential patterns in the data of the independent variables. A time series plot provides insights into potential non-stationarity, seasonality trends, or outliers in the data. Data are said to be stationary when the statistical properties (e.g. mean and variance) of the time series do not change over time.

If the data are not stationary, the data are transformed by differencing the data. The data are differenced, which means calculating the difference between consecutive values of the data to stabilize the mean throughout the time series. Seasonal differencing is used in the same manner, but instead of using the difference for consecutive values, it is differenced over a specific time period driven by the length of the season in the data. To determine whether the data should be differenced, we use a Kwiatkowski-Phillips-Schmidt-Shin Test (KPSS). KPSS creates a null hypothesis that the data are stationary. If the alternative is true, then the number of differences
is calculated and applied to the data to establish stationarity.

With non-stationary data in the variance of the data, transformations are applied, such as the log function or square root. Seasonality is determined through visual inspection of the data or expert knowledge of the data. Lastly, before analysis, identifying and manipulating outliers is necessary for certain AFSCs to have a more accurate model. Outliers are either smoothed using a moving average or removed from the data entirely for the purposes of this analysis.

The differencing and or transformations yield a working series useful for subsequent analysis. This work focuses on implementing the Box-Jenkins methodology to forecast each independent variable based on ARIMA modeling. ARIMA stands for Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving Average model. ARIMA examines time series data to identify trends and ultimately forecast based solely on the data itself. ARIMA models follow the notation of $ARIMA(p, d, q)(P, D, Q)[m]$. A generic non-seasonal model of order 1 is presented in equation 7

$$w_t = \delta \ast \phi_1 \ast w_{t-1} - \theta_1 \ast a_{t-1} + a_t$$

(7)

where $w_t$ is the forecast of the working series, $\delta$ is a constant value, $\phi_1$ is the auto-regressive coefficient for the first lag, $\theta_1$ is the moving average component and $a_t$ is a white noise process.

More generally, ARIMA consists of a non-seasonal component $(p,d,q)$, a seasonal component $(P,D,Q)$, and the number of periods in a season $m$. The non-seasonal component addresses the overall trends in the model by determining the number of auto-regressive terms in the model $(p)$, the number of differences needed to achieve stationarity $(d)$, and the number of lagged forecast errors or moving average terms needed in the forecast equation $(q)$. The seasonal component $(P,D,Q)$ addresses any seasonality in the data, focusing more on common patterns that reoccur over time.
D, and Q represent the same respective parameters in the non-seasonal component, but help to shape these reoccurring trends within the data. An example of a non-seasonal model would be world population, always increasing over time. An example of a seasonal model would be a sinusoidal curve, that follows a similar trend over time. Lastly, the number of periods in a season [m] is typically determined by the type of data the model is fitting. Attrition is measured monthly, so the number of periods in a season is 12 months. The combination of these components helps shape the data and extrapolate beyond the time series. The forecast provides an expected value as well as 80 percent and 95 percent confidence regions for each independent variable used to predict attrition.

Model adequacy for ARIMA is checked through residual and auto-correlation analysis. The residual analysis requires similar assumptions as the regression models such as constant variance and normally distributed residuals with a mean of zero. An additional assumption is to ensure that auto-correlation does not affect the model. The auto-correlation function measures the amount of correlation for each lag of the data on itself. Equation 8 shows the calculation of auto-correlation for Box-Jenkins (ARIMA) models.

\[ r_k = \frac{\sum (e_t - \bar{e})(e_{t-k} - \bar{e})}{\sum (e_t - \bar{e})^2} \] (8)

The auto-correlation for each lag in the data is compared to the standard error of auto-correlation and the approximate 95% confidence interval associated. These bounds are found in equation 9 where K is the number of lags tested and the confidence interval is approximated by \( + - 2S_{r_k} \).

\[ S_{r_k} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{K} (1 + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} r_j^2)} \] (9)
The auto-correlation is adequate when the auto-correlation for lag \( k \) lies within the bounds of the confidence interval. A Ljung-Box test is conducted to measure this, testing for a null hypothesis that there is auto-correlation in the data, and an alternative hypothesis that there exists no auto-correlation in the data. The residuals are tested for auto-correlation with the test statistic shown in equation 10. The test statistic uses \( n \) samples, \( h \) lags tested, and the auto-correlation at lag \( k \). \( Q \) is compared to a chi-squared with a given confidence and \( h \) lags tested in the ARIMA model.

\[
Q = n(n + 2) \sum_{k=1}^{h} \frac{\rho_k^2}{n - k}
\]

(10)

The significance of the p-value is used to determine the adequacy of the model to 95% confidence. Satisfying the assumptions of the Box-Jenkins (ARIMA) models, the forecasts of the independent variables are used to estimate the predicted monthly separation of officers by AFSC.

### 3.6 Forecasting Attrition

To this point the methodology establishes an adequate regression, determines the significant independent variables for each AFSC, and forecasts the independent variables using ARIMA. The forecasts of the independent variables are used to predict attrition levels for each AFSC. There are five forecasted values to provide insights to leadership to include, the expected value, upper and lower bounds with 95 percent confidence, and upper and lower bounds with 80 percent confidence. The confidence bounds are calculated by using the respective confidence bounds given from the ARIMA forecasts of the independent variables. Point estimates of forecasts are generally useless as they are insightful but not accurate. A confidence region provides a range of values at some level of confidence. These bounds can be predicted using
equation 11.

\[ U_\tau = \bar{x}_T(\tau) + zV(\tau)S_a \]
\[ L_\tau = \bar{x}_T(\tau) + zV(\tau)S_a \]  \hspace{1cm} (11)

The expected value does show the overall trend we predict for attrition such as decreasing, increasing, or constant attrition levels. The model validation is determined two-fold by the root mean squared error as well as the visually examining the number of true attrition values that fall outside of the predicted confidence region. Root mean squared error differs by AFSC, but it will provides contextual evidence to the average number of officers that are incorrectly predicted to separate monthly. The number of values outside of the confidence region provides prediction accuracy across all AFSCs. The model validation provides a level of overall trust in the models when used for future predictive purposes.
IV. Analysis

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis individually on each of the eight selected AF-SCs, ultimately providing insight on estimated attrition levels and confidence bounds on the AFSC specific personnel separation. Multiple linear regression is used to predict attrition and establish key regressors for attrition. Forecasts on the previously identified regressors are used to inform the regression model to provide key insights on the direction and magnitude of attrition levels for each AFSC. The variables used to predict regression are split into two categories, common variables and civilian employment variables. The common variables are introduced across each AFSC are hypothesized to influence attrition for any individual. The civilian employment variables are AFSC specific and provide a more tailored regression to a particular AFSC. The common variables are shown below in table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Common Variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Consumer Price Index</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Job Openings in the U.S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product Per Capita</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Labor Market Momentum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Median Household Income</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Unemployment Rate (U-3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Military Expenditures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Total Armed Forces Personnel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Employment Services</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The common variables along with AFSC specific employment are used to create a model to predict attrition and then ultimately forecast attrition individually for each AFSC. The analysis reveals the overall predicted direction of attrition, whether increasing or decreasing, and also the magnitude of attrition. The results provide
insight into recruitment, incentive programs, and assignment processes for the near
future. In each analysis, the last two years of data are withheld as validation data.

