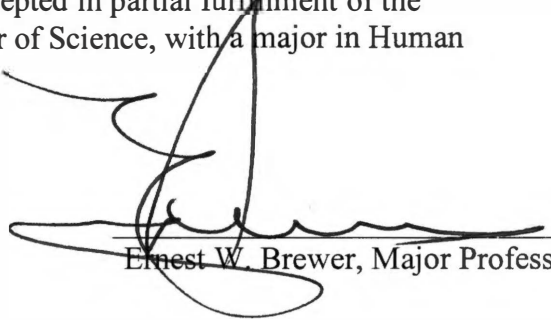


To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a thesis written by Angela Marie Hill entitled "Job Characteristics and Job Satisfaction Among Law Enforcement Officers in Tennessee." I have examined the final paper copy of the thesis for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science, with a major in Human Resource Development.

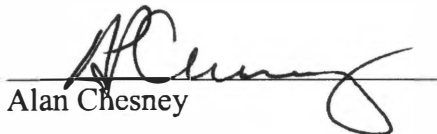


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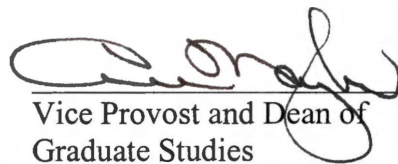


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Accepted for the Council:



Vice Provost and Dean of
Graduate Studies

**JOB CHARACTERISTICS AND JOB SATISFACTION AMONG
LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICERS IN TENNESSEE**

**A Thesis
Presented for the
Master of Science
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville**

**Angela Marie Hill
August 2002**

Thesis
2002
. H555

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“As iron sharpens iron, so one person sharpens another.” Proverbs

Without the support, love, and constant encouragement of those around me, this road would have been much rougher. I believe that it is through the people that have been in my life that I have been able to accomplish what I have.

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ABSTRACT

The main purpose in conducting this study was to examine the relationship between certain job characteristics and job satisfaction among police officers. A second purpose was to find any significant differences between job satisfaction and such demographic factors as working status, age, gender, marital status, ethnicity, education, years of experience, intention to leave employer, intention to leave field, complaints, and lawsuits status.

The researcher surveyed 465 participants who were members of the Fraternal Order of Police in Tennessee. The respondents were sent a booklet containing demographic questions, intent to leave questions, complaints and lawsuit questions, and 2 surveys: the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) for assessing overall level of job satisfaction and the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) for assessing job characteristics. A total of 281 participants responded (63.4%) the majority of whom were married White males.

Statistical methods utilized in this study included calculating means, standard deviations, one-way analysis of variances (.05 level of probability with 95% confidence interval), multiple analyses of variances, and Tukey tests for significance. Finally, the Pearson *r* test was used to test any relationships between job characteristics and JSS total or JSS subscales.

Major findings of the study showed that (a) officers who are retired or no longer working in the law enforcement field were less satisfied with supervision, contingent rewards, and co-workers but more satisfied with benefits than respondents currently working in the field; (b) as law enforcement officers grew older and as their experience as officers grew, they were more likely to become less satisfied with supervision in their

departments, and (c) officers intending to leave their employer or the field of law enforcement in the next five years were less satisfied overall than were officers planning to stay, and officers intending to leave their employer were less satisfied with pay, promotion, contingent rewards, and communication than were officers intending to stay with the employer. Further, results showed that 19% of the variability in the JSS could be attributed to autonomy, task identity, skill variety, significance, and feedback; autonomy and feedback were significant in predicting job satisfaction.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Job stress and burnout have become major problems facing managers and employers. Gone unresolved, stress and burnout could result in increased absenteeism, lost productivity, and health problems (Wright, 1986) that could be costly to employers through worker's compensation and other expenses (Suttle, 2000). In particular, certain stressors related mainly to law enforcement have made it imperative to study these causes. Demands of the police profession have resulted in stress, burnout, and cynicism, which have caused reduced performance (Graves, 1996). In addition, stress has been shown to negatively impact an officer's marriage (Roberts & Levenson, 2001). Officers suffering from burnout have experienced emotional disturbances such as depression, alcohol or drug use, interpersonal problems, and suicide (Machell, 1993).

It has been shown that job stress and burnout have occurred when an employee has experienced low job satisfaction (Barkdoll, 1991). Employees with low job satisfaction have been found to experience many of the same effects as employees with high stress and burnout, such as decreased company commitment (Clugston, 2000) and increased problems in their relationships (Maslach & Jackson, 1979). In addition, low job satisfaction has been linked directly to workplace misconduct (Huiras, Uggen, & McMorris, 2000), which has been a serious problem relative to the police profession because officers must deal with the public on a daily basis, not just casually but in extreme situations that require absolute professionalism. Officers suffering burnout could become cynical, emotionally calloused, hardened by the job, and eventually could exhibit a total lack of compassion for citizens (Anderson, 1998). Since it has been shown that

officers with high job satisfaction were more likely to hold professional attitudes than officer with low job satisfaction (Schnitzius & Lester, 1980), it has become imperative that police departments get the information they need to increase job satisfaction among their force.

Statement of the Problem

The primary purpose of the study was to find out whether or not job characteristics such as skill variety, task identity, autonomy, feedback-from-job, and task significance were related to job satisfaction among law enforcement officers in Tennessee. In addition, demographic factors, intention to leave questions, and questions on the number of complaints and lawsuits against the officer were collected, and responses were analyzed for significance with job satisfaction. If such factors varied significantly in relation to job satisfaction, knowing this could help police administration change, enhance, or develop strategies to improve officers' work environment.

Theoretical Framework

Different theories exist on the topic of job satisfaction. To be discussed in this section is a general overview of several job satisfaction theories. At the end of this section is a look at the theory that was used as the base of this study.

The theory of human motivation proposed by Maslow (1970) concentrated on ways of achieving satisfaction in life, but many aspects of his theory also applied to the workplace. Superficially, explaining the Hierarchy of Needs, which said that every person lives his or her life according to a specific level of needs, can sum up his work.

The first need that must be met to proceed toward satisfaction was physiological needs, hunger being the primary element in this group. Once that first need was met, a

person yearned to satiate the next higher need, in this case, the safety need. This was the need to be secure, stable, protected, free from fear, free from anxiety, and free from chaos. Again, once the safety need was met, according to Maslow (1970), the person desired to satisfy the next need, the belongingness and love need. This was the hungering for affectionate relationships with people in general and for a place within a group or family (Maslow).

If this need were met, a person would attempt to satisfy their esteem need, which was the need for a stable, firmly based, high evaluation of themselves. They desired to have a high level of self-respect and self-esteem, as well as have the high esteem of others. Finally, if one had met all these needs, according to Maslow (1970), he or she would seek self-actualization. This was the need to do what the person was meant to do, what he or she was suited to do in life, whether that is a musician, a parent, or a plumber (Maslow).

Relating Maslow's theory to job satisfaction was fairly straightforward. Each of these needs could be related to work. To satisfy the physiological need, one must get paid enough to get food. Satisfying the safety need at work could mean keeping the work site safe and hazard-free as well as having job-security, stability, and being free from chaotic events. The belongingness need at work could be the need to get along with coworkers, and the esteem need could be desire to be respected by peers and to be given encouragement and feedback from one's supervisor. Finally, the self-actualization need was the importance of a person finding a job that suited him or her. That could mean quitting and finding a job that satisfied that need. Maslow (1970) said that he had helped people who had lost their zest in life, had general self-dislike, and suffered from

depression get better when they were given an opportunity to do what satisfied them in their job, that is, a job that helped them become self-actualized. In Maslow's view, an organization could not run optimally unless it gave its employees a way to satisfy their needs. His theories were closely related to this study's examination of coworkers, supervision skills, and the job itself in relation to job satisfaction (Maslow).

A second theorist, Herzberg (1968), proposed a theory based on a study conducted by him and some associates. They used a survey that asked working people when they had felt particularly enthusiastic and satisfied at work and when they had felt dissatisfied and frustrated. The results of this study were the basis of Herzberg's theory of motivation and hygiene, which stated that people derived the majority of their satisfaction and enjoyment of work from the work itself, and the majority of their dissatisfaction from things such as supervisory practices, company policies, pay, benefits, and working conditions. Since the dissatisfying factors were primarily in the environment and served little to effect positive job attitudes, they were called hygiene factors. The job itself or the satisfying factors were named motivators, because they motivated the individual to superior performance and self-actualization. The theories of Maslow (1970) and Herzberg were varying viewpoints on similar subjects. Interestingly, they did not contrast, but complemented each other; both showed that motivation came from achieving the next level, either through a hierarchy (Maslow) or through achieving performance and satisfaction at work (Herzberg).

The third theory was the cornerstone of this study. It also tied in neatly with Maslow and Herzberg's theories of job satisfaction, yet it took a unique look at the picture. Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics model proposed that certain

job characteristics were antecedents to psychological states of employees who, in turn, influenced work-related outcomes. These job characteristics included

1. Dealing with others (the degree to which the job requires one to interact and deal with multiple others),
2. Skill variety (the need for many different skills to accomplish job tasks),
3. Task identity (the completion of a whole task or piece of work),
4. Task significance (the degree to which a job affects others or their work in the organization; work independence),
5. Autonomy (the freedom, independence, and discretion in scheduling or carrying out work assignments),
6. Feedback from the work itself (about one's work performance), and
7. Feedback from others (about one's work performance). (p. 90)

As can be seen in Figure 1, Hackman and Oldham (1980) theorized that as particular job characteristics improved, workers' critical psychological states were enhanced. In particular, a worker's experienced meaningfulness of work, the experienced responsibility for work, and the actual knowledge of work were improved. These outcomes were predicted to influence work outcomes. Work outcomes included internal work motivation, growth satisfaction, general satisfaction, and work effectiveness. Hackman and Oldham did have one disclaimer, however, and that was that relationships could be moderated by such factors as a worker's level of skill, need for growth and development, and satisfaction with coworkers, supervisors, pay, or other relevant variables. This current study was designed to examine the job characteristics in Hackman and Oldham's model to find whether or not there was a relationship between those characteristics and job satisfaction in the police field.

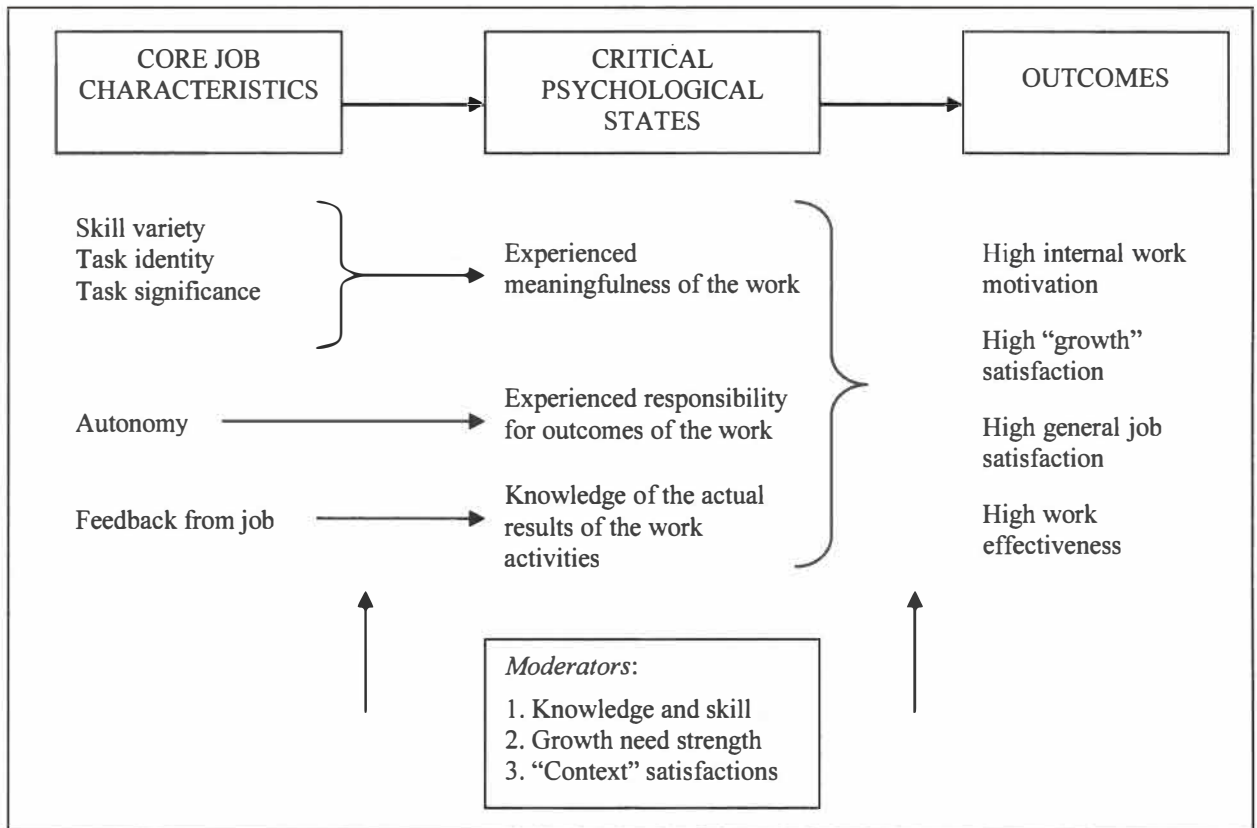


Figure 1. The Complete Job Characteristics Model.

Note: From *Work Redesign* (p. 90), by J.R. Hackman and G.R. Oldham, 1980, Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley. Copyright 1980 by Pearson Education, Inc: Upper Saddle River, N.J. Reprinted with permission. See appendix A for documentation.

Purpose of the Study

The researcher's purpose in this study was to examine the relationship between certain job characteristics and job satisfaction among police officers. The characteristics were skill variety, task identity, autonomy, feedback-from-job, and task significance. A second purpose was to identify any significant differences between job satisfaction and demographic factors such as working status, age, gender, marital status, ethnicity, education level, and years of experience. Finally, data were gathered and examined for any significant differences between job satisfaction and intention to leave employer, intention to leave the field of law enforcement, number of complaints, and number of lawsuits filed against the officer.

Hypotheses

Although researchers have studied relationships between job satisfaction of police officers and certain job characteristics, further study was needed to substantiate or invalidate the findings. Conclusions made by researchers on this topic formed the basis of the hypotheses for this study. This study examined the following 12 null hypotheses:

- H₀1: There is no significant difference between police officers' levels of job satisfaction based on their working status.
- H₀2: There is no significant difference between police officers' levels of job satisfaction based on their age.
- H₀3: There is no significant difference between police officers' levels of job satisfaction based on their gender.
- H₀4: There is no significant difference between police officers' levels of job satisfaction based on their marital status.
- H₀5: There is no significant difference between police officers' levels of job satisfaction based on their ethnicity.

- H₀₆: There is no significant difference between police officers' levels of job satisfaction based on their education level.
- H₀₇: There is no significant difference between police officers' levels of job satisfaction based on their years of experience.
- H₀₈: There is no significant difference between police officers' levels of job satisfaction based on their intention to leave their employer.
- H₀₉: There is no significant difference between police officers' levels of job satisfaction based on their intention to leave the field of law enforcement.
- H₀₁₀: There is no significant relationship between police officers' levels of job satisfaction based on the number of complaints against them.
- H₀₁₁: There is no significant relationship between their levels of job satisfaction based on the number of lawsuits filed against the officer in relation to his or her job.
- H₀₁₂: There is no significant relationship between police officers' levels of job satisfaction based on their job characteristics.

Assumptions

To accurately assess the validity of the findings of this study, it was necessary to examine the assumptions underlying the study. If any of the assumptions were not true, it could have affected the results and conclusions. The investigation of sources of job satisfaction among police officers was based on the following assumptions:

1. It was possible to identify sources of job satisfaction among police officers collectively and specifically by means of two survey instruments.
2. Respondents provided truthful and accurate data.
3. Respondents had certain perceptions and experiences about their jobs that were useful for this study.
4. Officers listed on the Fraternal Order of Police database were representative of all officers in Tennessee.

Delimitations

Delimitations were any restrictions put on the research process by the researcher. For this particular study, it was important to note certain population limitations of the research. The following delimitations were recognized in this study:

1. The police population was delimited to police officers in Tennessee.
2. The police population was delimited to members of the Fraternal Order of Police in Tennessee.

Limitations

Limitations were restrictions that are outside of the researcher's control but nevertheless could have affected the study results. Although the items noted below could have affected the number of surveys received or the demographics of the participant results, they were expected to negatively affect the conclusions of the research. Four limitations were noted for this study:

1. The police sample was limited to those who voluntarily chose to take the survey and to send it back within the allotted amount of time.
2. The police population was limited by the fact that not all officers in Tennessee were members of the Fraternal Order of Police.
3. The police population was limited in that there were many more males than females who worked as police officers.
4. The police population was limited in that there were many more White officers than officers of other ethnicities in Tennessee.

Definition of Terms

Definitions of words relevant to this study have been defined to give brief, concise meaning to otherwise broad terms. In particular, the terms *burnout* and *job stress* were related terms that have not been measured directly, but have been closely related to

job satisfaction and were discussed in the literature review. The terms *skill variety*, *task identity*, *autonomy*, *feedback-from-job*, and *task significance* and *job satisfaction* were measured in the study. The following terms have been defined for the purposes of this study:

1. *Age*. The length of time that one has existed (*American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language*, 2000). This study focused on individuals who were in the following age categories: (a) under 21 years of age, (b) 21-30 years of age, (c) 31-40 years of age, (d) 41-50 years of age, (e) 51-60 years of age, and (f) over 60 years of age.
2. *Autonomy*. The degree to which the job gives an employee freedom, independence, and discretion in executing work assignments (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).
3. *Burnout*. The state of mind of a person who is wore out either mentally, physically, psychologically, or emotionally (Paine, 1982), and who has feelings of helplessness and a lack of enthusiasm about work (Brown, 1987).
4. *Education Level*. A program of instruction of a specified kind or level (*American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language*, 2000). In this study, participants were asked to designate their highest level of education attained from these categories: (a) less than a high school degree, (b) completed high school/GED, (c) some technical school, (d) some college, (e) Associate's degree, (f) Bachelor's degree, (g) some graduate work, or (h) Master's degree or beyond.
5. *Ethnicity*. Being a member of a particular ethnic group (*American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language*, 2000). In this study, ethnicity was divided into (a) White, (b) African American, (c) Hispanic, (d) Native American, (e) Asian/Pacific Islander, and (f) Other.
6. *Feedback-From-Job*. The degree to which an employee learns the efficacy of one's work (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).
7. *Gender*. The condition of being female or male (*American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language*, 2000). This study focused on the two gender categories of male and female.
8. *Job Stress*. A negative physiological and psychological response to a discrepancy between an employee's work needs and expectations and the ability or opportunity of the employee to meet those needs and expectations

(Brown, 1987).