4.2 11X - Pilot Career Field Analysis

4.2.1 Regression Analysis of Pilot Career Field

Pilot attrition is regressed on 11 different variables, those shown in Table 2 as
well as civilian employment of airline pilots and commercial pilots. The separation
count of pilots, along with the other AFSCs, requires a log transformation to better
normalize the residuals. A final resulting regression is a simple linear regression with
the independent variable as commercial pilots.

\[
\log(Attrition_{\text{Pilot}}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times \text{CommercialPilots} \tag{12}
\]

The regression results in figure 1 indicate the overall model is significant with
a p-value less than 0.05, with no evidence of lack of fit. Both estimates, including
the intercept and commercial pilots, have a significant impact for predicting pilot
attrition. The commercial pilots coefficient has a very low p-value, thereby rejecting
the null hypothesis that employment of commercial pilots does not have a relationship
with pilot attrition in the Air Force. While the estimate for commercial pilots is near
zero, the scale of employment for commercial pilots is \(10^5\) and the model is predicting
\(\log(Attrition_{\text{Pilot}})\), so the estimate does have a larger impact on the model than it
seems from the coefficient. This also reveals that as hypothesized, an increase in
employment of commercial pilots tends to increase the number of pilots that separate
from the Air Force. This leads to forecasting commercial pilots, giving an idea of
what we may expect for future attrition levels for Air Force pilots.
4.2.2 Forecasting Independent Variables

Forecasting commercial pilots helps identify the amount of pilot separations the Air Force can then expect in the near future. A series of forecasts are conducted using the Box-Jenkins (ARIMA) method. The best models search lead to an ARIMA(0,1,1) model, showing that one difference and a moving average provided a good fit for the model. The overall prediction is that employment is expected to increase linearly over the next 24 months to nearly 40,000 commercial pilots employed as shown in figure 2. The most upper and lower bounds represented with the light blue area show the 95 percent confidence interval on commercial pilot employment. The darker blue region shows the 80 percent confidence region for commercial pilots, ranging between roughly 37,000 and 43,000 jobs. These are used to estimate similar bounds on Air Force pilot attrition as well.

```r
lm(formula = log(Separation_Count) ~ Commercial.Pilots, data = ss2)

Residuals:
   Min     1Q Median     3Q    Max
-0.73023 -0.28490 -0.03667  0.22961  0.83147

Coefficients:     Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)    1.338e+00   5.198e-01  2.575   0.0128 *
Commercial.Pilots  8.373e-05   1.535e-05  5.456   1.19e-06 ***
---
Signif. codes:  0 ‘***’ 0.001 ‘**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1 ‘ ’ 1

Residual standard error: 0.3583 on 55 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.3512,   Adjusted R-squared: 0.3394
F-statistic: 29.77 on 1 and 55 DF,  p-value: 1.195e-06
```

Figure 1. Regression on Pilot Attrition
Figure 2. Time Series Forecast on Pilot Independent Variables: The light blue region shows 95% confidence region and the dark blue region shows 80% confidence region.

4.2.3 Forecasting Attrition

To predict the attrition levels of pilots in the Air Force, the forecasted values for commercial pilots is used in the earlier regression which identified commercial pilots are beneficial in predicting attrition of Air Force pilots. A simple linear regression is much easier to interpret and predict separation rates, as opposed to forecasting many variables. Since the regression found that pilot separation increases as commercial pilots increase, and the forecast shows that commercial pilot employment is expected to increase, Air Force pilot separation should increase. The expected separation, 95 percent confidence interval, and 80 percent confidence interval for Air Force pilots
are shown in figure 3. Over the next two years, we might expect attrition to increase from 95 to 105 pilots per month with the accompanying confidence regions. The 95% confidence region contains 8 of 24 forecasted separations when compared with the test data, being 33% accurate. Appendix A contains details on this model.

![Figure 3. Forecast of Pilot Attrition](image)

### 4.3 17D - Cyber Career Field Analysis

#### 4.3.1 Regression Analysis of Cyber Career Field

The cyber career field growth has been more emphasized as technology increases and becomes weaponized. Retaining personnel in the cyber career field is critical in
protecting the cyber domain from enemy threats. Therefore it is important to ensure this field is adequately manned. The regression model to predict cyber attrition is also a simple linear regression using the employment of computer programmers. The original regression involves 11 different variables including the common variables, computer programmer employment, and computer and math occupations. A transformation on attrition is necessary to satisfy the assumptions of regression models and the residuals of the model. The resulting model is shown in equation 13.

\[
\log(Attrition_{\text{Cyber}}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times \text{Computer.Programmers}
\]  

(13)

The model itself shows significance in predicting attrition and indicates that computer programmers significantly impact the attrition of cyber officers. The model in figure 4 shows that as computer programmers increase, the attrition of cyber officers increases as well. The model coefficient estimate for computer programmers is low, but that is relative to the employment of computer programmers which is on the order of $10^6$. The intercept is insignificant, but is still included in the model to forecast attrition.

\[
\text{lm(formula} = \log(\text{Separation.Count}) \sim \text{Computer.Programmers, data} = \text{ss2})
\]

Residuals:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Min</th>
<th>1Q</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>3Q</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-1.37059</td>
<td>-0.38095</td>
<td>-0.07185</td>
<td>0.37582</td>
<td>1.34716</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Coefficients:

| Estimate | Std. Error | t value | Pr(>|t|) |
|----------|------------|---------|---------|
| (Intercept) | -1.654e+00 | 1.483e+00 | -1.115 | 0.26896 |
| Computer.Programmers | 1.528e-05 | 4.793e-06 | 3.189 | 0.00219 |

---

Signif. codes: 0 ‘***’ 0.001 ‘**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1 ‘ ’ 1

Residual standard error: 0.5515 on 66 degrees of freedom
(7 observations deleted due to missingness)
Multiple R-squared: 0.1335, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1204
F-statistic: 10.17 on 1 and 66 DF, p-value: 0.002187

Figure 4. Regression on Cyber Attrition
4.3.2 Forecasting Independent Variables

The ARIMA model employed to forecast computer programmers is ARIMA(0,2,1)(1,0,0)[12]. The time series data needs two levels of differencing to achieve stationarity, one non-seasonal moving average, and a seasonal auto-regressive term to best forecast computer programmer employment and meet the assumptions of the residuals. The resulting model to forecast computer programmers is shown in figure 5.

The resulting ARIMA model on computer programmers is used to predict its future employment, which is expected to decrease in the next two years. The upper bound on the 95 percent confidence interval does level out, but still shows a favorable attrition trend. This is a potential indication that the need for computer programmers could rise and affect cyber attrition rates beyond two years into the future.

Figure 5. Time Series Forecast on Cyber Independent Variables: The light blue region shows 95% confidence region and the dark blue region shows 80% confidence region.
4.3.3 Forecasting Attrition

Inserting the new forecasts back into the original regression model does show that cyber officers are predicted to stay in the Air Force over the next two years, dropping from 12 officers per month to roughly 7 per month in figure 6. This is a drastic decrease over the next two years, but should be tempered with the potential increase in employment for computer programmers following the two year forecast. The steady decline in computer programmers shows that personnel could expect higher retention rates for cyber officers in the future.

![Figure 6. Forecast of Cyber Attrition](image)

The attrition model for cyber officers under-predicts the actual attrition from
2015 to 2017. The 95% confidence region contains only 3 of 24 forecasted separations when compared with the test data, being 12.5% accurate. While this may not seem accurate, the model follows the overall trend of the test data, shown in Appendix B. The root mean squared error is 10, but this value is misleading since there are three months that have abnormally large attrition levels biasing the root mean squared error more than the typical error in prediction.

4.4 31P - Security Forces Career Field Analysis

4.4.1 Regression Analysis of Security Forces

Despite downsizing in late 2014 and early 2015, security forces officers have been steady in terms of attrition, typically between 4 and 9 officers per month. The expectation for security forces is to remain constant given that there are no large economic issues or downsizes looming. The regression of security forces officers includes police officers and protective service occupations in the civilian sector. This most closely resembles security forces in the civilian sector and may provide insight regarding attrition levels. A log transformation is used on the attrition of security forces and regressed on the two civilian employment jobs above along with the common variables describing the economy. This regression renders a model based on the GDP Per Capita and police officer employment, shown in equation 14.

\[
\log(Attrition_{Security\ Forces}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times GDP_{Per\ Capita} + \beta_2 \times Police_{Officers} \tag{14}
\]

The model only explains 16 percent of the variation in the data. This low \( R^2 \) raises concerns about how well the model truly captures the variation, but the model shows significance in terms of trends in predicting attrition. Both GDP Per Capita
and police officers showed significance in predicting attrition of security forces officers shown in figure 7. Surprisingly, civilian police officer employment actually has an inverse relationship with security forces officers where an increase in police officers correlates with a decrease in security forces attrition levels. An increase in GDP generates an increased attrition of security forces officers. The regression model seeks to predict future attrition based on the prediction of these two variables.

\[ \text{lm(formula = log(Separation_Count) ~ GDPPerCapita + Police.Officers, data = ss2)} \]

Residuals:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>1Q</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>3Q</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-1.7949</td>
<td>-0.4392</td>
<td>-0.0355</td>
<td>0.5182</td>
<td>1.8047</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Coefficients:

|                  | Estimate | Std. Error | t value | Pr(>|t|) |
|------------------|----------|------------|---------|---------|
| (Intercept)      | 6.720e+00 | 7.706e+00 | 0.872   | 0.384913 |
| GDPPerCapita     | 2.515e-04 | 6.950e-05 | 3.619   | 0.000432 *** |
| Police.Officers  | -2.752e-05 | 9.967e-06 | -2.761  | 0.006665 ** |

Signif. codes: 0 ‘***’ 0.001 ‘**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1 ‘ ’ 1

Residual standard error: 0.7397 on 121 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.1731, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1595
F-statistic: 12.67 on 2 and 121 DF, p-value: 1.01e-05

Figure 7. Security Forces Regression

4.4.2 Forecasting Independent Variables

Identifying trends in the data of police officer and employment and GDP Per Capita is used to predict future expected levels and shown in figure 8. ARIMA methods help fit the model and predict the direction each is trending towards. The first, GDP per capita has a recent dip, but has been generally trending upwards and is expected to continue upwards but at a slower pace. The best model to fit the data is an ARIMA(1,2,2) model requiring two levels of differencing. There is one non-seasonal auto-regressive component, and two moving average variables showing the model is very responsive to its current value. This increases the volatility of
the model and widens the confidence interval used to predict the trend of GDP Per Capita. Police officer employment best fits an ARIMA(1,1,1) model with only one level of differencing along with one moving average and one auto-regressive term. The overall trend for employment is upwards, but the rate is expected to diminish over time. The predicted values are used in the original regression to estimate the overall attrition of security forces officers.

![Forecast: ARIMA(1,2,2) for GDP Per Capita](image1)

![Forecast: ARIMA(1,1,1) for Police Officers](image2)

**Figure 8. Time Series Forecast on Security Forces Independent Variables:** The light blue region shows 95% confidence region and the dark blue region shows 80% confidence region.

### 4.4.3 Forecasting Attrition

The two predictor variables on attrition are both expected to increase over time, but the effect each has on attrition differs from the regression model. The later police officer employment trends start to have a smaller rate of change, showing potential volatility in higher attrition rates. The expected attrition levels drop from 6 officers per month to nearly 4 officers per month, shown in figure 9. This is likely due to the more dramatic increase in police officer employment in the next two years. The model seems to steady at 4 security forces officer per month expected to separate from the Air Force, assuming the current trends of the economy continue. The 95% confidence region contains 9 of 24 forecasted separations when compared with the
test data. The model validation for security forces is one of the strongest of the eight AFSCs analyzed, over-predicting the test data between January 2016 to September 2016. The resulting model validation and analysis is shown in Appendix C.

![Forecast of Security Forces Attrition](image)

**Figure 9. Forecast of Security Forces Attrition**

4.5 32E - Civil Engineering Career Field Analysis

4.5.1 Regression Analysis of Civil Engineering

Civil Engineer retention data are regressed on the common economic variables as well as two employment variables, construction occupations and civil engineers. Civil engineers employment is expected to have a relationship directly with the civil
engineers in the Air Force, while construction occupations is hypothesized to be a proxy variable indicating the direction of construction projects and desirability of entering that market as an employee. The log transformation on the attrition variable is needed to meet the assumptions of a regression model The regression yields a significant model, with U.S. job openings and construction occupations predicting attrition of civil engineer officers shown in equation 15.

\[
\text{Log(Attrition}_{\text{CivilEngineers}}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times \text{JobOpenings} + \beta_2 \times \text{ConstructionOccupations}
\]

(15)

The regression R-squared, \( R^2 = 0.08 \), shown in figure 10 is very low. The data is very noisy. While this may not provide accurate results, the methodology is still applied and tested against the actual attrition values. In the model, both job openings and construction occupations have positively correlated affects on the attrition levels of civil engineers, although construction occupations is the only significant parameter in the model. Since it is the only significant parameter, it is expected that construction occupations heavily drive the attrition levels for civil engineers in the Air Force and therefore the forecasts will likely be more responsive to the construction occupations model.
The two time series forecasts for job openings and construction occupations are forecast using ARIMA models in figure 11. Job openings and construction occupations use an ARIMA(1,2,2) and an ARIMA(0,2,2) respectively to meet the assumptions of auto-correlation and residual analysis. Both ARIMA models have adequate fit and estimate two years beyond the data. Job openings and construction occupations both steadily increase recently and the models predict similar behavior over the next few years.
4.5.3 Forecasting Attrition

Civil engineer attrition is more responsive to construction occupations, so with growing employment in construction occupations, attrition levels for civil engineers are expected to increase slightly from 10 to 13 officers per month. The confidence bounds reach four to 26 engineers per month after two years, with a variable change in job openings and construction occupation employment. These bounds seem large, but again this model does not explain a lot of the variability. As economic conditions change over time, the employment sector fluctuates drastically and increases the variability in the ARIMA models when forecasting. Predicting the \( \log(Attrition_{CivilEngineers}) \) attrition levels is impacted by mapping back to the original space of regular attrition levels. The general takeaway from the analysis of civil engineers is that attrition may increase in the next few years as employment in the civilian sector continues to grow, but this insight is tempered by the uncertainty of the prediction. This can be seen in figure [12] with the trends of attrition for civil engineers in the Air Force. The 95% confidence region contains 5 of 24 forecasted separations when compared with the test data, generally over-predicting the number of separations per month which can
be seen in Appendix D.