9. *Job Satisfaction*. The extent to which an employee likes (satisfaction) or dislikes (dissatisfaction) his or her job (Spector, 1997).
10. *Police*. A body of persons trained in methods of law enforcement and crime prevention and detection and authorized to maintain the peace, safety, and order of the community (*American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language*, 2000).
11. *Police Officer*. A man or woman who is a member of a police force (*American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language*, 2000). For this study, the term *police officer* was used interchangeably with the words *law enforcement officer*, and *officer*.
12. *Marital Status*. Of or relating to marriage (*American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language*, 2000). Marital status for this study focused on five categories: (a) married, (b) separated, (c) divorced, (d) single, and (e) widowed.
13. *Skill Variety*. The degree to which different skills are required to accomplish job tasks (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).
14. *Task Identity*. The degree to which the job requires completing a whole and identifiable process or piece of work (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).
15. *Task Significance*. The degree to which a job has a perceivable impact on other people or their jobs (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).
16. *Years of Experience*: The length of time that an individual has been employed with the current place of work. Years of experience in this study specifically asked participants to indicate how long they had served as a law enforcement officer from the following categories: (a) less than 2 years, (b) 2-5 years, (c) 6-10 years, (d) 11-15 years, (e) 16-20 years, (f) 21-25 years, (g) 26-30 years, or (h) over 30 years of experience.

It should be noted that these definitions were for the purposes of this study.

Although different disciplines and researchers have used differing definitions of these terms, the above descriptions were short and direct enough to provide clarification and guidance as necessary.

Summary

This chapter reviewed the need for this study, the theoretical framework surrounding job satisfaction and job characteristics, and the problem statement. The purpose of this study was set forth, which was primarily to examine the relationship between certain job characteristics and job satisfaction among police officers. Based on this purpose, 12 hypotheses were developed. Finally, assumptions, delimitations, and limitations of the study were presented.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

As noted earlier, job satisfaction has been linked to job stress and burnout in many studies (Barkdoll, 1991; Brewer, 2002; Clugston, 2000). In fact, it was difficult to find research on stress and burnout that did not address job satisfaction. The literature review has covered job stress in general, job stress related to police work, burnout in general, burnout related to police work, and finally job satisfaction. For the construct, job satisfaction, an overview of related literature has been provided as well as a review of job satisfaction relative to police officers in regard to community oriented policing, police dynamics, demographics, job characteristics, and intent to leave. Summary and conclusions of the literature review have closed the review.

Related Literature

Overview of Job Stress Literature

Although not all stress was found to be bad, too much stress or stress that was overwhelming taxed many people to the point of exhaustion and burnout. As Golembiewski and Munzenrider (1988) explained, some stressors (causes of stress) were powerful motivators. Some stressors could enhance and enrich lives. However, some stressors created strain, which sometimes challenged and even outstripped a person's coping capabilities. When great energies were used to attempt to control stress, results were physical and emotional burnout.

Among the causes of stress, Hendrix (1989) noted physical stressors, role conflict, high level of workload, and job boredom. Another possible factor noted by Hendrix was the level of meaning an employee associated with his or her job. Four case studies

revealed that the more meaningful a person perceived his or her work to be, the less stress associated with his or her job (Benner, 1984). Some employees separated themselves emotionally from a job when it became too stressful, which reduced stress in the short term, but it hindered stress management because detachment impeded the development of coping skills and resources (Benner).

Police and Job Stress

Different factors have been linked to stress in police work; sources of potential stress ranged from political pressures outside the agency to lack of promotional opportunities inside the agency (Anson, Johnson, & Anson, 1997). Police had to contend with court appearances, racial pressures, shift work, and dangerous situations (Anson et al.). One longitudinal study covering seven suburban police departments found that high levels of stress were significantly correlated with illness and absenteeism (Li-Ping Tang & Hammontree, 1992). The discovery of accurate relationships among stress and numerous related variables was crucial to an understanding of stress in police work.

One study that assessed the role of several demographic variables on frustration and strain levels among Fort Worth police officers found a tendency for patrol officers to be more frustrated compared to higher ranked officers, although they ranked similar on levels of strain (Yates & Pillai, 1992). Another demographic factor that was shown to relate to job stress was the size of the police department, (i.e., the number of employees) (Poole, Regoli, & Lotz, 1978). In large departments, Poole et al. found that increased freedom reduced officers' levels of cynicism and work alienation. However, this was not a factor in small departments. The authors surmised that this difference could have occurred because officers in smaller departments took autonomy for granted as a part of

the job, whereas officers in large departments often had structural constraints that made autonomy rare (Poole et al.).

Personality also has been shown to relate to stress in police officers. In one study, the researcher looked at the variable, locus of control, and its relationship to stress and found that the more individuals believed that they were controlled by others or by chance, the more stress they experienced (Lester, Leitner, & Posner, 1985). Conversely, officers that believed that they were in control of themselves, events, and outcomes experienced reduced stress levels (Lester et al.). In addition, a longitudinal study showed that hardy officers (defined as tough or having a high level of resiliency) had lower levels of stress and absenteeism than did nonhardy officers (Li-Pang Tang & Hammontree, 1992). These studies indicated that personality played a part in how an officer reacted and dealt with stressful events. Officers who were hardy and who had an internal locus of control had lower levels of stress than did officers who were less hardy and had an external locus of control.

Although the studies previously mentioned showed the effects of personality traits and stress, other studies explored how factors related to the work environment impacted stress. Hart, Wearing, and Headey (1995), in a study with 527 police officers, suggested that the police organization itself was beneficial as well as harmful to an officer's well being. They concluded that the organizational context in which an officer works was more important than the work itself in determining an officer's psychological outcomes (Hart et al.). This was an important observation because it contrasted with the popular opinion that a majority of police stress came from the job itself: dealing with victims, crime, and stressful police-related events such as a bomb-scare, death threats, or a riot.

Yet, this study indicated that it was the department, not the work that determined the actual condition of the officer.

Crank and Calderos' (1991) study supported the theory that organizational context affected stress levels. Researchers asked officers from eight municipal police departments to identify their principal sources of stress. Again, contrary to popular thought, the most frequently cited answer was problems related to superiors (Crank & Caldero). Stotland (1991), in a separate study, showed that stress increased when relations between the officer and others in their departments were negative. In addition, he showed that low workloads resulted in dedication to the department, whereas officers with high workloads were more susceptible to stress than officers with low workloads (Stotland). Lack of agency support was shown to be one of the biggest stressors on a police officer (Anson et al., 1997). Clearly, the natural hardships of being a police officer were not the only factor in determining police stress. In fact, it has not even been shown to be the primary contributor to the stress. As seen in previous studies, organizational and management factors were most frequently related to stress (Anson et al.; Crank & Caldero; Stotland).

Summary of Job Stress

A review of the job stress literature revealed several findings. First, rank, department size, and personality have been related to police job stress (Lester et al., 1985; Poole et al., 1978; Yates & Pillai, 1992). For instance, concerning personality, officers that were hardier and had an internal locus of control were more likely to have lower job stress than officers who were less hardy and had an external locus of control (Lester et al.; Li-Pang Tang & Hammontree, 1992). In addition, job characteristics such as lack of agency support, negative supervision, and high workload contributed to job stress (Crank

& Caldero, 1991; Hart et al., 1995). Although stressors have existed in all professions, some of the causes of stress for police officers were shown to be unique to their profession and were thereby examined as a separate and specialized topic.

Overview of Burnout Literature

Burnout has been shown to affect job satisfaction (Brewer, 2002) and although there has yet to be a concrete, agreed-upon definition of burnout (Riggar, 1985), some common characteristics were found in the literature. Cherniss (1980) described burnout as a particular coping response to stress and strain experienced on the job, particularly when there has been imbalance between job demands and the worker's resources (skills, abilities, time, energy) for meeting them. More recently, yet quite similarly, Olson (1999) wrote that burnout resulted from having an overload of negative features and a scarcity of positive features in the work environment. Although the definitions differed somewhat, one thing was clear: burnout was detrimental to the employee and the employer.

Schaufeli, Maslach, and Marek (1993) theorized several key contributing factors to burnout, among them vulnerability. They wrote that the degree of vulnerability related to such characteristics as a person's degree of instability of self-esteem and the degree of social support outside of the present work domain. These researchers noted that lack of social support was probably the basic factor for vulnerability. Further, this research found that certain factors were crucial to creating a positive self-esteem in the work environment. One was for the employee to have personal and organizational resources for attaining organizational goals and professional standards. The second item was the necessity of various forms of support from others in their life, including shared values and goals.

To find factors related to burnout, some researchers looked at demographic factors such as age (Holgate & Clegg, 1991). One study of Australian probation officers revealed significant differences between the burnout processes in older versus younger officers. Those authors also found that both organizational and personal issues contributed to burnout (Holgate & Clegg). This was similar to the findings for stress correlations in that personal as well as work-related factors were related to stress.

One study, with 118 certified athletic trainers as participants, examined the relationships among hardiness, social support, and work-related issues and stress and burnout (Hendrix, Acevedo, & Hebert, 2000). Pearson product-moment correlations showed significant relationships among the variables. In particular, Hendrix et al. found that high social support, limited athletic training issues, and high levels of hardiness were associated with low levels of stress. High emotional exhaustion and a low feeling of personal accomplishment were predictors of high levels of perceived stress. They concluded that the work environment of athletic trainers had an effect on stress and burnout, and that as the work-related environment became increasingly stressful, so did the trainers (Hendrix et al.).

Police and Burnout

A pioneer in the field of burnout, Maslach has conducted several studies on police officers and burnout (Maslach, 1978; Maslach & Jackson, 1979; Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach & Pines, 1977). One study involved 130 male police officers from all parts of California and their wives to determine effects of burnout on the officer and on marital relationships (Maslach & Jackson, 1979). Maslach and Jackson found that the more often a police officer dealt with either very young children or with the elderly as

victims of abuse or neglect, the more likely he or she was to suffer from burnout. Those working with children scored high on an emotional-exhaustion index and on the dimensions of closeness to clients. Results were opposite for officers who dealt with teenagers. They reported negative feelings toward them and little sense of closeness. Officers who scored high on the burnout index had symptoms of physical exhaustion, vulnerability to disease, ulcers, back tensions, and headaches. They also used alcohol and drugs to cope with stress more frequently than officers who scored low on the burnout index. In addition, high burnout officers began giving detached and callous responses, which reduced emotional involvement and consequent stress, but it also damaged the quality of the human contact. Eventually, officers who were burned out began showing signs of low morale, impaired performance, increased absenteeism, and high job turnover.

Maslach's (1979) research also found effects of burnout on the relationship of a police couple. The longer an officer had been on the force, the more likely he was to become tough and aggressive when dealing with his family, questioning and mistrusting them more often. Burned out officers also increasingly became rigid in deciding what was "right" or "wrong" in the household. They became less capable of getting emotionally involved with their family. As a result, children in a family with a burned out father who was a cop were four times as likely to look exclusively to their mother for support. The burned out cop was twice as likely to report feeling distant from his kids, and he and his wife were nearly twice as likely as other police couples to disagree about discipline of the children. In addition, wives were most likely to report using alcohol to cope with stress when their husbands scored high on feeling distant from clients than

were wives whose husbands scored low on feeling distant from clients (Maslach & Jackson, 1979).

Although Maslach's (1979) study was conducted over 20 years ago, other researchers have substantiated Maslach's findings concerning burnout as a result of working with victims. Stenross and Kleinman (1989) interviewed investigators from two different law enforcement agencies to examine their encounters with criminals and victims. They found that detectives felt burdened when working with victims, but, interestingly, they felt energized when working with criminals. The authors discovered that this happened because when the detectives worked with criminals, they were able to make the encounter into a game of "catching criminals." However, when they worked with victims, no game was involved. Working with victims was emotionally draining and, many times, uncomfortable for the detectives. The detectives could not turn their experiences with the victims into a positive one. Stenross and Kleinman concluded that officers who did emotional work often experienced burnout and eventually became estranged from their feelings.

Both of these studies demonstrated negative effects of burnout. In these cases, burnout was seen as a result of the actual work done by officers, such as working with victims, especially young victims. A different theory of police officer burnout came from a qualitative study conducted in 1983. Ianni and Reuss-Ianni (1983) proposed that burnout resulted from the existence of two cultures within police departments: the "street cop culture" and the "management cop culture." The street cop was the culture in which (a) officers depended on one another; (b) the community supported them, and (c) management was there to back them up. The management cop culture was the emerging

trend of management running departments with strict rules that restricted officers from making their own decisions. In addition, the management cop culture reflected the growing distancing of the community from officers. Community members were less likely to stand up for the officer who protected them than they were in the street cop culture. Burnout came when the officer expected the street cop culture but was faced with the reality of the management cop culture, thereby leaving the officer feeling alienated. The authors claimed that this incongruity occurred anytime in the human services profession when superiors saw their administration as management rather than as fellow professionals. The authors said that anytime this shift occurred, as it had in the police field, it took its toll in stress and eventually in burnout.

Additional studies related burnout to demographic factors. Cannizzo and Liu (1995) studied 212 officers by administering the Maslach Burnout Inventory. Out of four career stages, they found that officers who had been on the force for 16 to 25 years reported the highest levels of burnout. A multiple analysis of variance test showed a curvilinear relationship between the four career stages. Another demographic study with 457 male and 139 female officers revealed high levels of burnout for each sex. However, whereas female officers showed higher levels of emotional burnout than male officers, male officers showed higher levels of depersonalizing citizens than female officers (Johnson, 1991). Both of the aforementioned researchers indicated that their results were in line with previously conducted research.

Finally, Childers (1991) theorized some possible solutions for officers based on the research conducted in the field. His findings primarily considered that the person who was burned out felt that the job was routine and dissatisfying, which resulted in despair,

frustration, and a sense of loss of challenge. Childers suggested a change in duty assignment for the officer, either through transfer to another department or by temporary assignment to a new project. He suggested that the new challenge would help deter the burnout effect.

Summary of Burnout

Working with victims, lack of social support, low self-esteem, routine and unsatisfying assignments, demographic factors, and the emergence of a new management style have been suggested as possible contributors to police burnout. Although these studies represented a fraction of the research obtainable on this topic, these studies gave an idea of some of the theories and findings available.

Job Satisfaction

Overview of Job Satisfaction Literature

Learning about how to keep employees happy was crucial to preventing stress and burnout, but it was also crucial for simply keeping employees. In a study with 194 participants, Shaw (1999) used hierarchical regression to study the relationship between job satisfaction and an employee's intention to leave the company. Shaw found job satisfaction significantly predicted turnover intentions. In a similar study with 233 teachers and maternity nurses, researchers found that job satisfaction, especially with supervisors, promoted loyalty to the company and repressed intention to turnover (Hagedoorn, Van Yperen, Van De Vliert, & Buunk, 1999). Clearly, learning what encouraged employee satisfaction was important to successful supervisors, administration personnel, and business owners.

In one qualitative study, Henderson (2000) interviewed eight individuals who

were notably happy at work to determine the determinants of their career satisfaction. All eight were from different backgrounds and were employed in different careers. The researcher conducted extensive interviews with them and also with their coworkers. The study revealed three common characteristics among the eight employees. The first trait exhibited was a dogged commitment to follow their interests, particularly interests in which they were successful. The second common characteristic was that they all had a wide variety of personal competencies and strengths. Finally, the author noted that all eight participants worked in environments characterized by freedom, challenge, meaning, and a positive social atmosphere. Similarly, in a study with 166 Student Support Services Personnel (Brewer, 2002) found that those who believed they had high job accomplishment also had high job satisfaction. In addition, Brewer found that there was an inverse relationship between emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. These studies revealed a correlation between job satisfaction and the way employees felt about themselves and their accomplishments.

Relationship with coworkers was another factor to be considered in assessing work satisfaction. One experiment found that formal mentoring had a positive effect on job satisfaction for police officers (Fagan, 1988). Fagan assigned 24 employees to a mentor and compared them to a group that did not receive mentors. After one year, the groups were compared, and the group that received formal mentoring was found to have higher levels of job satisfaction than the group that did not receive formal mentoring (Fagan). Finkelstein, Protolipac, and Kulas (2000) examined the relationship between employees who participated in non-work activities with coworkers and supervisors and job satisfaction. They surveyed 111 participants, and, using analysis of variance, found

that employees who had an authoritarian personality and who participated in extra-role activities experienced increased job satisfaction. One other study that related job satisfaction to coworker relationships was conducted by Harris et al. (2001). They found social support to be positively related to job satisfaction for women but not for men. They defined social support as the combination of instrumental support, emotional support, and mentoring received from both colleagues and supervisors. In the same study, they found that male employees with a higher degree of match between the individual's vocational interests and aspects of their work environment had a higher level of job satisfaction than male employees with a lower degree of match.

How did pay and benefits have an impact on job satisfaction? In one large study Igalens and Roussel (1999) involved 269 exempt employees and 297 nonexempt employees to examine the relationship between total compensation, work motivation, and job satisfaction. Results analyzed using a structural equation model with LISREL VII showed that benefits of exempt and nonexempt employees neither motivated nor increased job satisfaction (Igalens & Roussel). For this study, pay and benefits were not factors in job satisfaction.

Similar to the research in stress and burnout, age has been a factor in job satisfaction (Wagner & Rush, 2000). Wagner and Rush conducted a study with 96 nurses to explore, among other things, the effect of age and context on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Their results indicated that younger employees tended to exhibit higher job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and more trust in management than older employees. This was in accord with the findings for job stress and burnout, in which older employees tended to have increased stress and increased

burnout symptoms. Another demographic variable that was studied in a different test was education level and job satisfaction. No correlation was found between level of education and employees' job satisfaction (Glisson & Durick, 1988).

Overview of Relationship Between Job Characteristics and Job Satisfaction

Although such personal characteristics as age, personality, or job longevity could not be changed, numerous job characteristics could be altered. Moreover, studies showed that certain job characteristics were indicative of job satisfaction. Two studies concerning job characteristics and employee satisfaction have been discussed in the following section.

Glisson and Durick (1988) examined 319 individuals from 47 workgroups in 22 different human service organizations. Their goal was to determine if any correlations existed among job satisfaction and commitment and three variables: job characteristics, organizational characteristics, and worker characteristics. They used the Job Diagnostic Survey to measure job characteristics such as skill variety, task significance, task identity, and overall job satisfaction. Organizational and worker characteristics were primarily demographic-type questions such as age of organization, workgroup size, budget, type of service, worker's years in the organization, age, and sex.

In their 1988 study, Glisson and Durick found that the most dominant predictors of satisfaction were job characteristics. In particular, two job characteristics, skill variety and role ambiguity, were indicative of job satisfaction. Their study demonstrated that employee satisfaction depended largely on opportunities for human service workers to use a variety of skills in performing job tasks and also on clear requirements and responsibilities of the job. Glisson and Durick found no support for a relationship

between worker characteristics and either job satisfaction or commitment. However, they did find a relationship between organizational leadership and the organization's age in predicting commitment. They also found that highly educated workers were more knowledgeable about other job opportunities than less educated workers and that knowledge moderated the level of commitment to the organization. However, as mentioned previously, education was not found to be a factor in job satisfaction.