![Figure 12. Forecast of Civil Engineer Attrition](image)

4.6 61A - Operations Research Analyst Career Field Analysis

4.6.1 Regression Analysis of Operations Research

Operations research analysts are a small community, and are identified as a critically-manned career field in previous research. The largest number of separations is 12 per month during downsizing in 2014, and the count of separation most closely fluctuates around 4 separations per month. The regression includes the common economic variables with civilian employment numbers including operations research...
analysts, management occupations, business and financial operations occupations, budget analysts, and financial analysts. Analysts have a wide range of occupations that they can enter in the civilian sector. Thus, identifying a single job proves difficult to predict attrition of OR analysts. A log transformation is performed on attrition to correct residuals. The model finds that employment in services is the sole predictor with minimal AIC. Employment in services is a very broad employment statistic provided by the Bureau of Labor Statistics which includes education, government, trade, financial activities and many more. The equation for the resulting model is shown in equation 16.

\[
\log(Attrition_{Analyst}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times Employment_{inServices}
\]  \hspace{1cm} (16)

The intercept at a value of 235 is concerning, along with an R-squared of around 10 percent explanation of the variance in the data. The resulting model for OR analysts is shown in figure [13]. The value of the coefficient for employment in services is negative and therefore suggests that an increase in employment in services will increase retention rates. The more jobs added to services correlates to more officers deciding to remain in the Air Force, the opposite of the intuitive thoughts associated with this correlation. It is typically expected that increasing jobs in the civilian sector appeals of officers that separate from the military. Despite the odd values of the coefficients, the model has adequate residuals, significant results, and significant predictor variables.
4.6.2 Forecasting Independent Variables

Employment in services takes a large drop in 2012 and rebounds in 2014 with a continual increase to the present data. The ARIMA model used to forecast employment in services is an ARIMA(1,2,1) model and, although it meets the assumptions needed for an ARIMA model, the precision of the model is far from adequate for predictive purposes. The ARIMA model predictions for employment in services is shown in figure 14. The trend is increasing, following the overall pattern from 2014 forward, but the recent fluctuations raise concern on the accuracy of the model. The general trend of the data may be correct though with employment in services expected to rise over the next 12 months.

\[ \text{lm(formula} = \log(\text{Separation} \_ \text{Count}) \sim \text{EmploymentInServices, data} = \text{ss2}) \]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Residuals:</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>1Q</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>3Q</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-1.21094</td>
<td>-0.39925</td>
<td>-0.05068</td>
<td>0.35293</td>
<td>1.45943</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Coefficients: | Estimate | Std. Error | t value | Pr(>|t|) |
|---------------|----------|------------|---------|---------|
| (Intercept)   | 235.525  | 78.609     | 2.996   | 0.00364 ** |
| EmploymentInServices | -2.978    | 0.998      | -2.984  | 0.00377 ** |

Signif. codes:  0 ‘***’ 0.001 ‘**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1 ‘ ’ 1

Residual standard error: 0.6201 on 80 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.1002, Adjusted R-squared: 0.08891
F-statistic: 8.905 on 1 and 80 DF,  p-value: 0.003771

Figure 13. Operations Research Regression on Attrition
4.6.3 Forecasting Attrition

As predicted by an increasing employment in services, the number of analysts expected to separate decreases over the next 10 months from January 2017 to October 2017. The model predicts between two to three officers per month expected to leave, with a 95 percent confidence level between one to four officers in 2017 from January to October. This model, shown in figure [15] is steady for OR analysts causing little concern in terms of increasing attrition. The 95% confidence region contains 4 of 10 forecasted separations when compared with the test data, being 40% accurate. This model is shown in Appendix E.
4.7 62E - Engineering Career Field Analysis

4.7.1 Regression Analysis of Engineering

Engineering encompasses many jobs in the civilian sector. Thus, forecasting based on civilian jobs may not be as useful compared to an overall economic outlook. The separation count is not steady, moving from values in the single digits as high as 178 in 2007, during a downsizing in the Air Force. Most months have about 30 separations for engineers. The regression includes the common variables as well as number of mechanical engineers and physicists. The regression finds that the best prediction of
attrition of engineers is median household income and GDP per capita. The model for engineers is shown in equation 17.

\[ \log(Attrition_{\text{Engineers}}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot \text{MedianHouseholdIncome} + \beta_2 \cdot \text{GDPPerCapita} \]

(17)

The regression model is significant with an R-squared value of nearly 15 percent of the total variation explained in the data. The variables show that both an increase in GDP per capita and median household income both have a significant relationship in which an increase in GDP per capita or median household increases attrition of engineers in the Air Force. This regression model for engineers in figure 16 meets all assumptions of residuals with normality, constant variance, and residuals with a mean of zero. GDP per capita and median household income are the two predictors from the step-wise regression that are used to forecast attrition for engineers for the following two years.