The second study that looked at job characteristics as predictors of employee satisfaction was conducted by Katz (1978) and involved 3,500 respondents from four governments: two metropolitan, one county, and one state. This study also employed the Job Diagnostic Survey (with slight variations) as well as the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire to determine the relationship between overall job satisfaction and five task variables: skill variety, task identity, autonomy, feedback-from-job, and task significance. Katz examined these work characteristics at different levels of job longevity.

The results revealed that the relationship between job satisfaction and each of the five task dimensions was mediated by job longevity and by organizational longevity. One example given was that, for new employees, only task significance related positively to job satisfaction, whereas autonomy had a strong negative correlation for new employees. They found that task dimensions were directly associated with job satisfaction, but the association was strongly affected by longevity factors. The authors concluded with a recommendation for further investigations into the relationship between employee satisfaction and job setting in different kinds of organizational settings (Katz, 1978).

Police and Job Satisfaction

Although the dynamics related to police and job satisfaction were similar to those

for other service organizations, there were some distinctive dynamics particular to the police profession that made it worth examining separately. Therefore, a literature review on variables that affected job satisfaction in law enforcement, including topics such as community implications, organizational issues, demographic factors, and job characteristics has been included. Each topic has been examined for its relationship to officer job satisfaction.

Increased job satisfaction of an officer would benefit the agency as well as the employee. One dynamic that set police officers apart from employees in other professions was that most men and women who went into law enforcement made it their lifetime career. Most jobs held in a typical company could be considered transient, used as stepping-stones for the next career move (Peters, 1999). To law enforcement personnel, their agency was their family. Their coworkers were their brothers and sisters. Police officers usually have not gone agency hopping in hopes of a better career. This stationary factor made it especially important to look at police work as a separate dimension than that of other careers. It was also what made it so crucial for police departments to strive for employee satisfaction on the job. Neglecting to do so could result in hardship to the agency, the employee, and the community.

Hart (1999) conducted a longitudinal study with 470 police officers and found that job satisfaction was an independent contributor to overall life satisfaction. Although some factors were determined by personality (Fisher, 2000; Kirkcaldy, Furnham, & Cooper, 1994) or actual work dynamics such as working with victims (Heinsler, Kleinman, & Stenross, 1990) and thus were hard or impossible to be improved by management or organizational changes, there were still many factors that could be

effected by managerial improvements.

Community oriented policing and job satisfaction. Police officers have dealt with community members continually in both positive and negative interactions. Thus, it was understandable that there has been a significant amount of research on the relationship between the community and officers with regards to officer job satisfaction. Much of the research has focused on a relatively new strategy called Community Oriented Policing (COP) that promoted positive interaction between police officers and community members. Many of the efforts aimed to increase interaction with the public and organizational commitment while decreasing stress and burnout among police officers (Greene, 1989). While some COP programs involved increasing the foot patrol to get in touch with the community, others encouraged less focus on arrest and more focus on helping to fight crime. Although there were as many different program styles as there were police departments, one thing was clear. The effort to get in touch with community members was a strategy that was receiving a lot of attention by researchers.

Perhaps one of the strongest studies originated in Illinois, in which Rosenbaum, Yeh, and Wilkinson (1994) conducted a 22-month experimental longitudinal study using nonequivalent pretest-posttest control group design. The control group from Evanston, Illinois had 89 police officers, and the experimental group from a town with similar demographics had 93 officers. Using an extensive array of measurements, including the Job Diagnostic Survey, the researchers performed least squares and logistic regression analysis, as well as paired *t*-tests. Rosenbaum et al. found that COP was a significant determinant in job satisfaction among police officers. Wilson and Bennett (1994), in their study of COP, also found that community policing efforts positively affected job

satisfaction. Their study discovered that the relationship was particularly strong in regard to the support officers received from the community, the department, and other community agencies.

Interestingly, not only did studies find that practicing COP improved job satisfaction among police officers, but in places that did not have COP programs, officer satisfaction improved with increased confidence from the public. In an analysis involving 105 male police officers, results revealed a positive, significant correlation between community confidence and job satisfaction. Further, Greene (1989) conducted a study involving 210 Philadelphia police officers from one department, 125 who participated in the COP program and 85 who did not. A comparison between the groups was studied and analyzed using multiple regression analysis. Results indicated that COP efforts increased job satisfaction and motivation of participating police officers. In sum, COP was found to be a positive influence on job satisfaction. Studies revealed that efforts intended to lower burnout and job stress and increase job satisfaction in police agencies by implementing COP worked.

Police agency dynamics and job satisfaction. Most police agencies were run by a militaristic style of management that included such things as rank-order (e.g., sergeant, lieutenant, and captain) with prominently displayed indicators of years in service and rank on officers' uniforms. Officers learned to do as they were ordered to do without question. Complete dedication to the department, their superiors, and the police force were taught on the first day of recruit school and continued throughout an officer's career. Although this style of management lent itself to control, order, and quick reaction times, it was not contributive toward officers' job satisfaction (Jermier & Berkes, 1979).

In fact, Jermier and Berkes found, in a study with 158 officers, that job satisfaction increased when officers received support and the opportunity to participate in decision-making. Specification of procedures and work assignment were not indicative of job satisfaction. One interesting point here was that, although many agencies had started COP programs that encouraged open communication with the public, many agencies continued to utilize a militaristic style of management that discouraged officers from expressing themselves openly and from problem-solving.

One factor that was particularly related to police agencies was the use of rotating shift work. Most officers worked rotating shifts mostly because law enforcement has been a 24-hour, 7-day a week job. A meta-analysis of 31 studies showed that flexible and compressed work schedules had a positive correlation to job satisfaction (Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, & Neuman, 1999). Holbrook, White, and Hutt (1994) confirmed that, as long as the schedule was constant, a compressed schedule in which an officer worked longer hours with more days off increased job satisfaction. However, this same study revealed that a rotating shift could result in officers who felt a loss of control over their sleep/wake cycles and who found it difficult to engage in healthy sleep patterns, even if instructed on how to improve it. The officers perceived lack of sleep as problematic in their home and work lives (Holbrook et al.). However, as this was a factor that was difficult to change, it should be noted that other studies had alternative methods to increase life's balance. For example, in a pretest-posttest experimental design study of 43 male officers, Norvell and Belles (1993) demonstrated four months of circuit weight training led to a significant increase in job satisfaction as well as to improvements in mood and fitness and a decrease in anxiety, depression, and hostility.

Pay continually has been a topic of interest to employers who want to keep employees happy. How little could an employer pay an employee and still keep them “satisfied?” The good news, at least for law enforcement agencies (and their corresponding taxpayers), was that although officers were not particularly satisfied with their pay and promotional opportunities (Putti & Singh, 1985), these factors were not found to be significantly related (positively or negatively) to job satisfaction or burnout (Sheley & Nock, 1979). So, while these findings should not be an argument to increase or decrease pay, it was important to note that pay has not been shown to contribute to burnout or job satisfaction of an officer. Thus, managers and supervisors should look toward other methods to actually increase job satisfaction.

Police demographic factors and job satisfaction. Police officers must be able to run fast, aim accurately, and take down someone twice their size -- all while thinking and acting quickly to dangerous situations. In addition, they must witness unforgettably horrid scenes and console sobbing victims. Because they have been required to perform such demanding mental, physical, and emotional tasks, officers have been the subject of much demographic study. Researchers were interested in finding out the difference between male and female abilities, stress, and social pressures. Could females handle the male-dominated profession, or were they more likely to give up because of the internal pressures in the department? Researchers also were interested in looking at the effects of aging on the police field. Were older officers more susceptible to burnout than younger, or were they more satisfied with their jobs because they have learned the ropes?

Dantzker and Kubin (1998) analyzed data they had collected from 2,309 male and 309 female officers and found little difference in job satisfaction based solely on gender.

Another study of 2,979 correctional officers showed higher levels of job satisfaction among female officers than among male officers. This report also showed significant correlation between job satisfaction and quality of supervision. Furthermore, they found that for minority male officers, lower levels of job stress were associated with greater effectiveness in working with inmates (Britton, 1997). Although these studies did not indicate that females and minorities were always treated fairly, they did suggest the level of satisfaction was a reflection of factors other than simply being a minority. It is interesting to note that although females have been shown to have the same level of job satisfaction as other officers, according to Polk and Armstrong (2001), women were significantly under-represented in almost all positions with high social status or rank.

This lack of discrepancy did not hold true for the variables job longevity and age. Hunt and McCadden (1985) studied 1,202 officers in six departments throughout the United States and found that satisfaction and commitment were highly associated with demographic factors such as rank and job tenure. One study (Forsyth & Copes, 1994) with 102 police officers found that age, years of service, rank, and years in present position were negatively correlated with job satisfaction. Therefore, as officers aged and acquired increased years of service and rank, their job satisfaction declined (Forsyth & Copes). Lester (1987), in a study with 167 police officers, also found that age correlated with job satisfaction. He found that younger officers were more satisfied with their jobs than older officers. This was not a finding that has changed through the years. A study done 15 years earlier found job longevity to be a factor negatively associated with job satisfaction (Sheley & Nock, 1979). Only one study was found that contrasted with these findings. Schnitzius and Lester (1980) did not find a correlation between job satisfaction

and age or years of work experience.

Dantzker (1998) examined education level. He noted, "It appears that educational levels of police officers are continuing to rise. Therefore, it becomes important for research to focus on how education might be influencing officers' job satisfaction" (p. 20). In his study with police officers, Dantzker found that officers who had graduated high school or passed their GED had the greatest level of job satisfaction. Officers with a bachelor's degree had the next highest level of job satisfaction, followed by officers with an associate's degree. Another study by Polk and Armstrong (2001) found that officers with higher education levels took less time rising to supervisory or administrative positions than officers without higher education. They concluded that higher education enhanced an officers' probability of rising to the top regardless of whether or not the agency required a college degree as a condition for employment.

Much research (Forsyth & Copes, 1994; Hunt & McCadden, 1985; Sheley & Nock, 1979) has been conducted on large departments because of the increased number of participants, and the results usually were extrapolated to all departments, even small ones. Yet, the following study indicated that this extrapolation might not be wise. Regoli, Crank, and Culbertson (1989) conducted a study involving 574 police chiefs from different size departments in Illinois. They found a significant difference in attitudes for rural and urban chiefs. Chiefs of urban departments were primarily concerned with job conditions and job security, while chiefs over rural departments were not. In fact, chiefs of rural departments showed significantly lower levels of cynicism, with the influence of cynicism on job satisfaction being much lower than that of urban chiefs. Other findings showed that rural chiefs' principal concerns were different and that they focused on

different areas of work relations than did urban chiefs. The researchers suggested that these differences in priorities, cynicism, and job satisfaction might be due to the instability of tenure in large departments and the frequently severe budgetary constraints on small departments. The researchers concluded by stating that these differences argued against generalizing a single policy for all police departments, irrespective of size. Contrasting this viewpoint, Lester (1987), in a study with 167 police officers, found that department size did not correlate with level of job satisfaction. Firm resolution on this topic has not yet been found.

Although demographic variables such as gender and age cannot be changed, they should be looked at in regard to how they might predict organizational outcomes. Several studies indicated that neither gender nor minority status were predictive of job satisfaction in law enforcement (Britton, 1997; Dantzker & Kubin, 1998). However, job longevity and age were negatively associated with job satisfaction in police work (Forsyth & Copes, 1994; Hunt & McCadden, 1985; Sheley & Nock, 1979). Finally, department size seemed to be associated with cynicism and job satisfaction (Regoli et al., 1989). That is, the smaller the department the less cynicism there was and the more job satisfaction there was (Regoli et al.). Understanding how demographics affected job satisfaction was necessary to fully comprehend the impact of different variables on job satisfaction and whether or not these variables were mediated by other -- perhaps demographic -- variables.

Police job characteristics and job satisfaction. As police management styles evolved, it was crucial that the administration understood the factors that affect job satisfaction in police work. In particular, knowing how job and organizational

characteristics influenced employee satisfaction was important because these were factors on which management could have some impact. What follows is a look at several studies that looked at these characteristics and their relation to police personnel satisfaction.

In one qualitative study involving American and Danish police officers, DeLey (1984) concluded that Denmark's low turnover rate was attributable to factors such as their open communication environment, high job security, and increased security factors, such as riding two officers per car. The researcher speculated that these factors influenced Denmark officers' job satisfaction and thus kept their turnover rate low (DeLey).

Heinsler, Kleinman, and Stenross (1990) interviewed 15 detectives and 17 campus police to determine the source of detectives' satisfaction compared to campus police officers' misery. Several differences were noted including that detectives could maintain and project a valued core identity that helped turn routine tasks into something significant. This image building helped them see themselves as crime detectives and as students of crime. They found support from supervisors, peers, and even criminals. Campus police lacked both the glamorous public image and the support from peers and others. Whereas detectives were able to see themselves as esteemed workers, campus workers had few resources to make their work significant. This study revealed that satisfaction in a job might require several factors such as supervisor and peer support and the ability to find meaning in work tasks. It was not difficult to extrapolate that there were similarities between campus police and patrol officers. Patrol officers, likewise, performed menial tasks and received minimal support depending on management style (Heinsler et al.). Sheley and Nock (1979) showed the importance of recognition by a supervisor. They found that supervisor feedback contributed significantly to job

satisfaction. Such studies indicated the importance of supervisor and employee feedback as well as the need for work identity and significance.

Looking further at job characteristics, Brief, Aldag, Russell, and Rude (1981) conducted a longitudinal study to examine the causal relationship between skill variety, job satisfaction, and police attitudes toward citizens. Seventy-five police officers were surveyed over a 15-month period, and the results showed skill variety to be significantly related to general job satisfaction. Jermier and Berkes (1979) also found task variability to be significantly, positively related to job satisfaction. Likewise, Katz (1978), in a study of governmental employees including police officers, found skill variety to be positively, significantly related to organizational satisfaction.

Zhao, Thurman, and He (1999), conducted research on factors influencing job satisfaction among police officers working at the Spokane Police Department (SPD) in Washington. They used the sub-scales of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) for the dependent variable and demographic data and the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) for their independent variables. Two hundred fifty-seven (257) surveys were sent out, and 199 were returned (77.4%). Additionally, Zhao et al. administered the JDS survey to two additional police departments involving 370 officers and 128 officers, respectively. They found similar mean ratings of JDS dimensions among departments thereby suggesting that the work environment in the SPD closely resembled that of the other two agencies. The authors concluded that because they involved other departments in their study and found similar results, their findings might have implications beyond Spokane.

Zhao et al. (1999) found that police officers, in general, did not view their work negatively. Most officers believed that they were doing a significant job and that they had

the skills necessary to accomplish the task. In all three agencies, satisfaction with coworkers rated highest, and satisfaction with work rated lowest. The authors found that the variables years of service and rank were negatively associated with officers' satisfaction with work. Skill variety, task identity, and autonomy contributed most to the variation in officers' work satisfaction. Autonomy explained more than one third of the variance in satisfaction with supervisors. This suggested that a worker's perception of independence was a very important factor in workplace satisfaction.

Finally, Zhao et al. (1999) noted that multiple regression analysis showed that Hackman and Oldham's (1980) five job characteristics explained more variation in the three types of job satisfaction than did demographic attributes. Zhao et al. stated that their study revealed that work environment was an essential feature in police officers' job satisfaction and that two-way communication and worker autonomy were crucial elements to an improved work environment. The researchers pointed out that the traditional style of police management emphasizing control and close supervision to enhance employees' conformity and predictability sacrificed police officers' freedom to solve problems and to think freely (Zhao et al.).

Intention to Leave and Job Satisfaction

Some studies have shown a strong negative relationship between job satisfaction and intention to turnover (Locke, 1975; Porter & Steers, 1973). Given this information, it might be crucial for a company's survival to pay attention to job satisfaction. Police departments have been no different; they have needed to keep good officers to prevent civil unrest and decrease complaints. In a study of 372 police officers, Morris, Shinn, and DuMont (1999) found that women and minority police officers experienced more

negative social interactions on the job than men did, but this negative interaction did not have an impact on organizational commitment. Abraham (1999) found emotional dissonance (the conflict between experienced emotions and emotions expressed to conform to rules) resulted in job dissatisfaction, which in turn increased a person's withdrawal intentions. However, another researcher, Mobley (1977), theorized that a subconscious appraisal of working conditions initiated the turnover process.

In an interesting study of 364 schoolteachers, Vancouver and Schmitt (1991) found that goal congruence between employees and other employees had greater impact on teachers' attitudes and intention to quit than goal congruence between employees and their supervisors. In other words, goal congruence with peers appeared to be more important than congruence with one's supervisor, in regard to organizational commitment. Their findings suggested that researchers should place increased emphasis on peer relationships in organizations. Finally, Cramer (1993) interviewed 57 employees in a large engineering firm; results indicated that the major sources of turnover were dissatisfaction with career structure, salary, management supervision, training, and working environment.

With all these studies, it was clear that job satisfaction and intention to leave a company or organization were related. For employers trying to retain good employees, looking toward increasing job satisfaction would probably be a good start. In this study, two questions concerning intention to leave were asked. Increasing knowledge about job satisfaction and its relationship to intention to turnover hopefully will have benefits for researchers, human resource personnel, and employees themselves.

Summary

The studies that have been conducted on police officers' work characteristics and job satisfaction revealed several trends. One trend was a consistently negative relationship between job satisfaction and job longevity, age, and rank, and a correspondingly positive relationship between job longevity, age, and rank with stress and burnout (Forsyth & Copes, 1994; Katz, 1978; Sheley & Nock, 1979; Wagner & Rush, 2000). Another significant finding was that COP showed a positive trend toward job satisfaction with officers reporting improved relations with the public resulting in a decrease in burnout (Greene, 1989; Rosenbaum et al., 1994; Sheley & Nock, 1979; Wilson & Bennett, 1994). Shift work contributed negatively to job satisfaction (Holbrook et al., 1994), while gender and race were not shown to relate at all (Britton, 1997; Dantzker & Kubin, 1998). Job characteristics such as skill variety, task identity, autonomy, feedback-from-job, and task significance were shown to correlate significantly with job satisfaction (Brief et al., 1981; DeLey, 1984; Heinsler et al., 1990; Jermier & Berkes, 1979; Sheley & Nock, 1979; Zhao et al., 1999). Finally, several researchers revealed a relationship between job satisfaction and intention to turnover (Cramer, 1993; Locke, 1975; Porter & Steers, 1973).