![Figure 16. Engineers Regression on Attrition](image)

```
lm(formula = log(Separation_Count) ~ GDPPerCapita + MedianHHIncome,
data = ss2)
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Residuals:</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>1Q</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>3Q</th>
<th>Max</th>
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<tr>
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<td>-0.38625</td>
<td>0.00284</td>
<td>0.38022</td>
<td>1.97813</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Coefficients: | Estimate | Std. Error | t value | Pr(>|t|) |
|---------------|----------|------------|---------|---------|
| (Intercept)   | -1.038e+01 | 3.149e+00 | -3.296 | 0.001293 ** |
| GDPPerCapita  | 1.249e-04 | 6.056e-05 | 2.062 | 0.041375 * |
| MedianHHIncome| 1.300e-04 | 3.564e-05 | 3.649 | 0.000393 *** |

*** Signif. codes: 0 ‘***’ 0.001 ‘**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1 ‘ ’ 1

Residual standard error: 0.5724 on 119 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.1567, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1425
F-statistic: 11.05 on 2 and 119 DF, p-value: 3.949e-05
4.7.2 Forecasting Independent Variables

Median household income is best forecast using an ARIMA(1,1,1)(1,0,0)[12] model showing that there is seasonality in median household income where the periods defined are 12 months. The model also requires one non-seasonal difference to achieve stationarity, with 1 auto-regressive component (non-seasonal and seasonal) and 1 moving average component (non-seasonal only). The predicted model has a bend in median household income, but overall has a positive trend likely increasing attrition rates over the next two years. GDP Per capita uses a non-seasonal ARIMA(0,2,2) with 2 differences and 2 moving average components to forecast. This was seen in a previous AFSC’s forecasting model where the dip in GDP may affect the best fit of the ARIMA. The model still fits the data well based on the Ljung-Box test and the residual analysis, expecting an increasing GDP per capita in the upcoming years. Figure 17 shows the two independent variables forecasts and confidence intervals for the next two years based on their respective ARIMA models.

Figure 17. Time Series Forecast on Engineering Independent Variables: The light blue region shows 95% confidence region and the dark blue region shows 80% confidence region.
4.7.3 Forecasting Attrition

The forecasts of median household income and GDP per capita show that attrition for engineers is expected to increase in the next few years, predicting about 30 separations per month with an upper 95 percent confidence bound of over 60 officers. Figure 18 suggests that attrition of engineers is trending upwards and may require the attention of leadership to address potential incentives to improve retention. The 95% confidence region contains 6 of 24 forecasted separations when compared with the test data, being 25% accurate but over-predicting attrition in each observation of the forecasted values. Appendix F contains more details on the model’s residuals and model validation.

![Figure 18. Forecast of Engineer Attrition](image)

Figure 18. Forecast of Engineer Attrition
4.8 Acquisitions Career Field Analysis

4.8.1 Regression Analysis of Acquisitions

Acquisitions officers are more associated with business professions and finance. The civilian jobs most closely related to acquisitions and hypothesized to influence attrition rates include business and financial operations occupations, budget analysts, and financial analysts. These variables along with the common economic variables used in each regression finds that the best model to predict the log of acquisition attrition is GDP per capita and business and financial operations occupations. The final model is shown in equation 18.

\[
\log(\text{Attrition}_{\text{Acquisitions}}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times \text{GDP\ Per\ Capita} + \\
\beta_2 \times \text{Business\ and\ Financial\ Operations\ Occupations} 
\]  

(18)

Each independent variable has significant p-values although the business and financial operations occupations has a counter intuitive coefficient showing that as there are more employees moving to business and finance, engineer attrition decreases, meaning the Air Force retains more engineers. GDP per capita shows that as GDP and the economic outlook increases, then engineers leave the Air Force. This regression, shown in figure 19, meets all necessary assumptions in terms of residual analysis and model adequacy, with an R-squared value roughly 19 percent. Moving forward, the analysis of acquisitions predicts the next two years of data for both independent variables found in the regression.
4.8.2 Forecasting Independent Variables

ARIMA modelling in figure 20 predicts business and finance occupations and GDP per capita. The models ARIMA(0,1,2) for GPD per capita and ARIMA(0,2,2) for business and financial occupations both show increasing trends in the data although GDP per capita is expected to slow down in a few years. The forecasts both increase over time but contradict each other in the regression in terms of increasing or decreasing attrition.

Figure 20. Time Series Forecast on Acquisitions Independent Variables: The light blue region shows 95% confidence region and the dark blue region shows 80% confidence region.
4.8.3 Forecasting Attrition

The predicted attrition of acquisition officers in the Air Force is expected to rise in the short term and then drop slowly from about 20 to 18 officer per month. The short rise and then fall is due to the forecasted decreasing GDP per capita over the next two years. GDP per capita is a good driver when predicting attrition in acquisitions and as the GDP per capita decreases, attrition levels should decrease as well. The upper and lower bounds for the 80 and 95 percent confidence intervals spread out quickly with a range of 7 and 13 officers respectively. The key findings with acquisitions, in figure 21, is that it is expected to stay relatively constant at around 20 separations monthly, and retention is expected to increase over time, warranting little concern for manning drastically changing in the near future. The 95% confidence region contains 7 of 24 forecasted separations when compared with the test data. The model analysis for acquisitions officers is shown in Appendix G.
4.9 64P - Contracting Career Field Analysis

4.9.1 Regression Analysis of Contracting

Contracting officers have similar regressors as the acquisitions officers since the two AFSCs generally pull from similarly skilled candidates. This inference is drawn from the requirements of commissioning source programs to enter into these AFSCs. Contracting officers included regressing on civilian employment such as sales occupations and real estate agents to predict attrition. The resulting regression found that attrition of contracting officers is best modeling by employment in services, sales
occupations, and real estate agents. The model described for contractors is shown in equation 19.

\[ \log(Attrition_{Contracting}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times Employment_{in\text{Services}} + \beta_2 \times Sales\text{Occupations} + \beta_3 \times Real\text{Estate}\text{Agents} \]

Sales occupations and employment in services both have a p-value less than 0.05. Real estate agents have a low p-value, and is felt close enough to the \( \alpha = 0.05 \) that it is retained in the model. The model explains roughly 13 percent of the variance in the data. The model described is shown in figure 22.

```
lm(formula = log(Separation_Count) ~ EmploymentInServices + Sales.Occupations + Real.Estate.Agents, data = ss2)
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Residuals:</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>1Q</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>3Q</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-1.80772</td>
<td>-0.35943</td>
<td>-0.02713</td>
<td>0.31830</td>
<td>1.72389</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Coefficients: | Estimate | Std. Error | t value | Pr(>|t|) |
|---------------|----------|------------|---------|---------|
| (Intercept)   | 2.089e+01 | 7.061e+00 | 2.959   | 0.00370 ** |
| EmploymentInServices | -2.102e-01 | 6.611e-02 | -3.180 | 0.00186 ** |
| Sales.Occupations | -4.088e-07 | 2.048e-07 | -1.996 | 0.04815 * |
| Real.Estate.Agents | 1.989e-05 | 1.094e-05 | 1.818 | 0.07153 . |

Signif. codes: 0 ‘***’ 0.001 ‘**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1 ‘ ’ 1

Residual standard error: 0.6173 on 123 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.1569, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1363
F-statistic: 7.628 on 3 and 123 DF, p-value: 0.0001018

**Figure 22. Regression on Contracting Attrition**

### 4.9.2 Forecasting Independent Variables

With contracting there are three independent variables requiring forecasting, increasing the potential variability associated in predicting overall attrition. Predicting three variables increases overall uncertainty in the model, but also adds more regressors and therefore explains more of the variance in the data. Employment in services...
is best fit using ARIMA(0,1,2), sales occupation using ARIMA(1,2,1), and real estate agents with ARIMA(2,2,0). The ARIMA models for each of the three independent variables described are shown in figure 23. Slight increases in employment in services and sales occupations are expected with almost no change expected for real estate agents by the Box-Jenkins (ARIMA) models. The combination of all three forecasts affects predicted attrition of contracting officers for the next 12 months. The forecasts are curtailed by one year because of the recession in 2008 and the observations during and the recession are removed as outliers. ARIMA modelling requires continuity, so the observations prior to the recession are also removed to satisfy the assumptions of the model. The forecasts following removal of observations cover one year beyond the last observation in March 2016.
4.9.3 Forecasting Attrition

The combination of three variables in the original regression yields results that predict a decrease in attrition for contracting officers. The attrition of contracting officers is shown in figure 24 predicting the next 12 months. The vertical scale of the graph is misleading as it still predicts a monthly separation of about four officers per month regardless of the visual decrease in the graph. The forecast does not predict much change over the next two years for contracting officers, which is expected given that each of the variables used to assess attrition for this career field have constant forecasts to the current conditions. The 95% confidence region contains 0 of 12
forecasted separations when compared with the test data because the bounds of the confidence interval are between 4 and 5 officers per month. Appendix H contains details on this model.

![Figure 24. Forecasts of Contracting Attrition](image)

4.10 Concluding Remarks

Based on the sample of eight officer AFSCs, there is merit to using common variables to help model attrition. However, data on military officer attrition is very noisy, so none of the models do exceptionally well in explaining the variability in the data and none really provide confidence bounds on future predictions that adequately cover the realized attrition values.
V. Conclusions and Future Research

5.1 Review

The United States Air Force has a complex system for recruiting and promotion, which needs to retain current talent to properly function. Understanding the factors that may cause attrition levels to increase, and predicting future attrition levels will inform leadership of at-risk AFSCs in terms of manning. Additionally, predicting influxes in attrition will help recruiting and assessing incentive programs for career fields. Gaining relevant information to the retention problem by AFSC will create a more stable and capable U.S. Air Force.