Conclusions

Because job characteristics played such a significant role in police officer job satisfaction, there has been need for increased understanding of factors that have influenced job satisfaction. Although several studies (Forsyth & Copes, 1994; Hunt & McCadden, 1985; Sheley & Nock, 1979) have examined factors of job satisfaction in law enforcement, most have concentrated on demographic factors. One study (Zhao et al.,

1999) that did not concentrate on demographic factors examined the relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction. This study provided a unique insight into what contributed to police officer satisfaction. However, more research had been needed. If the findings on job satisfaction were accurate, similar studies with different groups of law enforcement should be examined to build validity for these results and to substantiate current literature on the topic.

The goal of this study was to examine how job characteristics affected police officer job satisfaction. Specifically, what was the impact, if any, of skill variety, task identity, autonomy, feedback-from-job, and task significance on the well being of officers in the work environment? Next to be looked at were any significant differences between job satisfaction and demographic factors such as working status, age, gender, marital status, ethnicity, education level, and years of experience. Finally, data were gathered to examine any significant differences between job satisfaction and (a) intention to leave employer, (b) intention to leave the field of law enforcement, (c) number of complaints, and (d) number of lawsuits filed against the officer.

Knowledge concerning factors affecting job satisfaction should be important to supervisors so they could motivate employees to optimal job satisfaction. The implications for law enforcement could affect not only the officer, but the agency and the public as well. Increased understanding in this area should enable employers to directly benefit those working in the police field. In addition, findings from this study could potentially give human resource personnel in any field ideas and strategies to increase job satisfaction either through training, policies, or even pay or benefits of employees.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This was a descriptive and correlational study. The goals were to learn about the current state of job satisfaction among police officers in Tennessee and also to ascertain the existence of any correlations between the variables job satisfaction and job characteristics such as skill variety, task identity, autonomy, feedback-from-job, and task significance. The second goal was to identify any significant differences between job satisfaction and demographic factors such as working status, age, gender, marital status, ethnicity, education level, and years of experience. Finally, the last goal was to examine any significant differences between job satisfaction and (a) intention to leave employer, (b) intention to leave the field of law enforcement, (c) number of complaints, and (d) number of lawsuits filed against the officer.

The independent variables for this study included working status, age, gender, marital status, ethnicity, education level, and years of experience as well as questions concerning intention to leave employer, intention to leave the police field, number of complaints, and number of lawsuits filed against the officers. Independent variables also included job characteristics such as skill variety, task identity, autonomy, feedback-from-job, and task significance. The dependent variable was the level of job satisfaction of police officers.

Population

The population for this study was police officers in Tennessee. According to the Tennessee Peace Officers Standards and Training Commission, there were a total of 10,976 officers in Tennessee in 2001.

Sampling Frame

The sampling frame was all of the officers currently listed in the most updated version of the Fraternal Order of Police (FOP) database for Tennessee (updated yearly). The database of FOP members contained 7,807 names, many of whom were retired law enforcement officers. To increase the chance of getting currently working officers, surveys were sent only to those members who were 65 years of age or younger. That cut the list to 3,854. The researcher explored other database options such as the National Public Safety Information Bureau Directory Database and the listing of all Police Chiefs in Tennessee. However, those databases were not as inclusive as the FOP database. Although the FOP did not include all police officers in Tennessee, it was one of the most accurate, updated lists available for this population. Therefore, the assumption was made that the database was representative of police officers in Tennessee.

Sample Size

According to Dillman (2000), an appropriate sample size for a population of 7,807 participants, with a desired sampling error of 5% and a 95% confidence level, was approximately 200. Considering that this needed to be the number of returned surveys, and given that return rates vary, the researcher sent out 465 surveys with the expectation that a 50% return rate would yield approximately 233 surveys.

Instruments

Two instruments were utilized in this study. One was the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS); the other was the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). These instruments were chosen not only for their proven record of reliability, but also because of practical matters such as cost, grading options, administration time, and ability to measure core job

characteristics. Other instruments were considered, including the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), the Job Diagnostic Index (JDI), the Job in General Scale (JIG), and the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire Subscale (MOA). However, the JDS and JSS had advantages over the other instruments. For instance, both the JDS and JSS were free to use, copy, and grade, whereas the JDI, JIG, and MSQ had costs attached (Spector, 1997). The MOA assessment tool was disregarded for its lack of availability. In addition, aspects of the other considered surveys did not fit into the overall goals of this study. The two chosen instruments, the JDS and JSS, were the best fit for the needs and goals of this research study.

Job Diagnostic Survey

The Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS), a revised version of Hackman and Oldham's Job Diagnostic Survey (Idaszak & Drasgow, 1987), has been the most popular perceptual measure of job characteristics according to Idaszak and Drasgow. It was designed to assess five core job characteristics: skill variety, task identity, autonomy, feedback-from-job, and task significance. The survey was self-reporting. Respondents were asked to indicate how much of each characteristic was present in their job. Items were rated on 7-point Likert-type scales ranging from *very little* to *very much* or from *very inaccurate* to *very accurate*. The revised JDS was the same as the original except items that were once reverse-scored were scored in the same direction. With a sample size of 6,930, the reported internal consistency reliabilities of the scales ranged from .71 (skill variety and feedback from the job itself) to .59 (task identity). The authors of the revised JDS found fidelity coefficients for the skill variety, task identity, autonomy, feedback-from-job, and task significance factors were all above .80. They concluded that the JDS scales

measured their underlying constructs with accuracies that were appropriate for theoretical research. Practically speaking, the JDS was a good instrument to use because it did not take long to administer -- only 15-20 minutes -- was free to copy and distribute, and measured the core characteristics that the researcher desired to measure in this study.

Job Satisfaction Survey

The second instrument for this research was the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) developed by Spector in 1985 (Spector, 1997). The JSS was a 36-item instrument with a six-point Likert scale that assessed nine facets of job satisfaction: pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communication. Each item was a statement that was either positive or negative about a job dimension. The JSS yielded 10 scores and one total summed score. The reported internal consistency, from a sample of 3,067 individuals, ranged from .60 to .91 for the total scale. Like the JDS, the JSS was free to use and to copy and took about 15-20 minutes to administer.

Selection of Participants

The participants were selected randomly from a database kept by the FOP, Tennessee branch. Access to the database was obtained through the researcher's affiliation with a local police department. This extensive database of municipal and county law enforcement personnel has been updated yearly. It contained roughly 7,807 names and addresses of police officers in Tennessee. This database was chosen because it contained the most comprehensive, updated data for rank and file law enforcement officers in Tennessee.

Procedures and Data Collection

Because many of the FOP members were retired law enforcement officers, surveys were sent only to those members who were 65 years of age or younger. That cut the list to 3,854. After 465 participants were selected randomly, a packet was mailed to the selected officers at the addresses given in the database. The packet included two surveys, the JDS and the JSS, demographic questions, two intention to leave questions, two questions on number of complaints, and a question on number of lawsuits. See attached survey (Plate 1) in the back of this thesis to see the mail-out packet used in this study.

The researcher obtained both the JSS and the JDS from the Behavioral Measurement Database Service (BMDS; See Appendix B for permission letters). The BMDS provided a clean copy of the survey plus instructions and pertinent information for \$20 per survey. The BMDS gave permission for the surveys to be copied and used unrestricted for the purposes of this study.

To distribute the surveys, the researcher mailed them first-class to the selected participants. The envelope that contained the surveys also had a cover letter on The University of Tennessee letterhead with an explanation of the purpose of study and instructions for participation (refer to Appendix C to see the letter). A self-addressed, stamped envelope was included for the respondents' convenience. Additionally, a one-dollar bill was added to each envelope to encourage responses. The respondents were asked to send back the completed surveys within three weeks. After four weeks, a reminder letter was sent with another return envelope and another questionnaire. This second letter thanked those who returned their surveys and prompted those who had not

to do so (refer to Appendix D to see the follow-up letter). After the surveys were returned, they were hand-entered into a computer database for calculation. Refer to Appendix E for a flowchart detailing the procedures and analysis methods used in this study.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was not conducted for this project because others researchers previously had tried the instruments and methods shown here and with proven success. As noted earlier, Zhao, Thurman, and He (1999) and Brief, Aldag, Russel, and Rude (1981) conducted studies similar to this study. Given the success they experienced in conducting their research, this study was patterned after their methods and as such did not require a pilot study to affirm the soundness of the method.

Data Analysis

Data analysis methods that were used to examine the results of this study began with basic statistical computations of the data including running an analysis of variance (ANOVA) on each hypothesis 1 through 11 and if further examination was warranted, the means were run to identify any patterns. The ANOVA tests for significance were performed at the .05 level of probability, at a 95% confidence interval. Next, a multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) was computed to determine whether or not any of the JSS subscales varied significantly with any of the demographic variables. If significance was found between any demographic item and job satisfaction, ANOVAs were run for each of the JSS subscales to determine which of the subscales differed. If needed, a Tukey test for significance was run to determine how that demographic variable differed for the subscales of interest. Finally, because the data from the two tests were interval,

Pearson r was used for hypothesis number 12 to assess any existing correlations. All findings have been reported in Chapter IV.

Summary

The goal of this study was to ascertain any relationship between job characteristics such as skill variety, task identity, autonomy, feedback-from-job, and task significance on the level of job satisfaction for law enforcement in Tennessee. Demographics questions were examined to identify any statistical significance between them and job satisfaction. Finally, questions regarding intention to leave employer, intention to leave field, number of complaints, and number of lawsuits filed against the officers were examined for any significance with job satisfaction. This was accomplished through a questionnaire that was sent out to a randomly selected list of 465 FOP members in Tennessee. Data were collected and hand-entered into a database. All findings have been reported in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to determine whether or not, and to what extent, a relationship existed between job characteristics and job satisfaction among law enforcement personnel in Tennessee. Also being looked at were any significant differences between job satisfaction and the selected variables of (a) working status, (b) age, (c) gender, (d) marital status, (e) ethnicity, (f) education level, (g) years of experience, (h) intention to leave employer, (i) intention to leave field, (j) number of complaints against the officer, and (k) number of lawsuits filed against the officer. As mentioned in Chapter III, a random survey of Fraternal Order of Police (FOP) members in Tennessee was conducted to address those questions. The results from the returned surveys have been presented in this chapter.

Response Rate

Surveys were sent to a total of 465 FOP members who were less than 65 years of age. According to the Tennessee Peace Officers Standards and Training Commission, there were a total of 10,976 officers in Tennessee in 2001. The database of FOP members contained 7,807 names, with many of those members being retired law enforcement officers. To increase the chance of getting currently working officers, surveys were sent only to those members who were 65 years of age and younger. That cut the list to 3,854. From this shortened list, 465 names were selected randomly and mailed a survey. Of those, 20 surveys were undeliverable and 2 participants had died (Widows sent back the surveys with notes). Three surveys were returned uncompleted, and 281 completed surveys were returned, yielding a response rate of 63.4%.

Demographic Results

Participants were asked to provide demographic data on their working status, age, gender, marital status, ethnicity, education level, years of experience, intention to leave employer, and intention to leave the field of law enforcement. In addition, they were asked to write in how many times they had been complained against and how many times they had been sued in relation to their job. Frequencies were calculated on each of these demographic and job-related questions. Table 1 shows the comprehensive demographic results for working status, age, gender, marital status, ethnicity, education level, and years of experience.

Of the 274 participants who responded to demographic questions, 66 (24.1%) were retired or no longer working in the field of law enforcement. The other 208 (75.9%) were currently working as law enforcement officers.

Age of participants consisted of 3 (1.1%) respondents between 21 to 30 years of age, 56 (20.5%) between 31 and 40 years of age, 90 (33.0%) between 41 and 50 years of age, 105 (38.5%) between 51 and 60 years of age, and 19 (7.0%) who were over 60 years of age. One participant failed to indicate his or her age group. Categories of ages were collapsed into three categories to for analysis. The results of the collapsed data were 59 (21.6%) respondents who 40 years of age or younger, 90 (33%) who were between 41 and 50 years of age, and 124 (45.4%) who were 51 years of age or older.

Pertaining to gender, the respondents were primarily male. Of the 272 respondents who answered this question, 256 (94.1%) were male, while only 16 (5.9%) were female. Two respondents did not designate their gender.

Table 1***Participants' Demographic Information (N = 274)***

Variable and Level of Responses	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Working status				
Currently working as an officer	208	75.9	75.9	75.9
Retired or no longer working as an officer	66	24.1	24.1	100.0
Total without missing value	274	100.0	100.0	
Missing value	0	0		
Age				
21-30	3	1.1	1.1	1.1
31-40	56	20.4	20.5	21.6
41-50	90	32.8	33.0	54.6
51-60	105	38.3	38.5	93.0
Over 60	19	6.9	7.0	100.0
Total without missing value	273	99.6	100.0	
Missing value	1	0.4		
Gender				
Male	256	93.4	94.1	94.1
Female	16	5.8	5.9	100.0
Total without missing value	2	99.3	100.0	
Missing value	2	0.7		
Marital status				
Married	221	80.7	81.0	81.0
Separated	2	0.7	0.7	81.7
Divorced	40	14.6	14.7	96.3
Single	9	3.3	3.3	99.6
Widowed	1	0.4	0.4	100.0
Total without missing value	273	99.6	100.0	
Missing value	1	0.4		

Table 1 (continued)***Participants' Demographic Information (N = 274)***

Variable and Level of Responses	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Ethnicity				
White	256	93.4	93.8	93.8
African-American	11	4.0	4.0	97.8
Hispanic	3	1.1	1.1	98.9
Native American	3	1.1	1.1	100
Total without missing value	273	99.6	100	
Missing value	1	0.4		
Education Level				
Completed high school/GED	33	12.0	12.1	12.1
Some technical school	8	2.9	2.9	15.1
Some college	107	39.1	39.3	54.4
Associate's degree	47	17.2	17.3	71.7
Bachelor's degree	48	17.5	17.6	89.3
Some graduate work	15	5.5	5.5	94.9
Master's degree or beyond	14	5.1	5.1	100.0
Total without missing value	272	99.3	100.0	
Missing value	2	0.7		
Years of experience				
6-10 years	20	7.3	7.4	7.4
11-15 years	41	15.0	15.1	22.5
16-20 years	39	14.2	14.4	36.9
21-25 years	58	21.2	21.4	58.3
26-30 years	72	26.3	26.6	84.9
Over 30 years	41	15.0	15.1	100.0
Total without missing value	271	98.9	100.0	
Missing value	3	1.1		

On the demographic question for marital status, 221 (81%) of the officers were married; 2 (0.7%) were separated; 40 (14.7%) were divorced; 9 (3.3%) were single, and 1 (0.4%) officer was widowed. In all, 81% were married; 19% were not married. One person did not designate his or her marital status.

Regarding ethnicity, 256 (93.8%) were White; 11 (4%) were African-American; 3 (1.1%) were Hispanic, and 3 (1.1%) were Native American. A majority, 93.8%, were White; 6.2% were non-white. One person did not indicate ethnicity.

Education was originally divided into eight categories, and participants were asked to mark the highest level of education they had obtained. The results included 33 (12.1%) of the officers who had completed high school or passed the General Educational Development (GED) test; 8 (2.9%) had some technical school; 107 (39.3%) had some college education; 47 (17.3%) had Associate's degrees. Forty-eight (17.6%) had Bachelor's Degrees; 15 (5.5%) had some graduate work, and 14 (5.1%) had Master's degrees or beyond. There were no officers who had less than a high school diploma. These categories were collapsed into five groups for analysis. The new categories and results included 33 (12.1%) of the officers who had completed high school or obtained GED's, 115 (42.3%) who had some college or technical school, 47 (17.3%) who had Associate's degrees, 48 (17.6%) who had Bachelor's degrees, and 29 (10.7%) who had more than Bachelor's degrees. Two officers did not designate their education levels.

The demographic variable, years of experience, was originally in eight categories. The results of the eight categories showed that there were no respondents who had less than six years of experience. There were 20 (7.4%) respondents who had 6-10 years of experience, 41 (15.1%) with 11-15 years of experience, 39 (14.4%) with 16-20 years of

experience, 58 (21.4%) who had 21-25 years of experience, 72 (26.6%) with 26-30 years of experience, and 41 (15.1%) who had over 30 years of experience in the law enforcement field. When the categories are collapsed, there were 61 (22.5%) with 15 years of experience or less, 97 (35.8%) with 16-25 years of experience, and 113 (41.7%) with 26 or more years of experience. Three respondents failed to designate their years of experience.

One question asked participants, “Do you have any intention of leaving your place of employment, for other than retirement reasons, within the next five years?” Results from this question included 29 (10.7%) who said yes and 242 (89.3%) who said no. There were three respondents who did not answer this question. Further, participants had a follow-up question that asked, “If yes, what is the primary reason?” Respondents’ comments can be seen in categorized lists in Appendix F.

Of the 26 comments made by participants, 3 mentioned retirement; 5 mentioned pay or benefits; 8 mentioned problems with the agency or administration; 6 were looking for other opportunities including possibly starting their own businesses or taking another job, and 5 mentioned burnout or frustration problems with the job as reasons they might leave. The rest of the comments were miscellaneous in nature, including moving, spending more time with their children, and the politics of the job.

The next question asked, “Do you have any intention of leaving the field of law enforcement, for other than retirement reasons, in the next five years?” Responses included 23 (8.6%) who said yes and 245 (91.4%) who said no. There were six respondents that did not answer this question. As expected, the respondents who answered yes to this question had also answered yes to the last question, “Intention to

Leave Employer.” This question also had the same follow-up question, “If yes, what is the primary reason?” A categorized listing of all comments can be seen in Appendix G.

Some comments were similar to the ones on the last question concerning Intention to Leave Employer. However, the distribution varied to some degree. For these questions, the comments included four comments about pay, one comment about administration, seven comments about other work opportunities, one comment on burnout and two miscellaneous comments. Some simply wrote “same as above” to indicate that their reasons for leaving the department were the same as their reasons for leaving the field.

For the variable complaints, participants were asked, “Approximately how many times have you been complained against (through Internal Affairs)?” Responses ranged from 0 to 25 with the majority of respondents (64) putting zero complaints, and the least number of respondents (1) putting 7 complaints, 11 complaints, and 25 complaints. Three respondents did not designate the number of complaints. Table 2 shows the distribution of these responses. For statistical simplification, the categories of frequencies were collapsed into six categories. Table 2 shows the distribution of results before the categories were collapsed, and Table 3 shows the collapsed categories results. The categories and results showed that 64 officers (23.6%) had no complaints; 50 (18.5%) had been complained against once; 36 (13.3%) had 2 complaints; 44 (16.2%) had 3 complaints; 53 (19.6%) had 4-9 complaints, and 24 (8.9%) had 10 or more complaints.

The last demographic question concerned lawsuit status. The last question read, “How many times have you been sued in relation to your work as an officer?” Responses ranged from 0 to 11, with 0 being the most common response and 11 being the least common response. Two respondents did not designate the number of lawsuits filed

Table 2***Frequencies of Complaints With Non-Collapsed Categories***

Number of Complaints	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	64	23.4	23.6	23.6
1	50	18.2	18.5	42.1
2	36	13.1	13.3	55.4
3	44	16.1	16.2	71.6
4	53	5.1	5.2	76.8
5	20	7.3	7.4	84.2
6	9	3.3	3.3	87.5
7	1	0.4	0.4	87.9
8	9	3.3	3.3	91.2
10	15	5.5	5.5	96.7
11	1	0.4	0.4	97.1
12	2	0.7	0.7	97.8
20	5	1.8	1.8	99.6
25	1	0.4	0.4	100.0
Total	271	98.9	100.0	
Missing	3	1.1		
Total	274	100.0		

Table 3***Frequencies of Complaints With Collapsed Categories***

Number of Complaints	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	64	23.36	23.62	23.62
1	50	18.25	18.45	42.07
2	36	13.14	13.28	55.35
3	44	16.06	16.24	71.59
4-9	53	19.34	19.56	91.14
10 or more	24	8.76	8.86	100.00
Total	271	98.91	100.00	
Missing	3	1.09		
Total	274	100.00		

against them. Refer to Table 4 for a breakdown of frequencies of each number of lawsuits for officers. For simplification of statistical analysis, results were collapsed into four categories. These categories and results showed that 116 (42.6%) respondents had no lawsuits filed against them; 85 (31.3%) had one filed against them; 40 (14.7%) had two filed against them, and 31 (11.4%) had three or more filed against them.

Reliability Results of Surveys

Two surveys were used to conduct this study, the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) by Spector (1985) and the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) by Idaszak and Drasgow (1975). It was necessary to check the reliabilities of the instruments on this population to assure that the total and subscale scores of the both surveys had sufficient reliabilities to interpret results. The resulting reliability coefficient for the overall JSS was .90, and the overall reliability for the JDS was also .90. The JDS had five subscales. The reliability of those subscales included .79 for autonomy, .89 for task identity, .74 for skill variety, .84 for significance, and .81 for feedback. These were acceptable reliability rates for interpreting results (Cohen, 1988).

The JSS had nine subscales. The resulting reliability coefficients for the JSS were .73 for pay, .70 for promotion, .85 for supervision, .66 for benefits, .76 for contingent rewards, .60 for operation procedures, .62 for coworkers, .72 for nature of work, and .71 for communication. All subscale reliabilities were above .70 and were acceptable except for benefits, operation procedures, and coworkers, which fell below .70 (Cohen, 1988). Thus, caution should be used when interpreting any results based on these subscales with unacceptable reliabilities.

Table 4***Frequencies of Lawsuits Without Collapsed Categories***

Number of Lawsuits	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	116	42.3	42.6	42.6
1	85	31.0	31.3	73.9
2	40	14.6	14.7	88.6
3 or more	31	11.3	11.4	100.0
Total	272	99.3	100.0	
Missing	2	0.7		
Total	274	100.0		

Comments From Respondents

On the back of the survey, respondents had an opportunity to add any additional comments or suggestions. Of the 271 respondents who returned completed surveys, 99 wrote comments on the back. As a means of organizing the comments, they were grouped into categories depending on the context of the comment. Comments were placed into seven categories: politics in police work, administration issues, pay or benefits, the job itself, position or rank, comments about the survey, and miscellaneous comments. Names of agencies and places were changed to “XYZ” and names of persons were changed to “X” to ensure confidentiality. When a word or phrase was underlined or bolded, that indicated that the respondent wrote it that way on the survey. Each number was a comment from a different person. To see all comments, refer to Appendix H.

A sampling of comments from each of the seven categories included

1. *Politics*: “Politics prevail many times over fairness and too much emphasis is placed on generating money thru citations and not enough time on crime prevention.”
2. *Management*: “Incompetence in the direct chain of command is biggest reason for job dissatisfaction” and “The most trouble officers have are with supervisors.”
3. *Pay or Benefits*: “I left police work...not because I didn’t enjoy it, because I couldn’t afford to do it any longer. I love police work. I just wanted more for my family.”
4. *The Job Itself*: “Great job, very satisfying when you make a difference in, or improve the quality of life issues of a person in need.”
5. *Position or Rank*: “I work in the DUI section. I thought that might help” and “My answers may be slightly different from a regular street officer. I am a Lieutenant and work in a Community Policing position.”
6. *Comments about the Survey*: “Rank of person filling out survey might be pertinent” and “The questions on this survey are much more meaningful than

what we have been receiving on employee surveys.”

7. *Miscellaneous Comments*: “The problem with law enforcement today is lack of cooperation between local, state, and federal agencies.” and “My one-year old son said, ‘Thanks for the dollar!’”

Although running statistical or collective data analysis on the comments was not part of the study, this researcher noticed some interesting trends. These observances have been discussed in Chapter V.

Summary of Results from the JDS and JSS

The JDS asked respondents to answer 15 questions about their jobs. The Likert scale went from 1 (most negative response) through 7 (most positive response). The overall mean score of the JDS was 5.2 with a standard deviation of .98, which showed a fairly favorable response to questions, since 5.2 was above the middle of the scale. The subscales mean scores on the JDS ranged from 4.7 (task identity) to 5.8 (significance). See Table 5 for means and standard deviations of JDS subscale scores.

The JSS also had a Likert scale, with a range of 1 (negative response) through 5 (most positive response). The overall mean score of the JSS was 3.4 with a standard deviation of .65. As 3.4 is in the very middle of the Likert scale, it showed that officers were not as positive on the JSS as they were on the JDS. The subscale mean scores on the JSS ranged from 2.7 (pay) to 4.7 (nature of work). Table 6 shows the overall means and standard deviations for the JSS subscales.

Table 5***Means and Standard Deviations for JDS Subscales***

JDS Subscales	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Autonomy	1	7.0	5.25	1.24
Task Identity	1	7.0	4.68	1.62
Skill Variety	1	7.0	5.59	1.09
Significance	1.33	7.0	5.85	1.17
Feedback	1	7.0	4.80	1.36
JDS Total	1.47	7.0	5.23	.98

N = 271**Table 6*****Means and Standard Deviations for JSS Subscales***

JSS Subscales	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Pay	1.00	5.50	2.68	1.06
Promotion	1.00	5.50	2.81	1.06
Supervision	1.00	6.00	4.33	1.26
Benefits	1.00	5.75	2.88	0.98
Contingent Rewards	1.00	6.00	2.92	1.03
Operating Procedures	1.00	5.50	2.93	0.97
Coworkers	1.50	6.00	4.22	0.82
Nature of Work	1.75	6.00	4.73	0.96
Communication	1.00	5.50	3.22	1.06
JDS Total	1.72	5.06	3.41	0.66

N = 273

Hypotheses

H₀₁: There is no significant difference between police officers' levels of job satisfaction based on their working status.

On the survey, participants were asked about their working status with this question: "Please check here if you are retired or no longer working in the field of law enforcement." The researcher ran a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine any significant difference between police officers' working status and their level of job satisfaction as measured by the JSS. The results of the ANOVA were $F(1,271) = 1.898$, $p = .169$. Since $p > .05$, there was no significant difference between police officers who were still working in the law enforcement field and those who were retired or who were no longer working as law enforcement officers. Null hypothesis 1 was not rejected.

Next, the researcher calculated a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to determine any significant difference between working status and the subscales of the JSS. The results of the MANOVA were $F(9,263) = 3.719$, $p < .001$. Since $p < .05$, the results showed that at least one JSS subscale differed by working status. To determine which subscales differed, an ANOVA was run for each subscale (nine total ANOVAs). Results are in Table 7. As can be seen on the right column, the JSS subscales that showed significant difference were supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, and coworkers.

To determine how the subscales, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, and coworkers varied with working status, the means of working versus non-working officers was compared for the four significant subscales. See Table 8 for these results. The results showed that for supervision, officers no longer in law enforcement had a mean job satisfaction score of 4.5, while those still working in law enforcement had a mean

Table 7***Analysis of Variance for Working Status and JSS Subscales***

JSS Subscales	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig.
Pay	0.035	0.035	0.031	0.861
Promotion	1.172	1.172	1.047	0.307
Supervision	26.239	26.239	17.638	0.000
Benefits	3.911	3.911	4.126	0.043
Contingent Rewards	4.567	4.567	4.356	0.038
Operating Procedures	0.200	0.200	0.213	0.645
Coworkers	2.973	2.973	4.489	0.035
Nature of Work	1.187	1.187	1.301	0.255
Communication	0.147	0.147	0.130	0.719

df = 1**Table 8*****Means of JSS Subscales Run Against Working Status***

Dependent Variable	Working as an officer	Mean	Standard Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Supervision	Yes	4.51	0.09	4.34	4.67
	No	3.78	0.15	3.48	4.08
Benefits	Yes	2.81	0.07	2.68	2.94
	No	3.09	0.12	2.86	3.33
Contingent Rewards	Yes	3.00	0.07	2.86	3.14
	No	2.69	0.13	2.44	2.94
Coworkers	Yes	4.28	0.06	4.17	4.39
	No	4.04	0.10	3.84	4.23

score of 3.8. For benefits, those respondents no longer in law enforcement had a mean score of 2.8, and those still working in law enforcement had a mean score of 3.1. On contingent rewards, those no longer in law enforcement had a mean score of 3.0, while those still working in law enforcement had a mean score of 2.7. Finally, for the subscale coworkers, those no longer working in law enforcement had a mean score of 4.3, and those working in law enforcement had a mean score of 4.0. Overall, those no longer working in law enforcement were less satisfied with supervision, contingent rewards, and coworkers but were more satisfied with benefits than were those currently working in the field of law enforcement. When looking at working status against the JSS subscales, the hypothesis was rejected.

H₀₂: There is no significant difference between police officers' levels of job satisfaction based on their age.

The independent variable age consisted of (a) 40 years of age or younger, (b) between 41 and 50 years of age, and (c) 51 years of age or older. ANOVA results were $F(2, 270) = .198, p = .821$. Thus, no significant difference was found between age and overall job satisfaction as measured by the JSS. Therefore, when examining age and JSS totals, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

The MANOVA showed significant differences in the subscales with $F(18, 524) = 2.499$ with $p = .001$. As before, ANOVAs were run on all JSS subscales to determine which subscales differed by age. The two subscales that differed with age were supervision and benefits, as seen in Table 9. The Tukey HSD procedure was run on age and the JSS subscales for supervision and benefits. Significant differences were found between the youngest and oldest age groups for both supervision and benefits (Table 10).

Table 9***Analysis of Variance for Police Officers' Age and JSS Subscales***

JSS Subscales	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig.
Pay	3.375	1.688	1.510	0.223
Promotion	5.145	2.573	2.320	0.100
Supervision	11.475	5.737	3.707	0.026
Benefits	7.542	3.771	4.021	0.019
Contingent Rewards	0.508	0.254	0.238	0.788
Operating Procedures	3.991	1.996	2.149	0.119
Coworkers	0.003	0.001	0.002	0.998
Nature of Work	0.280	0.140	0.152	0.859
Communication	0.532	0.266	0.236	0.790

df = 2

Table 10

Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference Test for Comparison of Means of Age for the JSS Subscales Supervision and Benefits

JSS Subscales	Age	Age	Mean Difference	Standard Error	Sig.
Supervision	40 or younger	41-50	0.285	0.208	0.360
		51 or older	0.528	0.197	0.021*
	41-50	40 or younger	-0.285	0.208	0.360
		51 or older	0.243	0.172	0.336
	51 or older	40 or younger	-0.528	0.197	0.021*
		41-50	-0.243	0.172	0.336
Benefits	40 or younger	41-50	-0.117	0.162	0.752
		51 or older	-0.393	0.153	0.029*
	41-50	40 or younger	0.117	0.162	0.752
		51 or older	-0.277	0.134	0.100
	51 or older	40 or younger	0.393	0.153	0.029*
		41-50	0.277	0.134	0.100

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Means were then calculated for supervision and benefits according to age to see if a pattern emerged. Results showed that as officers aged, they were less satisfied with supervision but more satisfied with benefits. Refer to Table 11 to see means of supervision and benefits according to the age. When referring to age with JSS subscales, the null hypothesis was rejected.

H₀₃: There is no significant difference between police officers' levels of job satisfaction based on their gender.

The demographic data for gender indicated a skewed distribution between males (94%) and females (6%). Such obvious skewness has merited a “healthy skepticism toward stated probability” (Ott, 1988, pg. 6). Therefore, no statistical test was performed on null hypothesis 3 with gender and job satisfaction., and the third null hypothesis was not rejected.

H₀₄: There is no significant difference between police officers' levels of job satisfaction based on their marital status.

The independent variable marital status was collapsed into two categories, married and not married (includes single, divorced, and separated). The ANOVA on overall job satisfaction and marital status resulted in $F(1, 270) = 1.206, p = .273$. There was no significant difference found, since $p > .05$. Similarly, the results of the MANOVA showed no significant difference, with results of $F(9, 262) = .949, p = .12$. The results were not significantly different. Thus, no statistical analysis beyond the application of the ANOVA and MANOVA was warranted. Null hypothesis 4 was not rejected, indicating that marital status had no bearing on the level of job satisfaction.

Table 11***Means of JSS Subscales Run Against Supervision***

JSS Subscales	Age	Mean	Standard Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Supervision	40 or younger	4.67	0.16	4.35	4.98
	41-50	4.38	0.13	4.12	4.64
	51 or older	4.14	0.11	3.92	4.36
Benefits	40 or younger	2.66	0.13	2.41	2.91
	41-50	2.78	0.10	2.58	2.98
	51 or older	3.05	0.09	2.88	3.23

H₀5: There is no significant difference between police officers' levels of job satisfaction based on their ethnicity.

The demographic data for ethnicity indicated a skewed distribution of the four ethnicity categories: White (256), African-American (11), Hispanic (3), and Native American (3). Due to the low number (6.2%) of non-white respondents participating in the study, there was no statistically accurate way to analyze ethnicity compared to job satisfaction. Thus, no statistical test was performed on hypothesis 5, and null hypothesis number 5 was not rejected.

H₀6: There is no significant difference between police officers' level of job satisfaction based on their education level.

The independent variable, education level, was divided into five categories including completed high school or GED, some college, Associate's degree, Bachelor's degree, and more than a Bachelor's degree. There was a weak, but statistically significant, difference between education level and job satisfaction, $F(4, 267) = 2.637, p = .034$. Means for job satisfaction scores for each age category revealed no clear pattern to interpret. Also, there was not a great deal of variability between means, as can be seen in Table 12. As education level increased, the level of job satisfaction went up, then down, then up, then slightly up again. Additionally, a MANOVA was run to determine if any JSS subscales varied significantly with education level. Results were $F(36, 972) = 1.172, p = .226$, revealing no significant difference between subscales and education level. However, with the results from the ANOVA showing a significant difference between overall job satisfaction and education level, null hypothesis 6 was rejected.

Table 12***Means of JSS Subscales Run Against Education Level***

Education Level	Mean	Standard Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Completed high school/GED	3.24	0.11	3.02	3.46
Some college	3.42	0.06	3.30	3.54
Associate's degree	3.25	0.09	3.06	3.43
Bachelor's degree	3.57	0.09	3.39	3.76
More than Bachelor's degree	3.59	0.12	3.35	3.82

H₀7: There is no significant difference between police officers' levels of job satisfaction based on their years of experience.

Participants were asked their level of experience, and responses were divided into three major categories: 16 years or less, 16-25 years, and more than 25 years of experience. Based on statistical analysis of overall job satisfaction and years of experience, results showed $F(2, 268) = .597, p = .551$ indicating no significant difference. Next, a MANOVA was run to determine if any subscales of the JSS differed with regard to years of experience. Analysis found $F(18, 520) = 2.412$ with $p = .001$. Since $p < .05$, ANOVAs were run on all subscales to determine differences. The only subscale that showed a significant difference was supervision, which had a p value of .001 (Table 13).

Mean scores for supervision in relation to years of experience showed that for officers with less than 16 years of experience, the mean was 4.8. For officers with 16-25 years of experience, the mean job satisfaction score was 4.4. Officers who had more than 25 years of experience had a mean score of 4.0. See Table 14 for mean scores. Thus, as officers gained experience in law enforcement, their level of satisfaction with supervision decreased. With respect to years of experience and JSS total, null hypothesis 7 was not rejected. However, when looking at years of experience with JSS subscales, the hypothesis was rejected.

H₀8: There is no significant difference between police officers' levels of job satisfaction based on their intent to leave their employer.

The results of the ANOVA for hypothesis 8 revealed a significant difference between intent to leave employer and job satisfaction with $F(1, 269) = 11.397$ and $p = .001$. The mean level of job satisfaction of someone intending to leave his or her

Table 13***Analysis of Variance for Years of Experience and JSS Subscales***

JSS Subscales		Sum of Squares	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig.
Years of Experience	Pay	2.519	1.259	1.121	0.327
	Promotion	2.785	1.392	1.249	0.288
	Supervision	22.025	11.013	7.273	0.001
	Benefits	3.095	1.547	1.611	0.202
	Contingent Rewards	1.192	0.596	0.556	0.574
	Operating Procedures	3.438	1.719	1.835	0.162
	Coworkers	1.087	0.543	0.803	0.449
	Nature of Work	0.083	0.042	0.045	0.956
	Communication	2.186	1.093	0.978	0.377

df = 2**Table 14*****Means of JSS Subscales Run Against Years of Experience***

				95% Confidence Interval	
	Years of Experience	Mean	Standard Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Supervision	15 or less	4.79	0.16	4.48	5.10
	16-25	4.38	0.13	4.13	4.62
	26 or more	4.05	0.12	3.82	4.27

employer was 3.0, while the mean level of job satisfaction for someone not intending to leave his or her employer was 3.5. These means indicated that an officer who was intending to leave his or her employer was less satisfied than one who was not intending to leave. Further, a MANOVA was run to determine subscales that might be statistically significant with intent to leave the employer; results showed a significant difference of $F(9, 261) = 2.112$ with $p = .029$. Running the ANOVA on all subscales revealed that the subscales pay ($p = .016$), promotion ($p = .004$) contingent rewards ($p = .006$), and communication ($p < .001$) significantly differed.

Means of the four significant subscales were analyzed and showed that employees intending to leave their employers were less satisfied with four subscale measures: pay, promotion, contingent rewards, and communication. See Table 15 for individual mean scores. In sum, job satisfaction differed significantly in regard to officers' intent to leave their employer. Therefore, null hypothesis 8 was rejected.

H₀9: There is no significant difference between police officers' levels of job satisfaction and their intent to leave the field of law enforcement.

Hypothesis 7 asked participants whether they intended to leave the field of law enforcement within the next 5 years. Results showed a significant difference, with $F(1, 266) = 7.841$ and $p = .005$. Means revealed that officers intending to leave the field of law enforcement had lower overall job satisfaction with a mean of 3.1, whereas officers not intending the leave the field had a higher level of job satisfaction with a means score of 3.4. A MANOVA showed no significant differences with $F(9,258) = 1.307$ and $p = .234$. Null hypothesis 9 was rejected due to the significant difference found between overall JSS and an officers' intention to leave the field of law enforcement.