5.2 Results

The results from the analysis show that AFSCs have a relationship with comparable jobs in the civilian sector. Seven of the eight AFSCs in the study show significant results when using civilian employment to predict attrition. Only one, 62E (Engineers), were more receptive to overall economic conditions as the influential factors. We also find that attrition in the Air Force does not increase or decrease uniformly by AFSC, but rather individually, suggesting models be tailored specifically to the AFSC in order to best predict attrition. Table 3 shows the consolidated results of each AFSC, showing the overall trend of the AFSC’s attrition, the expected monthly attrition rate currently, a year from now, and two years from now. The percentage is measured by the monthly attrition divided by the number assigned to the AFSC. This shows the monthly percentage expected to separate from the Air Force. OR analysts and contractors have an NA two years from now to show that the forecasts are not made available due to insufficient data.
Table 3. Table of all AFSC Attrition Forecasts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Air Force Specialty Codes</th>
<th>Rate of Attrition</th>
<th>Current Attrition Forecast (%)</th>
<th>One Year Attrition Forecast (%)</th>
<th>Two Year Attrition Forecast (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11X - Pilots</td>
<td>Increasing</td>
<td>94 (0.6%)</td>
<td>100 (0.7%)</td>
<td>107 (0.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17D - Cyber</td>
<td>Decreasing</td>
<td>13 (0.5%)</td>
<td>10 (0.3%)</td>
<td>7 (0.02%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31P - Security Forces</td>
<td>Decreasing</td>
<td>6 (0.9%)</td>
<td>5 (0.8%)</td>
<td>5 (0.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32E - Civil Engineer</td>
<td>Increasing</td>
<td>10 (0.9%)</td>
<td>11 (0.9%)</td>
<td>13 (1.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61A - OR Analyst</td>
<td>Decreasing</td>
<td>3 (0.5%)</td>
<td>3 (0.4%)</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62E - Engineers</td>
<td>Increasing</td>
<td>24 (0.7%)</td>
<td>29 (0.8%)</td>
<td>35 (1.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63A - Acquisitions</td>
<td>Decreasing</td>
<td>20 (0.9%)</td>
<td>20 (0.9%)</td>
<td>19 (0.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64P - Contracting</td>
<td>Decreasing</td>
<td>4 (0.53%)</td>
<td>4 (0.51%)</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.3 Recommendations

The analysis shows varied results by AFSC in terms of predicting attrition rates. The recommendation is for leadership to gain insights into the direction of attrition for each AFSC and evaluate the percent separation each AFSC can afford to lose. Given this evaluation, leadership can make decisions on the incentive programs necessary to retain the desired level of officers for each AFSC.

An additional recommendation is consider this analysis when setting recruiting goals, particularly evaluating the employment trends of the variables found in this study, shown in Table 4. Increasing the number of officers for highly contested career fields may be necessary to meet manning levels and provide a capable Air Force.

Table 4. Significant Factors Predicting Attrition by AFSC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AFSC Code</th>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11X</td>
<td>Commercial Pilots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17D</td>
<td>Computer Programmers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31P</td>
<td>GDP Per Capita, Police Officers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32E</td>
<td>Job Openings, Construction Occupations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61A</td>
<td>Employment in Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62E</td>
<td>Median Household Income, GDP Per Capita</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63A</td>
<td>GDP Per Capita, Business and Financial Operations Occupations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64P</td>
<td>Employment in Services, Sales Occupations, Real Estate Agents</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.4 Future Research

Forecasting human behavior is difficult. Humans are irrational beings and highly unpredictable, but correlations between attrition and common data do exist and there is more data to provide greater forecasts. A key indicator for predicting attrition is years of service and the demographics associated with an individual. Prior to forecasting attrition levels based on economic conditions the individual officer could be studied to determine the likelihood of separation. The economic conditions should be considered an afterthought, following a logistic regression to predict individual separation. There is difficulty obtaining the personally identifiable information data and having access to analyze each individual on a big data scale.

Predicting individual retention is necessary, but more economic factors can easily be obtained to predict attrition. The quality of data is more questionable than the access of economic data. Most of the data gathered in this analysis was either quarterly or biannual, causing problems predicting monthly data. Aggregating the number of separations monthly to annually may be more accurate in predicting attrition levels. Monthly attrition rates have large variation, and a single estimate of highly variable data is not useful. The confidence intervals associated with the forecasts are also not the most accurate predictions of the data, which likely stems from low R-squared values in the regressions. Aggregating the monthly separations, finding more employment factors for regression, and ensuring better quality data could be better for predictive purposes and used to extend this research.

Overall attrition can be better modelled by combining the prediction of individual attrition and introducing more regressors to the model to increase the $R^2$ values for each regression. This would increase predictive accuracy for attrition, but understanding manning in a career field is dependent on recruitment as well. Incorporating a growth of recruitment model may prove beneficial to achieve desired manning levels.
for each AFSC and retain capable officers in the Air Force.
Appendix A: Pilot Model Adequacy

Figures 25-27 provide model adequacy evaluations for pilots and the independent variables of the regression for this AFSC. The regression model adequacy is evaluated based on the distribution of the residuals centered around zero, and the constant variance of the residuals for regression.

The residuals below are the residuals for the independent variables associated in the regression model for this AFSC, and the residual analysis shows the distribution of errors along with the autocorrelation of the data.
The last plot shows model validation for this AFSC, by comparing the forecasted values to the actual values of the separation count.

Figure 27. Pilot Forecast Model Validation
Appendix B: Cyber Model Adequacy

Figures 28-30 provide model adequacy evaluations for cyber and the independent variables of the regression for this AFSC. The regression model adequacy is evaluated based on the distribution of the residuals centered around zero, and the constant variance of the residuals for regression.

![Figure 28. Cyber Regression Residual Analysis](image)

The residuals below are the residuals for the independent variables associated in the regression model for this AFSC, and the residual analysis shows the distribution of errors along with the autocorrelation of the data.

![Figure 29. Cyber Variable ARIMA Residual Analysis](image)
The last plot shows model validation for this AFSC, by comparing the forecasted values to the actual values of the separation count.

Figure 30. Cyber Forecast Model Validation
Appendix C: Security Forces Model Adequacy

Figures 31-33 provide model adequacy evaluations for security forces and the independent variables of the regression for this AFSC. The regression model adequacy is evaluated based on the distribution of the residuals centered around zero, and the constant variance of the residuals for regression.

Figure 31. Security Forces Regression Residual Analysis

The residuals below are the residuals for the independent variables associated in the regression model for this AFSC, and the residual analysis shows the distribution of errors along with the autocorrelation of the data.

Figure 32. Security Forces Variable ARIMA Residual Analysis
The last plot shows model validation for this AFSC, by comparing the forecasted values to the actual values of the separation count.

Figure 33. Security Forces Forecast Model Validation
Appendix D: Civil Engineer Model Adequacy

Figures 34-36 provide model adequacy evaluations for civil engineers and the independent variables of the regression for this AFSC. The regression model adequacy is evaluated based on the distribution of the residuals centered around zero, and the constant variance of the residuals for regression.

![Civil Engineer Regression Residual Analysis](image1)

**Figure 34. Civil Engineer Regression Residual Analysis**

The residuals below are the residuals for the independent variables associated in the regression model for this AFSC, and the residual analysis shows the distribution of errors along with the autocorrelation of the data.

![Civil Engineer Variable ARIMA Residual Analysis](image2)

**Figure 35. Civil Engineer Variable ARIMA Residual Analysis**
The last plot shows model validation for this AFSC, by comparing the forecasted values to the actual values of the separation count.

Figure 36. Civil Engineer Forecast Model Validation
Appendix E: Analyst Model Adequacy

Figures 37-39 provide model adequacy evaluations for analysts and the independent variables of the regression for this AFSC. The regression model adequacy is evaluated based on the distribution of the residuals centered around zero, and the constant variance of the residuals for regression.

![Figure 37. Analyst Regression Residual Analysis](image)

The residuals below are the residuals for the independent variables associated in the regression model for this AFSC, and the residual analysis shows the distribution of errors along with the autocorrelation of the data.

![Figure 38. Analyst Variable ARIMA Residual Analysis](image)
The last plot shows model validation for this AFSC, by comparing the forecasted values to the actual values of the separation count.

Figure 39. Analyst Forecast Model Validation
Appendix F: Engineer Model Adequacy

Figures 40-42 provide model adequacy evaluations for engineers and the independent variables of the regression for this AFSC. The regression model adequacy is evaluated based on the distribution of the residuals centered around zero, and the constant variance of the residuals for regression.

![Figure 40. Engineer Regression Residual Analysis](image1)

The residuals below are the residuals for the independent variables associated in the regression model for this AFSC, and the residual analysis shows the distribution of errors along with the autocorrelation of the data.

![Figure 41. Engineer Variable ARIMA Residual Analysis](image2)
The last plot shows model validation for this AFSC, by comparing the forecasted values to the actual values of the separation count.

Figure 42. Engineer Forecast Model Validation
Appendix G: Civil Engineer Model Adequacy

Figures 43-45 provide model adequacy evaluations for acquisitions and the independent variables of the regression for this AFSC. The regression model adequacy is evaluated based on the distribution of the residuals centered around zero, and the constant variance of the residuals for regression.

The residuals below are the residuals for the independent variables associated in the regression model for this AFSC, and the residual analysis shows the distribution of errors along with the autocorrelation of the data.
The last plot shows model validation for this AFSC, by comparing the forecasted values to the actual values of the separation count.

Figure 45. Acquisitions Forecast Model Validation
Appendix H: Acquisitions Model Adequacy

Figures 46-48 provide model adequacy evaluations for contracting and the independent variables of the regression for this AFSC. The regression model adequacy is evaluated based on the distribution of the residuals centered around zero, and the constant variance of the residuals for regression.

The residuals below are the residuals for the independent variables associated in the regression model for this AFSC, and the residual analysis shows the distribution of errors along with the autocorrelation of the data.

The last plot shows model validation for this AFSC, by comparing the forecasted values to the actual values of the separation count.
Figure 48. Contracting Forecast Model Validation
Appendix I: Example R Code for Pilot AFSC

```r
## Pilots

# Load in all necessary packages to perform analysis
pacman::p_load(dplyr,
    ggplot2,
    DMwR,
    tidyverse,
    tidyr,
    VIM,
    usdm,
    fitdistrplus,
    forecast,
    Metrics,
    GGally,
    seasonal,
    urca,
    GGally,
    reshape2)

# Read in the clean dataset to begin analysis. Need to ensure that
# the date variable is formatted as a date.
MasterDataset <- read.csv("~/Thesis - My Data/MasterDataset.csv")
MasterDataset$EOP_Date<-as.Date(MasterDataset$EOP_Date)

# Creating a subset for regression techniques. Again, they are
# specific to the AFSC, so the subsets are by AFSC.
# Note that the subset is just a branch off the master dataset so not
to overwrite the master.
```
#I then create more subsets from ss1 if I wish to look at more specific variables.

#These are also done by each lag, whether it is 6 months or 12 months. Cleaning up the dataset by AFSC.

```r
PilotData <- subset(MasterDataset, AFS == "11X")
PilotData$Separation_Count[c(36,90,119,120,124)] <- NA
PilotData <- PilotData[,c(1:14,44,45,50,51)]
```

#For data that is not monthly, use a moving average to smooth data over time, rather than have the same number for multiple entries.

```r
PilotData$Airline.Pilots <- ma(ts(PilotData$Airline.Pilots, frequency =12),12)
PilotData$Commercial.Pilots <- ma(ts(PilotData$Commercial.Pilots, frequency =12),12)
PilotData$EmploymentInServices <- ma(ts(PilotData$EmploymentInServices, frequency =12),12)
PilotData$MedianHHIncome <- ma(ts(PilotData$MedianHHIncome, frequency =12),12)
PilotData$GDPPerCapita <- ma(ts(PilotData$GDPPerCapita, frequency =12),12)
PilotData$MilExpenditures <- ma(ts(PilotData$MilExpenditures, frequency =12),12)
PilotData$ArmedForcesTotalPersonnel <- ma(ts(PilotData$ArmedForcesTotalPersonnel, frequency =12),12)
```

HoldingData <- knnImputation(PilotData[,-c(1,2,3)],31)
PilotData <- cbind.data.frame(PilotData[,c(1,2,3)],HoldingData)

#Shorten the subset due to the recession. This gets rid of extreme values that were caused due to the recession, providing more accurate forecasts.

#Also curtail the subset by the last 24 observations for a
validation set of two years. Lastly, keep the columns that will be used in the regression.

```r
ss2 <- PilotData[-c(1:64, 122:156), c(4:16)]
ss2 <- ss2[, -10]

# Using linear regression on separation count
plot(PilotData$EOP_Date, PilotData$Separation_Count)

# Use stepwise regression on the entire dataset to get a feel for the data.
predict1.object <- lm(formula = log(Separation_Count) ~ ., data = ss2)
predict1 <- step(predict1.object)
summary(predict1)

# Reduce the regressor variables to get rid of multicollinearity and check the variance inflation factors to ensure they are below a threshold of 10.
ss2 <- ss2[, c(1, 3, 5, 6, 11, 12)]
vif(ss2)

# Run the reduced dataset through another stepwise regression, excluding multicollinear terms to find the best regression based on AIC.
predict1.object <- lm(formula = log(Separation_Count) ~ ., data = ss2)
predict1 <- step(predict1.object)
summary(predict1.object)
```
# Reduce the subset to the regressor variables found in the final regression.
# Check relationship between all of the variables in the regression.
ss2 <- ss2[, c(1, 5)]
ggpairs(ss2)

# Perform residual analysis to ensure the residuals meet all assumptions for regression analysis.
qqnorm(predict1$residuals, datax = TRUE)
qqline(predict1$residuals, datax = TRUE)
plot(predict1$residuals, pnorm(predict1$residuals))
plot(predict1)

# Check the distribution of residuals.
plotdist(predict1$residuals, histo = TRUE, demp = TRUE)

# Plotting Arima for separation count. Not used for analysis, but gives an estimate of what we expect from the upcoming separation count.
plot(PilotData$EOP_Date, PilotData$Separation_Count)
DataTimeSeries <- ts(ss2$Separation_Count, frequency = 12)
MyArima <- auto.arima(DataTimeSeries)
plot(MyArima)
plot(forecast(MyArima))

# Begin ARIMA Forecasting on Independent variables that were significant in the regression.
# For pilots we found Commercial.Pilots as the only significant variable in the regression.