Table 15***Means of JSS Subscales Against Intention to Leave Employer***

JSS Subscales	Intention to Leave Employer	Mean	Standard Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Pay	Yes	2.23	0.20	1.85	2.62
	No	2.74	0.07	2.60	2.87
Promotion	Yes	2.28	0.19	1.90	2.67
	No	2.87	0.07	2.74	3.01
Contingent Rewards	Yes	2.42	0.19	2.05	2.80
	No	2.98	0.07	2.85	3.11
Communication	Yes	2.54	0.19	2.16	2.92
	No	3.30	0.07	3.17	3.43

H₀10: There is no significant relationship between police officers' levels of job satisfaction and the number of complaints against them.

With regard to the independent variable, number of complaints, participants were asked to write in the number of times someone had complained against them to their employer. For simplification, the numbers were categorized into six areas: 0 complaints, 1 complaint, 2 complaints, 3 complaints, 4-9 complaints, and 10 or more complaints. An ANOVA showed a statistical significance level of $F(5,265) = 2.607, p = .025$. However, after calculating the means, there seemed to be little variability. Means varied from a low of 3.1 to a high of 3.6 with no clear pattern. Table 16 shows the means of each level listed.

The only tentative conclusion one might make was that if someone had 10 or more complaints, he or she might be more inclined to have a lower level of job satisfaction. Otherwise, the results did not hold practical significance. Additionally, the researcher ran the Tukey's HSD procedure on number of complaints and job satisfaction and found no significant differences between the groups (see Table 17). Results of the MANOVA showed no significant difference in the JSS subscales with $F(45,1153) = 1.075, p = .343$. Due to the significant difference found on the overall JSS with the variable, number of complaints, hypothesis 10 was rejected.

H₀11: There is no significant relationship between police officers' level of job satisfaction based on how many times they are sued in relation to their job.

Regarding lawsuit status, participants were asked to indicate the number of lawsuits filed against them as law enforcement officers. Numbers were categorized into four levels: zero lawsuits, 1 lawsuit, 2 lawsuits, 3 or more lawsuits. Results of the

Table 16***Means of JSS Subscales Against Number of Complaints***

Number of Complaints	Mean	Standard Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
0	3.49	0.08	3.34	3.65
1	3.51	0.09	3.34	3.69
2	3.58	0.11	3.37	3.79
3	3.25	0.10	3.06	3.44
4-9	3.40	0.09	3.23	3.58
10 or more	3.11	0.13	2.85	3.36

Table 17

Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference Test for Comparisons of Means of Number of Complaints for Variable JSS

Number of Complaints	Number of Complaints	Mean Difference	Standard Error	Significance
0	1	-0.0203	0.12072	1.000
	2	-0.0871	0.13325	0.987
	3	0.2427	0.12525	0.381
	4-9	0.0903	0.11878	0.974
	10 or more	0.3860	0.15309	0.122
1	0	0.0203	0.12072	1.000
	2	-0.0669	0.13980	0.997
	3	0.2630	0.13221	0.351
	4-9	0.1106	0.12609	0.952
	10 or more	0.4063	0.15883	0.112
2	0	0.0871	0.13325	0.987
	1	0.0669	0.13980	0.997
	3	0.3299	0.14374	0.200
	4-9	0.1775	0.13813	0.793
	10 or more	0.4731	0.16854	0.059
3	0	-0.2427	0.12525	0.381
	1	-0.2630	0.13221	0.351
	2	-0.3299	0.14374	0.200
	4-9	-0.1524	0.13044	0.852
	10 or more	0.1433	0.16230	0.950
4-9	0	-0.0903	0.11878	0.974
	1	-0.1106	0.12609	0.952
	2	-0.1775	0.13813	0.793
	3	0.1524	0.13044	0.852
	10 or more	0.2957	0.15736	0.417
10 or more	0	-0.3860	0.15309	0.122
	1	-0.4063	0.15883	0.112
	2	-0.4731	0.16854	0.059
	3	-0.1433	0.16230	0.950
	4-9	-0.2957	0.15736	0.417

ANOVA revealed no significant difference between an officer's lawsuit status and his or her level of job satisfaction, $F(3, 268) = .670, p = .571$. Additionally, a MANOVA revealed no significant differences on subscales of JSS and number of lawsuits filed. The MANOVA results were $F(27,760) = .784, p = .775$. No further statistical analysis was warranted due to the lack of significance found. Null hypothesis 11 was not rejected.

H₀12: There is no significant relationship between police officers' level of job satisfaction based on their job characteristics.

The final hypothesis was run to determine any correlation existed between police officers' level of job satisfaction as measured by the JSS and their job characteristics as measured by the JDS. To determine this, the researcher plotted a scatter diagram to give a visual idea if any correlation existed. The amount of scatter revealed a positive relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction, as can be seen in Figure 2. Due to the subjectivity involved in interpreting a scatter diagram, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (Pearson r), was conducted on JDS total scores against the JSS total scores. A coefficient of +1 presents a perfect positive correlation and a coefficient of -1 presents a perfect negative correlation. A correlation of zero represents no correlation. Pearson r results showed that overall job characteristics measured by JDS correlated with overall job satisfaction as measured by JSS ($r = .39$). Also, Pearson r was applied to each subscale of the JDS against overall JSS. Results showed subscales of the JDS positively correlated with overall job satisfaction as measured by the JSS, albeit weakly. The strongest correlations were between feedback and job satisfaction ($r = .372$), autonomy and job satisfaction ($r = .355$), and task identity and job satisfaction ($r = .324$).

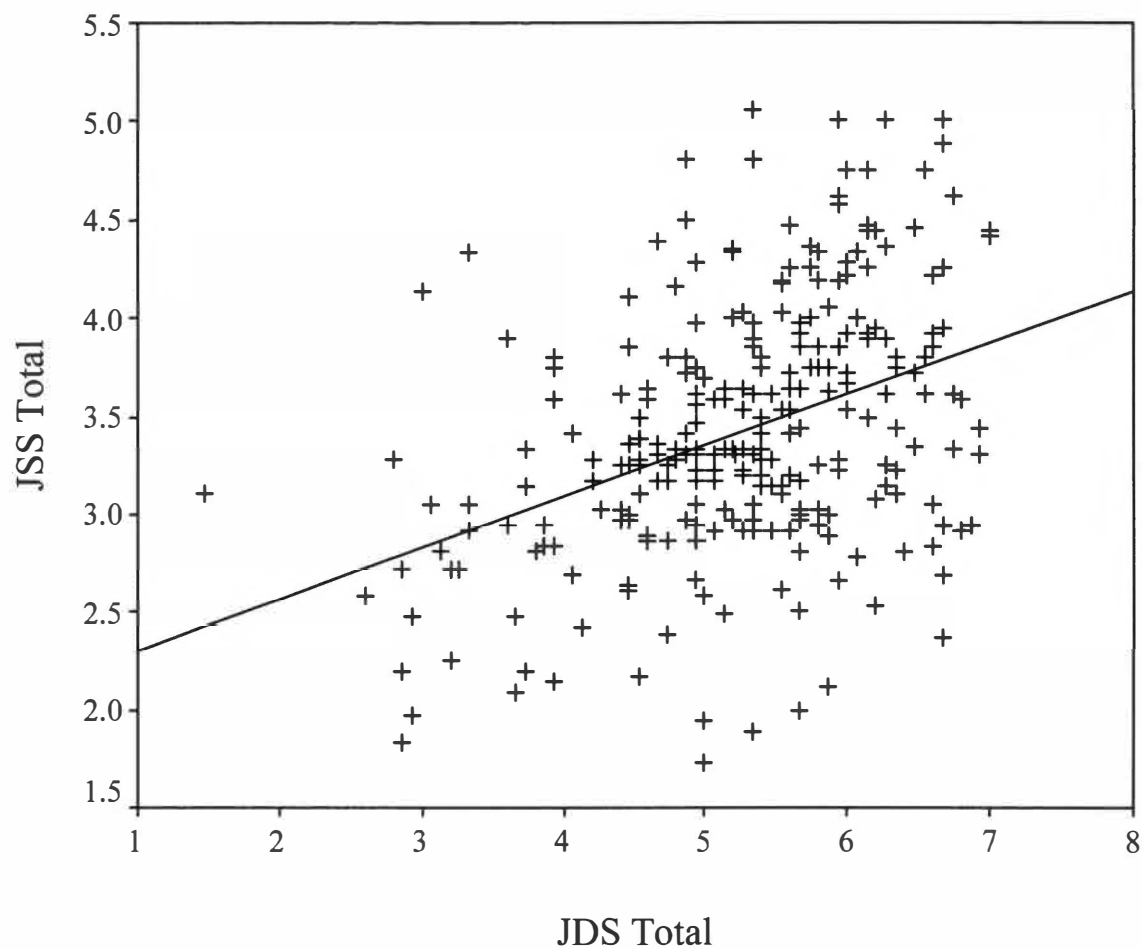


Figure 2. Scatter diagram of respondents' JSS totals plotted against their JDS totals.
($N = 274$)

Weaker correlations were seen between task significance and job satisfaction ($r = .226$) and skill variety and job satisfaction ($r = .163$). All correlations were significant at a 0.01 level (two-tailed). Table 18 displays correlations of the JDS subscales with overall JSS.

Regression analysis was used to determine if any of the JDS subscales predicted job satisfaction. Results of the regression showed that only 19% ($R^2 = .186$) of the total variability in JSS totals could be explained by the JDS subscales. Looking at the ANOVA in Table 19 revealed $F(5,265) = 12.095$ at $p < .001$ showing that at least one of the JDS subscales predicted job satisfaction. Stepwise multiple regression revealed that only two scales were significant in predicting job satisfaction: autonomy and feedback (see Table 20). Due the correlation found between the JDS and the JSS, null hypothesis 12 was rejected.

Summary

Results from data given by law enforcement officers in Tennessee were presented in this chapter. The officers completed surveys with questions concerning demographics, intentions to leave their employer, intentions to leave the field of law enforcement, number of complaints, number of lawsuits filed against them, the JSS, and the JDS. Null hypotheses 1-11 were tested with ANOVAs and MANOVAs at the $p > .05$ level of significance. Hypothesis 12 was tested with Pearson r and stepwise multiple regression analysis.

The overall response rate was 63.4%. Of those, 24% were retired or no longer working in law enforcement, and the other 76% were currently working law enforcement officers. Other noteworthy demographic results revealed that a majority (94%) of the respondents were male; most were married (81%), and most were White (94%).

Table 18***Pearson-Moment Correlations of JDS Subscales Against Total JSS***

	JSS Total	Autonomy	Task Identity	Skill Variety	Significance	Feedback
JSS Total	1	.355*	.324*	.163*	.226*	.372*
Autonomy	.355*	1	.455*	.435*	.375*	.524*
Task Identity	.324*	.455*	1	.276*	.309*	.615*
Skill Variety	.163*	.435*	.276*	1	.663*	.429*
Significance	.226*	.375*	.309*	.663*	1	.502*
Feedback	.372*	.524*	.615*	.429*	.502*	1

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

N = 271

Table 19***Analysis of Variance for Regression Predicting JSS***

	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig.
Regression	21.411	5	4.282	12.095	.001 ^a
Residual	93.822	265	0.354		
Total	115.233	270			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Feedback, Skill Variety, Autonomy, Task Identity, Significance

Table 20***Multiple Stepwise Regression for JDS Subscales and JSS Total***

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	<i>t</i>	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.231	0.217		10.286	0.001
Autonomy	0.114	0.036	0.216	3.132	0.002
Task Identity	0.044	0.029	0.109	1.524	0.129
Skill Variety	-0.057	0.046	-0.095	-1.240	0.216
Significance	0.043	0.044	0.077	0.990	0.323
Feedback	0.093	0.039	0.193	2.407	0.017

$R^2 = .186$

When asked about their intention to leave their employers in the next 5 years, most said no (89%); just as most (91%) said no to the question of whether or not they had intentions of leaving the field of law enforcement in the next 5 years.

For the number of times respondents had been complained against to their department, 24% of respondents had no complaints against them; approximately 19% had been complained against once; 13% had 2 complaints against them; 16% had 3 complaints against them; 20% had 4-9 complaints against them, and 10% had 10 or more complaints against them. Their responses to the number of lawsuits filed against them were that approximately 43% had zero; 31% had one; 15% had two, and 11% that had three or more lawsuits filed against them.

The reliability of the survey was strong overall, with both the JDS and the JSS having a reliability coefficient of .90. The reliabilities for the subscales for both surveys were all above .70 except for 3 subscales of the JSS: benefits, operation procedures, and coworkers. The overall mean of the JDS was 5.2 out of 7.0, which showed an above-average positive response to job characteristics, whereas the overall means for the JSS was 3.4 out of 6.0, which was neither positive nor negative.

Hypothesis 1 revealed that respondents retired or no longer working in the law enforcement field were less satisfied with supervision, contingent rewards, and coworkers but were more satisfied with benefits than were respondents currently working in the field. Hypothesis 2 showed that as officers got older, they were less satisfied with supervision, but were more satisfied with benefits. There was not enough variation in the data to analyze hypothesis 3 concerning gender and job satisfaction nor was there enough data to analyze hypothesis 5 concerning ethnicity.

Analysis for hypothesis 4 showed no significant difference between marital status and job satisfaction; thus, hypothesis 4 was not rejected. Results from hypothesis 6 showed a significant difference in education level and job satisfaction. However, with little variability between means and no clear pattern, not much was gleaned from this analysis. Hypothesis 7 showed no significant difference between years of experience and overall job satisfaction. However, when years of experience was run against the JSS subscales, the researcher found that officers with more experience had lower levels of satisfaction with supervision than officers with less experience.

The conclusion of hypothesis 8 was that an officer intending to leave his or her employer in the next 5 years was less satisfied overall than was an officer planning to stay. Also, officers intending to leave their employers were less satisfied with the four subscales of pay, promotion, contingent rewards, and communication than were officers intending to stay with the employer. Similarly, hypothesis 9 showed that officers intending to leave the field of law enforcement within 5 years were less satisfied overall than were officers who did not plan to leave the field of law enforcement.

For hypothesis 10, there was a statistical significance between the number of complaints against an officer and his or her level of job satisfaction, but no clear pattern resulted from the means to extrapolate any definite conclusions about the data. Conversely, hypothesis 11 did not show any statistical significance at all. There was no indication that the number of lawsuits filed against the officer varied with job satisfaction. Therefore, hypothesis 11 was not rejected.

Finally, hypothesis 12 tested whether or not any relationship existed between job characteristics as measured by the JDS and job satisfaction as measured by the JSS.

Results showed that job characteristics correlated with job satisfaction ($r = .39$). In addition, each subscale of the JDS positively correlated with the JSS, although the correlations were weak, ranging from $r = .372$ to $r = .163$. Stepwise multiple regression was run, indicating that 19% of the variability in the JSS total could be explained by JDS subscales. In particular, two subscales, autonomy and feedback, were significant in predicting job satisfaction. Due to the correlations between job characteristics and job satisfaction, null hypothesis 12 was rejected.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter summarizes the study and reviews major findings. Based upon the study's results several conclusions and recommendations have been made. The chapter closes with implications for future research on job characteristics and job satisfaction.

Summary

The primary purpose of the study was to determine whether or not job characteristics such as skill variety, task identity, autonomy, feedback-from-job, and task significance were significantly related to job satisfaction. In addition, the purpose was to find out if the demographic characteristics of working status, age, gender, marital status, ethnicity, education level, and years of experience varied significantly with job satisfaction. Finally, this study explored whether or not intention to leave employer, intention to leave field, number of complaints, and number of lawsuits filed varied significantly with overall job satisfaction.

The population for this study consisted of Fraternal Order of Police (FOP) members in Tennessee. A total of 465 officers were selected randomly from a list of 3,854. The overall response rate for this study was 63.4%. Most respondents were married White males. The reliability coefficients for both survey instruments, the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) was .90 for this population. Subscales for both surveys were all above .70 except three subscales in the JSS: benefits, operating conditions, and coworkers.

This study revealed several findings. Whereas some of the findings agreed in part with evidence from the review of literature, other findings differed. Demographic results showed that as officers got older, their satisfaction with supervision decreased, but their level of satisfaction with benefits increased. The literature supported this finding. A different study by Wagner and Rush (2000) showed job satisfaction positively correlated with younger participants, as did a study by Forsyth and Copes (1994). Although statistical tests could not be performed on gender in this study due to the low number of female respondents (6%), one study with 2,309 male and 309 female officers found little difference in job satisfaction based solely on gender (Dantzker & Kubin, 1998).

In this study, education level was significantly related to job satisfaction, but no clear pattern emerged when looking at the means. However, officers who had only completed high school or acquired GED status rated lower than any other educational category on job satisfaction, and officers who went beyond a bachelor's degree had the highest level of job satisfaction. This contrasted sharply with Dantzker's (1998) study with officers. He found that officers who had graduated high school or passed their GED had the greatest level of job satisfaction, and officers with a bachelor's degree had the next highest level of job satisfaction, followed by officers with an associate's degree. Differences in department policies regarding education level might have contributed to this difference in study findings.

Regarding years of experience, this study found that as officers increased in their years of experience, their level of job satisfaction with supervisors decreased. Somewhat contrary to that, Cannizzo and Liu (1995) found that officers in their middle years (16-25) faced the greatest amount of burnout. Also, a study by Forsyth and Copes (1994)

showed that as participants aged, their level of job satisfaction decreased. Concurrent with Sheley and Nock (1979), this study found that as officers gained experience, their level of satisfaction with supervision decreased.

Although this study found that officers rated satisfaction with pay lower than any other work factor, it was not correlated with overall job satisfaction or demographic factors. Similar to this finding, Sheley and Nock (1979) found that pay was not a factor in job satisfaction. Interestingly, a study by Putti and Singh (1985) with 356 officers found the three factors that officers were most satisfied with were supervisors, coworkers, and the work itself. These three also were the three highest rated factors in this study. Furthermore, Putti and Singh found that the two factors rated lowest by officers were pay and promotional opportunities, which, again, were the two lowest, rated items in this study.

One consistent trend revealed in this study was that as officers increased in age and experience and entered retirement, they became less satisfied with supervision. Also, the study showed a trend toward increased satisfaction with benefits as age increased, both with retirement and actual age. The researcher was unable to locate any other studies noting this trend.

Officers who were planning to leave their employer or the field of law enforcement had less overall job satisfaction than did officers who did not plan to leave. Shaw (1999) also concluded that decreased job satisfaction significantly predicted turnover intentions. Another study also found that job satisfaction, especially satisfaction with supervisors, promoted loyalty and repressed intention to turnover (Hagedoorn, Van Yperen, Van De Vliert, & Buunk, 1999). Additional studies have shown a strong

negative relationship between job satisfaction and intention to turnover (Locke, 1975; Porter & Steers, 1973). Results of this study also showed that officers intending to leave their employer were less satisfied with pay, promotion, contingent rewards, and communication than were officers intending to stay with their employer. The findings on communication were similar to a study involving American and Danish police that concluded that Denmark's low turnover rate was attributable to factors such as their open communication environment and high level of security for officers (DeLey, 1984).