# Plot the data for commercial pilot employment.
plot(PilotData$EOP_Date, PilotData$Commercial.Pilots)

# Create a time series vector of the data.
DataTimeSeries <- ts(ss2$Commercial.Pilots, frequency=12)

# Use auto.arima to get a feel for the model needed. Subject to updates based on the complexity of the model.
MyArima <- auto.arima(DataTimeSeries, approximation = FALSE)

# Plot the roots to ensure all points are within the unit circle.
plot(MyArima)

# Get a visual plot of the ARIMA model.
plot(forecast(MyArima))

# Rerun the arima model to find a balance between predictive accuracy, residual analysis, autocorrelation analysis, and model complexity.
MyArima <- arima(ss2$Commercial.Pilots, order = c(0,1,1), seasonal = list(order = c(0,1,1)))
MyArima

# Forecast the updated ARIMA model for the next 24 months, with the default confidence bounds of 95% and 80%.
MyForecast <- forecast(MyArima, h=24)

# Plot the forecast of the data and clean up the axes for better presenting the data.
autoplot(MyForecast)+ggtitle("Forecast: ARIMA(0,1,1) for Commercial Pilots")+xlab("Time (Months)")+ylab("Commercial Pilot Employment")+theme(text = element_text(size = 15))

# Check the residuals of the forecast and model to ensure the model meets all assumptions.
checkresiduals(MyForecast)

# Store upper and lower confidence bounds at the 80% and 95% confidence level into a data frame.
# Do the same for the expected separation level. This will be beneficial for plotting later.
Upper<-as.data.frame(MyForecast$upper)
Lower<-as.data.frame(MyForecast$lower)
Average<-as.data.frame(MyForecast$mean)

# Compile each confidence bound and the expected separation into a single data frame and rename the columns.
PilotForecast2<-as.data.frame(Upper)
PilotForecast2<-cbind.data.frame(PilotForecast2,Lower)
PilotForecast2<-cbind(PilotForecast2,Average)
colnames(PilotForecast2)<-c("CP Upper 80%", "CP Upper 95%","CP Lower 80%", "CP Lower 95%","CP Expected")

# Create Dates

# Create the forecast date for the x-axis when plotting the data.
ForecastDate<- seq(as.Date("2015-11-01"), length=24, by="1 month") - 1

# Compile Dates
# Compile each variables confidence intervals and expected separation.
. In this case we only have one.

PilotForecasts <- cbind.data.frame(PilotForecast2)

# Add the forecast dates onto the data.
PilotForecasts <- cbind(ForecastDate, PilotForecasts)

# Begin inserting back to linear regression.
# Use the respective bounds for each variable to calculate the bounds
# on attrition.

predict1$coefficients

PilotForecasts$ExpectedSeparation <- exp(predict1$coefficients[1] +
                                         predict1$coefficients[2] *
                                         PilotForecasts$'CP Expected')

PilotForecasts$Upper95 <- exp(predict1$coefficients[1] +
                               predict1$coefficients[2] *
                               PilotForecasts$'CP Upper 95%')

PilotForecasts$Lower95 <- exp(predict1$coefficients[1] +
                              predict1$coefficients[2] *
                              PilotForecasts$'CP Lower 95%')

PilotForecasts$Upper80 <- exp(predict1$coefficients[1] +
                             predict1$coefficients[2] *
                             PilotForecasts$'CP Upper 80%')

# Subset the necessary columns for plotting.
PilotForecastSub <- PilotForecasts[,c(1,7:11)]

# Then rearrange your data frame using the melt function. This helps when plotting.
PilotForecastSub <- melt(PilotForecastSub, id=c("ForecastDate"))

# Plot the forecasts for separation for each confidence bound and expected separation.
ggplot(PilotForecastSub) + geom_line(aes(x=ForecastDate, y=value, colour = variable), size = 1) + scale_colour_manual(values=c("blue","red","red","orange","orange")) +
  #geom_point(data = PilotData, aes(x = EOP_Date, y = Separation_Count), color = "blue", size = 1)+
  xlab('Date: (YYYY - MM)') + ylab('Predicted Separation') + ggtitle("Predicted Separation", subtitle = "11X - Pilots") + theme(text = element_text(size = 15)) + labs(color='Confidence Bounds')

# Model Validation
Separate the test data to compare with the forecasted data.

PilotForecasts$Actual <- PilotData$Separation_Count[133:156]

## Plot the Data

## Subset the necessary columns

PilotForecastSub2 <- PilotForecasts[,c(1,7:12)]

## Then rearrange your data frame

library(reshape2)

PilotForecastSub2 <- melt(PilotForecastSub2, id=c("ForecastDate"))

# Plot the forecasts from above but include the actual values from the test data to compare accuracy.

ggplot(PilotForecastSub2) + geom_line(aes(x=ForecastDate, y=value, colour = variable), size = 1) +
  scale_colour_manual(values=c("blue","red","red","orange","orange","black")) +
  geom_point(data = PilotForecasts, aes(x = EOP_Date, y = Actual),
  color = "Black", size = 5) +
  xlab('Date: (YYYY - MM)') +
  ylab('Predicted Separation') +
  ggtitle("Predicted Separation", subtitle = "11X - Pilots") +
  theme(text = element_text(size = 15)) +
  labs(color='Confidence Bounds')

# Calculate the monthly percentage for separation. Use the forecast over the assigned number of officers to the career field.

PilotForecasts$ExpectedSeparation[24]/PilotData$Assigned[156]

# Count the number of separation for a given month from 1 to 14

PilotForecasts$ExpectedSeparation[24]

# Calculate the root mean squared error of the forecasts for validation purposes.
MeanError <- mean(PilotForecasts$ExpectedSeparation - PilotData$Separation_Count[133:156])

RootMeanSquareError <- sqrt(mean((PilotForecasts$ExpectedSeparation - PilotData$Separation_Count[133:156])^2))
Bibliography


FORECASTING ATTRITION BY AFSC FOR THE UNITED STATES AIR FORCE

Retention is a challenge for every organization, particularly the military due to its hierarchical structure and barriers to entry. Talent must be grown, retained and developed to become leaders. The Air Force faces a unique retention problem with that requires a unique perspective and tailored solution to each Air Force Specialty Code. There exists previous efforts to predict attrition rates in the Air Force based on economic factors. This study expands upon the economic factors and tailors the predictor variables of attrition based on the AFSC hypothesizing that AFSC attrition relates to comparable civilian jobs and their employment. The methodology identifies the key factors influencing attrition, creates forecasts for the variables, and reintroduces the forecasts of the variables into the original regression to provide forecasts of expected attrition along with confidence regions. This study finds that seven of the eight AFSCs show a relationship with comparable employment in the civilian sector. More insights show that AFSCs have different predictor variables and should be modelled separately to capture the trends for each specific AFSC.

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