Data analysis indicated that there was a statistical significance between number of complaints against an officer and level of job satisfaction. However, in looking at the means of scores on job satisfaction, no clear pattern appeared; therefore, no practical significance was placed on this finding. There was no indication that the number of lawsuits against an officer was significant in relation to job satisfaction.

This study found that overall job characteristics positively correlated with job satisfaction, which was in agreement with a study by Judge, Locke, Durham, and Kluger (1998) who looked at the JDS in regard to job satisfaction. Also, each individual subscale of the JDS was positively correlated to job satisfaction. For predication analysis, only 19% of the variation in the JSS could be predicted by JDS subscales. Only two of the JDS subscales predicted job satisfaction: autonomy and feedback. This finding was similar to Zhao, Thurman, and He's (1999) study, which also used the JDS subscales to find correlations with job satisfaction. They found autonomy was significant throughout all three regression runs that they performed. Zhao, Thurman, and He also found that feedback was closely correlated with job satisfaction, as did Jermier and Berkes (1979). Poole, Regoli, and Lotz (1978) also found similar results regarding how the increase in

autonomy reduces both cynicism and work alienation in large departments. Due to the correlations found between job characteristics and job satisfaction, null hypothesis 12 was rejected.

On the back of the survey, participants had the opportunity to add “Any addition comments or suggestions.” Although comments were not an official part of this study, a cursory summary of the findings proved interesting. As can be seen in Appendix H, the comments were divided into seven categories including comments about politics in police work, administration issues, pay or benefits, the job itself, position or rank, comments about the survey, and miscellaneous comments. Looking at the comments in each section showed that practically all of the comments concerning management, supervision, administration, company policies, pay, or benefits were negative comments and almost all of the comments about the job itself were positive comments. Most notably, these were almost precisely the results that Herzberg (1968) found when he conducted the survey that was the basis for his theory of motivation and hygiene. As noted in Chapter I, Herzberg’s findings showed the primary reason employees were unhappy was due to such factors as supervisory practices, company policies, pay, benefits, and working conditions, whereas employees derived a majority of their satisfaction their job from the work itself. Thus, it appeared that a superficial look at the comments in this study reflected the findings in Herzberg’s study.

Although the comments painted a picture that matched Herzberg’s (1968) theory, the actual data from the surveys varied in applicability to his theory. The three highest rated categories on the JSS were supervision, the job itself, and coworkers; the lowest rated categories were pay, promotion, and benefits. The main contradiction between this

study's findings and Herzberg's theory was that employees rated supervision as one of the highest areas of satisfaction. However, Herzberg also said that motivating factors of a job included the job itself and satisfying factors. The data from this study echoed his findings. In particular, the two factors that predicated job satisfaction in this study were significance and feedback. Both of these were satisfying factors, as Herzberg would call them, thus supporting his theory of motivation and hygiene.

Major Findings

Results of the data analysis revealed that the population of Fraternal Order of Police members, who all have been or are law enforcement officers, were primarily male, White, and married. Based on univariant analysis of variance, null hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, and 11 were not rejected. However, significant differences were found between independent variables and the dependent variable, job satisfaction, in hypotheses 6, 8, 9, and 10. Null hypothesis 12, stating that there was no significant relationship between police officers' job characteristics as measured by the Job Diagnostic Survey and their level of job satisfaction as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey, was rejected at the $p < .05$ level of significance. Statistical analyses revealed in the following major findings:

1. The overall mean of the JDS was 5.2 out of 7.0, which showed an above average positive response to job characteristics, while the overall mean for the JSS was 3.4 out of 6.0, indicating respondents were not particularly satisfied nor unsatisfied.
2. Officers who were retired or no longer working in the law enforcement field were less satisfied with supervision, contingent rewards, and coworkers but more satisfied with benefits than respondents currently working in the field.
3. As officers aged, they were less satisfied with supervision, but more satisfied with benefits.

4. Marital status did not significantly correlate with total job satisfaction or with the JSS subscales.
5. Officers with more experience had lower levels of satisfaction with supervision than officers with less experience.
6. Officers intending to leave their employer or the field of law enforcement in the next 5 years were less satisfied overall than officers planning to stay, and officers intending to leave their employer were less satisfied with the four subscales of pay, promotion, contingent rewards, and communication than were officers intending to stay with their employer.
7. Number of complaints against an officer varied significantly with job satisfaction, but number of lawsuits filed against an officer did not show significance.
8. Job characteristics were positively correlated with job satisfaction. Each subscale of the JDS showed a positive, weak correlation with the JSS. In addition, JDS subscales predicted 19% of the variability in the JSS total. In particular, two subscales scores, autonomy and feedback, were significant in predicting job satisfaction.

Conclusions

From the findings of the study, certain conclusions can be drawn keeping in mind the limitations and delimitations listed in Chapter III. With the knowledge that the reliabilities of the instruments were valid, the following conclusions were developed

1. The field of law enforcement in Tennessee is, as it has been in the past, primarily made up of White males.
2. As law enforcement officers get older and their experience as officers grow, they are more likely to become less satisfied with supervision in their department.
3. Officers in Tennessee who are intending to leave their agency or the field of law enforcement have less job satisfaction than those who do not intend to leave.
4. As found in previous studies (Judge et al., 1998; Zhao et al., 1999), job characteristics as measured by the JDS had a strong positive relationship with job satisfaction as measured by the JSS. That is, as the job characteristic rating increased, so too did the job satisfaction rating. As the job characteristic rating

decreased, so too did the job satisfaction rating. This is not to say that one predicts the other, but simply that as one goes up or down, generally, the other one does also.

5. Subscales scores of job characteristics, such as autonomy, task identity, skill variety, significance, and feedback each had a positive correlation with overall job satisfaction as measured by the JSS.
6. Nineteen percent of the variability in the JSS could be attributed to autonomy, task identity, skill variety, significance, and feedback, while autonomy and feedback were actually significant in predicting job satisfaction.

Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions of this study, the following research efforts are recommended for future studies. They are

1. Occasionally location can affect answers on surveys. States have different laws, policies, pay, and benefits, some which may help or hurt officers. Also, the work itself could differ depending on whether the area is small, large, urban, or rural. Research replicating this study with various location differences or a study with a national population may reveal interesting results.
2. It might be that all members in the FOP are different than the general police population. For instance, maybe officers who are generally happier with their jobs join the FOP. If that was the case, then the results may not necessarily be correctly extrapolated to the population of police officers in Tennessee. For a future study, it would be useful to use a different organization mailing list within Tennessee. Results could then be compared to identify any similarities or differences between the studies.
3. Several officers commented on what their rank was and indicated that their position or rank within the department affected their responses on the survey. Therefore, it could be useful to have a study that focuses on positions within the department either by having only certain ranks or positions included in the study or by having the respondent designate their rank or position.
4. Most officers have several supervisors up through the ranks (sergeant, lieutenant, captain, etc.) Some officers noted that they were not sure on the JSS, when asked about their supervisor, which one the officer should refer to when answering those questions. It would be informative and interesting to have the supervisor questions asked for each supervisor. For instance, the questions could perhaps be repeated several times allowing for the respondent

to write first which supervisor they are referring to (in terms of first line, second line, etc.) and then rank each one. This would give researchers a chance to see if satisfaction with supervisors depended on which supervisor it was and how far “up the chain” they were.

5. When asked about the number of complaints, one pertinent question that could be asked in future studies is, “In how many of these complaints were you cleared of any wrongdoing?” Also, since higher ranking officers are often named in lawsuits where they were not personally involved but simply were named due to their supervisor status, it would be good to know how many of the lawsuits were they named primary defendant. How many of those did they win (or lose)? This might give a better, more accurate picture of these questions.
6. A study with a more structured qualitative section would benefit this research area. One-on-one interviews with officers as well as more write-in areas on the survey along with professional analysis of the data might lend a great deal to the field of factors influencing job satisfaction.
7. Given the low correlations between job characteristics and job satisfaction, it might be beneficial to have a future study examine additional factors that may be influencing job satisfaction, such as the personalities of the officers (hardy versus non-hardy or resilient versus non-resilient) and levels of stress and burnout. Measuring additional variables may increase knowledge concerning factors related to job satisfaction.
8. One subject that seems to be missing in the research on job satisfaction and police work is simply the contrast between what one expects when wanting to be an officer and what the job actually entails. Several officers in their comments seemed to feel sorry for people just entering the field of law enforcement, almost as if they feel sorry knowing the disappointment the new officer will face when reality hits superhero image. For example, one person wrote, “A person with my experience in law enforcement, if age 21, would never go into law enforcement.” An open-ended question might lead to some discovery in this area such as, “Before you became a police officer, what did you think it would be like? ... Now that you are a police officer, what have you discovered?”
9. It might be useful to analyze the subscales of each survey in relation to that same survey’s subscale. For instance, analyze the subscale “pay” in the JSS and see how, or if, it correlates with “coworkers” in the JSS within the same study.
10. Although there was not a question on the survey specifically asking about administration or “politics” in the department, there were many comments

written in about it, enough to warrant a future study to question whether politics play a part in the job and to what extent that impacts job satisfaction. An example of such a comment was, “Stop all the red tape and political bullshit and let the men do their work.”

Implications

After reviewing the literature review, results, conclusions, and recommendations from this study, some implications emerged. These implications are suggestions on ways to apply this study in real-life ways. These are simply inferences based on the information and should be taken as such.

1. This study shows that police officers in Tennessee are primarily White men. The disproportionately low number of women and ethnic minorities should be seriously looked at by police agencies in an attempt to equalize the number of minorities and non-minorities. Active recruiting of women and ethnic minorities should be used by departments as well as ensuring that once they are hired, they are retained. Although police departments may do this differently, the goal should be the same: Hire and retain women and ethnic minorities.
2. One of the comments on the back of the survey said, “The most trouble officers have are with supervisors.” Also, the results from the data analysis showed that satisfaction with supervision decreased with age. Given such a direct link between supervision and job satisfaction, it might be worth police agencies’ time to incorporate supervisor training into their yearly in-service training. Being reminded each year of such things as respect for subordinates, giving feedback, fairness, and so forth, may decrease the number of complaints. As Brewer (1998) noted, “Supervisory styles and techniques of conflict management help to determine employee attitudes and influence retention decision” (p. 29). Whatever the method, improving supervisory practices in any department will likely increase job satisfaction, and department leaders should put this as a high priority in their agency.
3. Given the number of comments mentioning the “politics” involved in police work, it would be worth an agencies’ time to work on taking the politics out of the office. For instance, streamline the promotional process so that officers who are eligible for promotion must take certain tests to be promoted or have outside agency personnel come in to conduct interviews, review personnel folders, and make decisions. This is not always practical, but any step toward creating a fair system of hiring and promotion will probably benefit a department and decrease the resentment of officers not promoted.

4. The lowest rating on the JSS was pay and the third lowest rating was benefits. Although this suggestion may be obvious, it needs to be said that increasing the salary and benefits package needs to be looked at every year by departments to make sure that their salary and benefits are in line with other cities, counties, and states. Officers are not satisfied with their pay. Department leaders need to apply for grants, find ways to get increased revenue from the city, county, state, or federal government and pass that on to their employees. One person commented, “Law enforcement requires increasing levels of education and training. Salary and benefits are not commensurate with these elevated levels of expertise.”
5. Some companies and government agencies use an “exit interview” as a time to find out why an employee is leaving. This study indicated that employees planning to leave had overall low job satisfaction and were less satisfied, specifically with pay, promotion, contingent rewards, and communication. If a police agency or department knows the primary reasons why their employees are leaving, it can begin to implement goals to help alleviate those problems. Therefore, one implication of this study is for agencies to begin exit interviews with parting officers to discover reasons for their leaving to help prevent job loss in the future. As this study showed, officers’ turnover may well be tied to specific factors, which could be improved with some effort.
6. In line with Herzberg’s (1968) theory of motivation and hygiene, the subscales, “significance” and “nature of work” were, respectively, the two highest means for the JDS and the JSS. Both of these characteristics indicate that officers are most satisfied with the work itself. In other words, they like doing police work. The lowest ratings were for agency-induced factors such as pay, supervision, and benefits. In fact, the results indicate that if officers were given more autonomy to do what they enjoy most -- their job -- it is likely that job satisfaction would increase. Therefore, law enforcement departments should concentrate on increasing police officer autonomy that might naturally have officers concentrating less on the negative parts of their job such as politics, supervision, and pay and more on the part they like – the police work.

Summary

This chapter summarized the study, reviewed major findings, made some conclusions and recommendations, and gave implications for future research on the topic of job characteristics and job satisfaction. A couple of major findings included that officers were less satisfied with supervision as they aged but they became more satisfied

with benefits. Also, autonomy and feedback predicted job satisfaction. An interesting, but not conclusive finding was that the comments made by the officers supported Herzberg's (1968) theory of hygiene and motivation, but the data from the JSS were not as supportive of his theory. Finally, it has been hoped that the suggestions and implications made in this chapter will be helpful not only to the field of law enforcement but also to all human resource personnel trying to increase job satisfaction in their employees.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

PERMISSION TO USE HACKMAN AND OLDHAM'S DIAGRAM OF THE COMPLETE JOB CHARACTERISTICS

Request for Permission to Use Pearson Education Content in Print Format

TO: <i>Admission Mary Ann Broadway</i> PERMISSIONS DEPARTMENT FAX: 201.236.3290		FROM: Angela Hill, Graduate student at the University of Tennessee in Knoxville	
BOOK TITLE: Work Redesign		EDITION:	
AUTHOR: J. Richard Hackman and Greg R. Oldham			
ISBN: 0-201-02779-8		ISBN:	
ANCILLARY:			
REQUESTED MATERIAL INCLUDES PAGES, ILLUSTRATION AND FIGURE NUMBER, CHAPTERS, PAGES, CHARTS, PHOTOGRAPHS, AND THE PAGE NUMBERS ON WHICH THEY APPEAR.			
Figure 4.6: The complete job characteristics model. Chapter 4, page 90.			
NOW THE REQUESTER WISHES TO USE THE MATERIAL: i.e., CLASSROOM HANDOUT, COURSEPACK, REPLICATIONS			
I would like to put the figure in my thesis to illustrate Hackman and Oldham's model of job characteristics.			
FOR CLASSROOM USE:		FOR OTHER USES:	
PROFESSOR'S NAME:		REQUESTOR'S NAME: Angela M. Hill	
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E-MAIL ADDRESS:		E-MAIL AND FAX: ahill@cityofknoxville.org (865) 218-7133	
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<i>Angela Hill</i> <i>5/9/02</i> <i>You have our permission to include in your thesis figure 4.6 from our text. Work Redesign by J. Hackman and Greg Oldham.</i>		There is no publisher. I will make 5 copies of my thesis: one for all three committee members, 1 for the University of Tennessee library, and 2 for myself. I intend to make these 5 copies in July 2002.	
		NUMBER OF COPIES OR UNITS THAT WILL BE REPRODUCED:	
		USER TYPE (e.g., enrolled students, all campus students, alumni):	
		Anyone with access to the University of Tennessee in Knoxville library will have access to this thesis. Will the textbook be adopted and students required to purchase the text or product for the course?	

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APPENDIX B

LETTERS OF PERMISSION TO USE INSTRUMENTS

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*University of Pittsburgh School of
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Gerald Zaltman, PhD
*Harvard University Graduate School of
Business Administration*

Stephen J. Zyzanski, PhD
*Case Western Reserve University
School of Medicine*

To: Ms. Angela Hill
From: Evelyn Perloff, PhD

Date: November 29, 2001

Enclosed is the:

Revised Job Diagnostic Survey
J. R. Hackman and G. R. Oldham

As I have indicated authors like to receive feedback on your study. All that is asked is that you provide a brief summary of your findings upon completion of your study/project. In addition, we encourage you to send a full report which we will consider for inclusion in Health and Psychosocial Instruments (HaPI) and which you may list on your vita/resume.

Enclosed also is an invoice for the service of handling, processing, postage, and correspondence with authors and patrons.

Please note that the instruments are for a single study only. It is, of course, necessary to provide the appropriate title and author credit in reproduced material and in your report.

PO Box 110287 • Pittsburgh, PA 15232-0787

Phone: 412-687-6850 Fax: 412-687-5213 E-mail: bmdshapi@aol.com

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*Behavioral Measurement
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Nursing*

Gerald Zaltman, PhD
*Harvard University Graduate School of
Business Administration*

Stephen J. Zyzanski, PhD
*Case Western Reserve University
School of Medicine*

To: Ms. Angela Hill
From: Evelyn Perloff, PhD

Date: December 5, 2001

Enclosed is the:

Job Satisfaction Survey
P. Spector

As I have indicated authors like to receive feedback on your study. All that is asked is that you provide a brief summary of your findings upon completion of your study/project. In addition, we encourage you to send a full report which we will consider for inclusion in Health and Psychosocial Instruments (HaPI) and which you may list on your vita/resume.

Enclosed also is an invoice for the service of handling, processing, postage, and correspondence with authors and patrons.

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FAX: (865) 974-3961
ewbrewer@utdax.utcc.utk.edu

February 19, 2002

John Doe
123 Right St.
Nashville, TN 34543

Dear John,

I am conducting a study for The University of Tennessee, Department of Human Resource Development. In conjunction with the Fraternal Order of Police of Tennessee I am writing to request your participation in this statewide study focusing on the existence of a relationship between job satisfaction and characteristics of the job such as supervision and job variety. This study is being conducted with the law enforcement profession with the goal of finding ways to improve job satisfaction in this field.

Your questionnaire responses will be anonymous and appreciated. To ensure confidentiality and facilitate tracking of the feedback, the questionnaires are numerically coded to limit follow-up notifications. One dollar has been included to thank you for your time and energy. If you are interested in receiving a copy of the research findings, please contact me via email at angelahill@worldnet.att.net or mail your information to Angela Hill, 7749 Ashley Road, Powell, TN 37849.

I would appreciate your completing of the questionnaires by February 28, 2002. I have provided a stamped, addressed envelope for you to use in returning the questionnaires. Please do not put your name on the questionnaires.

I understand that your schedule is busy and your time is valuable. However, I hope the short time it takes you to complete these surveys will lead to further insight into the work life of law enforcement professionals in today's work environment.

Thank you in advance for your participation. If you have any questions about the study, you can email me at angelahill@worldnet.att.net.

Yours truly,

Angela Hill
Project Director

Cc: Dr. Ernest W. Brewer, Professor

APPENDIX D

FOLLOW-UP LETTER SENT WITH SECOND MAIL-OUT



March 18, 2002

John Doe
123 Right St.
Nashville, TN 34543

Department of Human Resource Development
25 HPER Building
1914 Andy Holt Ave.
Knoxville, Tennessee 37996-2745
(865) 974-4466
FAX: (865) 974-3961
ewbrewer@urhdx.utcc.utk.edu

Dear John,

A few weeks ago I informed you of a study I am conducting for the University of Tennessee, Department of Human Resource Development in conjunction with the Fraternal Order of Police. Working for the Knoxville Police Department has given me the opportunity to see the importance of job satisfaction in the lives of law enforcement officers. The goal of this study is to identify some of the factors that may increase job satisfaction for officers. To accomplish this goal, I need your participation in this state-wide study.

I assure you that your questionnaire responses are confidential and appreciated. If you would like to receive a copy of the research findings, please contact me via email at angelahill@worldnet.att.net. If you do not have email, you can mail your information to Angela Hill, 7749 Ashley Road, Powell, TN, 37849.

I understand that your schedule is busy and your time is valuable. However, I hope the short time it takes you to complete and return this survey will lead to further insight into the work life of law enforcement officers in today's work environment. I would greatly appreciate the return of your surveys by March 30th. I have provided a stamped, addressed envelope for you to use in returning the questionnaires. Please do not put your name on the questionnaires.

Thank you in advance for your participation. If you have any questions about the study, you can email me at angelahill@worldnet.att.net.

If you have already returned your survey, please disregard this letter.

Yours truly,

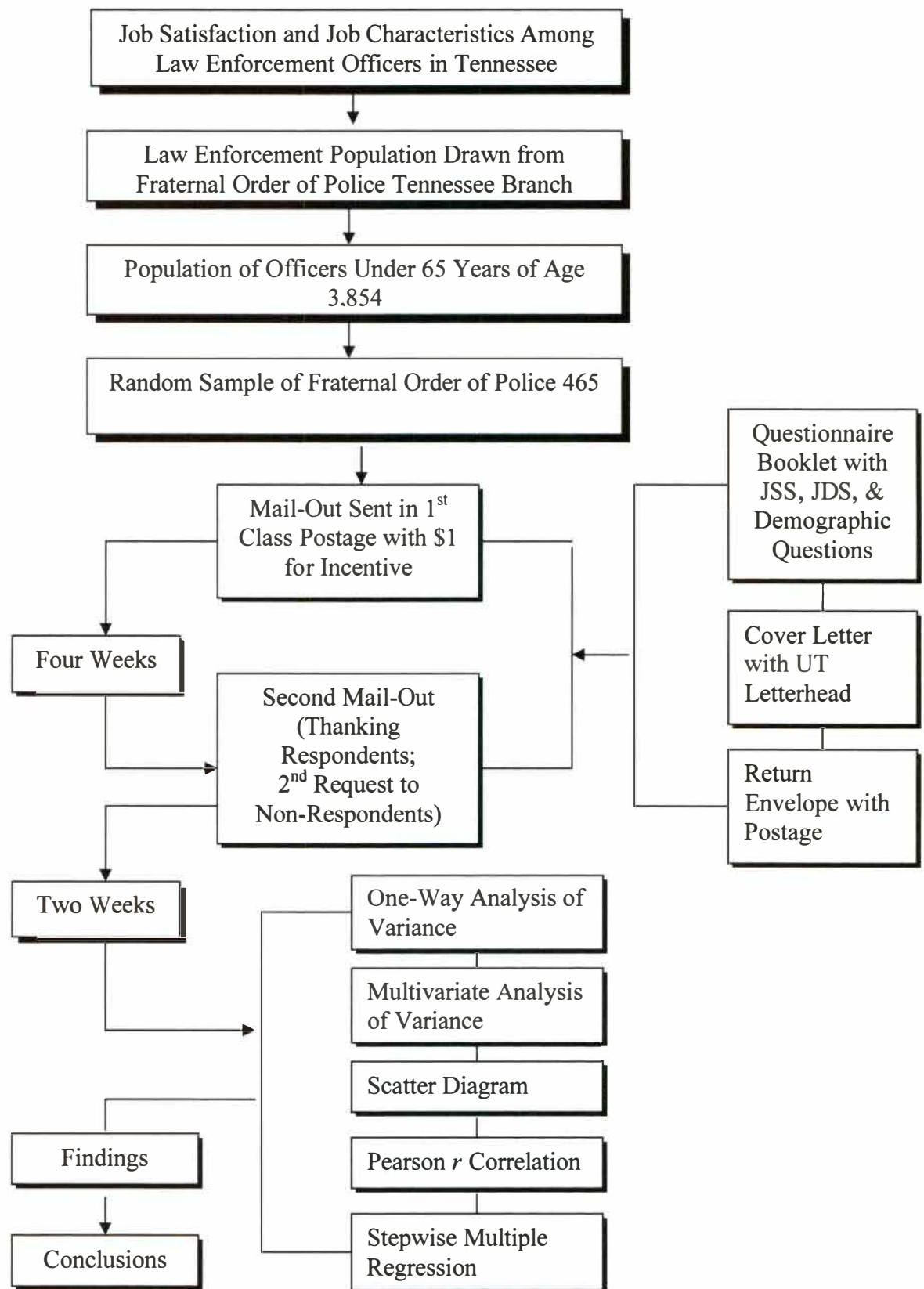
Angela Hill
Project Director

Cc: Dr. Ernest W. Brewer, Professor

Enclosure

APPENDIX E

FLOWCHART FOR THE DESIGN OF THE STUDY



APPENDIX F

ACTUAL RESPONSES FROM SURVEY RESPONDENTS ON “INTENTION TO LEAVE PLACE OF EMPLOYMENT” QUESTION

Reasons Given for “Intention to Leave Place of Employment”

Below are comments from respondents who chose to write in a reason for their intention to leave their place of employment within the next five years. Comments have been grouped into six categories: retirement, money needs, administration dissatisfaction, other opportunities, burnout with the job, and miscellaneous reasons.

Retirement

1. Old age
2. Retirement and part-time job
3. 33 years is long enough

Money Needs

1. If I could find something rewarding that paid good
2. Money. It is tough in the South making a living in law enforcement
3. Benefits
4. Pay
5. Pay

Administration Dissatisfaction

1. Conflict with administration (Chief Law Enforcement office),
Mismanagement and lack of ethics
2. Leadership in upper ranks
3. Dissatisfied with agency
4. Admin. problems
5. Lack of knee jerk reactions to public complaints
6. Dissatisfied with administration within police department
7. Lack of promotional opportunity

Other Opportunities

1. Start up own business
2. Pursue other interests. Start own business
3. Dependent on opportunity
4. Looking for the right position with a company outside police work
5. Possibly, depending on opportunities when I finish college
6. Work for self

Burnout/Frustration with the Job

1. Tired of no help
2. Burnout
3. Burnout
4. Frustration with court system

Miscellaneous Reasons

1. Wife wants to move to Florida
2. To spend more time with my children
3. Just tired of the politics involved

APPENDIX G

ACTUAL RESPONSES FROM SURVEY RESPONDENTS ON “INTENTION TO LEAVE THE FIELD OF LAW ENFORCEMENT” QUESTION

Reasons Given for “Intention to Leave the Field of Law Enforcement”

Listed below are comments from respondents who wrote in a reason for their intention to leave the field of law enforcement within the next five years. Comments have been grouped into five categories: money needs, administration dissatisfaction, other opportunities, burnout/frustration with job, and miscellaneous reasons.

Money Needs

1. Only if I could find rewarding work that paid good
2. More money in Corporate Security.
3. Left April 1998 (Reason) Did not return to this field. Went into industrial security making 3 times the pay that I did after 14 years of law enforcement.
4. Pay

Administration Dissatisfaction

1. Admin. problems

Other Opportunities

1. My BS is in business management, would like to explore options of private sector employment.
2. Pursue other interests. Start own business.
3. If job offer that meets criteria becomes available.
4. Possibly, depending on opportunities when I finish college
5. Self-employment
6. New career
7. Work for self

Burnout/Frustration with Job

1. Burnout

Miscellaneous Reasons

1. To spend more time with my children.
2. Injured on duty - planned on staying forever
3. Undecided

APPENDIX H

**COMMENTS WRITTEN IN BY RESPONDENTS ON BACK OF
QUESTIONNAIRE**

Comments

Names of all agencies and places have been changed to “XYZ” and names of persons have been changed to “X” to ensure confidentiality. When a word or phrase is underlined or bolded, that indicates that the respondent wrote it that way on the survey. Each number is a comment from a different person. Comments have been put into one of seven categories: politics in police work, administration issues, pay or benefits, the job itself, position or rank, comments about the survey, and miscellaneous comments.

Politics in Police Work

1. Have been working in homicide 14 years. Solving homicides is personally satisfying. Promotions are political – and must be “politically correct.” Salary and benefits suck. Retirement package lacking. Command level incompetent. Department is archaic and concerned only about liability not their employees. Been a great 29 years. Can’t wait to retire in 2003. Get the hell out with 30 years. Find a real job. Not a disgruntled employee - just time to go. **Change is good.**
2. Politics prevail many times over fairness and too much emphasis is placed on generating money thru citations and not enough on crime prevention.
3. There is too much senseless training, and so called retreats, conventions, etc which only seems to make the higher echelon feel better. No one else is ever invited including media, and most of them are held in private.
4. Under X’s leadership the promotion system is based only on patronage. Many supervisors are incompetent and regularly ask senior patrol officers for advice when making difficult decisions. Solving a problem isn’t as important as the public perception that no problem exists.
5. The present chief has done well in keeping up with changes and doing better in getting politics out of promotions. But the final solution for promotions is political. At the time I was there if your in the military forget promotion.
6. 1. Although a fully trained and certified officer (detective), I am currently assigned to a “punishment detail” for non-work related (read as personal/political) reasons. 2. Happy to help – use the buck for a soda! UT Class of ‘93

7. Some of the answers that I have given are influenced by this agency's practice of inconsistent treatment or consideration of personnel due to social, racial, or political affiliations (sound familiar?).
8. In a large department – there are too many rules and regulations. As the department has grown – communication between top and bottom has decreased, affecting moral, promotions, transfers, etc. We have a group of senior officers with an “Ivory Tower Syndrome.” They are never seen – only know what they read in data sheets.
9. Once you learn to get past the B.S. and learn to play the game (be a company man), you can enjoy helping people and doing good deeds. When the boss is looking, do it his way. When he's not, do it the way you think is best. You have to live with yourself, not the boss.
10. Police department should pay working and retired police a liveable wage, especially the injured in line of duty. Stop all the red tape and political bullshit and let the men do their work.
11. The job is political in base. Those in power, do not want us to do police work anymore. They want us to (PR) (Bullshit) the citizens into thinking we are doing a good job for them when we aren't. Supervisors (mine) opinion.
12. Advancement most often depended on how well the “politics” were played. Personalities often got in the way of good supervision. Overall I enjoyed my job and felt good about being able to help someone in need.
13. Just remember, big police departments are run like big companies and sadly they don't put the best interest of the lower level employee in their grand scheme of things. “ENRON” is a perfect example of this.
14. As long as you have elected supervisor, politics will interfere all the way down the line. Such a waste. Thanx!
15. My heart hurts for law enforcement. Ref. Corruption at top of XYZ: X I.N.S. All Chiefs and Sheriff's should be replaced every 4 years.

Administration Issues

1. XYZ, like many other departments has promoted incompetent people into management positions. Once in the position, civil service protects the individual, making it really impossible to remove the person.
2. The most trouble officers have are with supervisors.

3. Incompetence in the direct chain of command is biggest reason for job dissatisfaction.
4. Being retired with 35 years service, it is difficult to single out one supervisor or one assignment. Some have been very good and some have been very bad. There have been minor changes over the year.
5. I am a shift supervisor who enjoys my job and responsibilities. I feel that the administration does not recognize my contributions or reward them.
6. I would leave the job if I could. My organization is the worst I have ever been involved with.
7. Men and women at the department and most likely in your job, do not like being treated as a child, this practice has and will always destroy morale after all we are sworn to do the right thing everyday and treat all people with dignity.
8. I think it is very possible to like someone on a personal level and still not respect how they do their job.
9. When I am able to retire, I fully intend to continue working somewhere. It **will not** be in any way associated with law enforcement – too many frustrations including supervision, politics, changes in laws, etc.
10. Although I am held most accountable for my actions and adherence to department policy and procedures, I am not treated as though I am adult enough to make critical decisions. Unequal treatment of officers is #1 cause of low morale. Thanks for the dollar!
11. Mid-level management needs to have a bigger voice in decisions being made by higher command. Street level personnel have good insight on daily problems.
12. Morale at our department is extremely low and there is nothing being done to remedy the problem therefore we are losing some good officers to other departments or fields.
13. Most decisions are made by those in the ivory tower. Most of which never “got their hands dirty” to begin with.
14. Too much micro management. Not any praise for a job well done.

15. Administrative problems seem to get worse with time and I feel it puts that undo stress on the officers – there is no support for the front line officer anymore. Upper level break their own rules!
16. XYZ department lacks cohesion. Have turned into a bunch of Prima Donna's who know little about true police work, how to solve crime and how to treat the public in general. I used to be proud of them, now I am not.
17. Our promotion system is based on test scores. Time on and job performance should be as important. Our supervisors are good test takers with little experience in law enforcement. This must change in the near future.
18. With the XYZ department, if supervisors treated officers as if they were a valuable resource rather than, "They can be replaced with the other 100... wanting your job" it would be a huge difference in how officer's feel and respond to department needs and wants.
19. I realize there are persons that think others are plain stupid. But we actually have persons in authority that don't know the facts or go on their own which creates problems. A few cause most of the problems but the person in charge doesn't seem to be aware because they are not the best person for the job.
20. In 20 years, my main problems have been with 2 supervisors.
21. The term supervisor has a number of tiers. In the survey responses relate to field supervisor or immediate at first level. Other supervisors up chain of command would have different responses. Some better, some I wouldn't trust as far as I could throw 'em.

Pay or Benefits

1. As complicated as the law and law enforcement is, we are all underpaid.
2. Law enforcement requires increasing levels of education and training. Salary and benefits are not commensurate with these elevated levels of expertise.
3. One big problem I have is that we work an afternoon shift. But we don't receive additional pay like many other departments. We have a civil service rule saying if you only have one shift and the majority works it they don't have to pay a shift premium. But the additional pay would offset the hardship placed on the family by my absence.
4. Regarding salary – XYZ received a nice pay raise last year. XYZ has allowed me to work in the field I've chosen.

5. I left police work in 1989, not because I didn't enjoy it, because I couldn't afford to do it any longer. I love police work. I just wanted more for my family.
6. I enjoy the job I'm doing however feel that pay and benefits could be better. But who don't?
7. We should have a 30 years and out pension. 30 years is long enough to be in law enforcement.

The Job Itself

1. Being a police officers is a way of life not just a job. Being a police officer affects my whole family. I take a great deal of pride in being a police officer and I feel its one of the most important jobs!
2. Be an officer and begin to hate or love the human race.
3. When I worked for XYZ, all I ever wanted was for someone to say Thank You. I loved working for the police department at XYZ but had not one person say Thank you.
4. Great job, very satisfying when you make a difference in, or improve the quality of life issues of a person in need.
5. I am very blessed to be in the Special Services Division for the XYZ. It is rewarding to know that you are appreciated by the citizens of XYZ County.
6. Ms. Hill, I hope this information helps. Though, since 9-11 I have a new zeal for the job and find more citizens appreciative of our work and sacrifices. Thanks!
7. I like my job. I find it very challenging.
8. My job/unit is very understaffed and that causes very little time spent on cases of high profile. Results in poor investigations and not properly prepared for court. Incomplete cases.
9. A person with my experience in law enforcement, if age 21, would never go into law enforcement.
10. Most officers use little initiative in taking opportunities probably less than 15% ever go to a jury trial in Criminal Court during an entire career. An overlooked stat is Criminal Court jury trial convictions.

11. I enjoy my job despite outside forces, i.e.: courts, lawyers and liberals. I feel they overall the community is behind our efforts even though it's not publicized.
12. Believe the Supreme Court makes being a policeman's job very hard. Loopholes and technicalities in laws make it hard to enjoy the job. Criminals continue to make law enforcement a dead end.
13. Not a bad profession to be in, however I feel like the general public does not give a damn about me or my profession. It's just a JOB.
14. I love police work and have done it for almost 30 years, however, dealing with the court system is so frustrating I would not choose this career again.

Position or Rank

1. Repeated assignments in Internal Affairs which may add to the validation of the answers in the Job Diagnostic Survey portion.
2. I am a K-9 trainer and handler, and have been for the past twenty years. We are a two officer team that takes care of each other. We work alone in many felony situations.
3. The work that I did was as the training officer/director. I had the privilege to exercise creativity and innovation in developing training programs.
4. My answers to the Job Diagnostic will be high due to I am in a proactive part of law enforcement narcotics investigations which gives you a lot of freedom in the way you conduct investigations.
5. I am a school resource officer so I have two sets of rules, coworkers, and job descriptions. Juggling the two is difficult trying to please both sides and still maintain working relationships.
6. Rank: Lieutenant
7. I am a sergeant in patrol – have been since 1993.
8. I work in the DUI section. I thought that might help.
9. Keep in mind I am a supervisor over 10 sergeants and 60 officers – not a patrol officer
10. I am a school resource officer, so my duties are very different than those of patrol and investigations. (On a post-it on the dollar) – Thanks, but I'm

happy to do this voluntarily. Buy yourself something nice. ☺

11. I will be completely retired July 2003. My answers reflect my status now. In years past my answers would have been to the negative extreme. Ones perspective and how he is treated changes at the end of the tunnel.
12. My current position is in “narcotics.” I am not involved in any type of duties.
13. My answers may be slightly different from a regular street officer. I am a Lieutenant and work in a Community Policing position. Good luck!
14. In law enforcement, as a sergeant, my immediate supervisor is my lieutenant. All references to “my supervisor” I referred to my lieutenant any superiors above my lieutenant would have brought drastically different responses. (With a few exceptions.)
15. I am a patrol-based investigator assigned to burglary and theft. I will retire in less than two years with 32 years in service.
16. I retired from the XYZ in December 2001 and answered the questions based on my feeling prior to my retirement.
17. Retired from XYZ now working 5 years at XYZ – AKA Security – X
18. C.I.D. Homicide
19. Current assignment is crime scene investigation.
20. I work as a supervisor in homicide. Working in homicide presents problems not encountered anywhere else in the police department.

Comments About the Survey

1. The questions involving supervisors should differentiate between first line and command staff, not just supervisors as a whole.
2. Might want to know if lawsuit were awarded against and if Internal Affairs complaints were founded
3. Rank of person filling out might be pertinent.
4. The questions on this survey are much more meaningful than what we have been receiving on employee surveys.

5. On the complaint question – not sure on your angle, but I have never been complained on at the IA level. However, I have received several complaints at the stations I worked. My immediate supervisor would investigate and send the results up the chain of command to IA. IA did not investigate. Officer's receive a lot of complaints by citizens. Citizens will call the station to speak to the immediate supervisor. He/she then determines if any policy was violated, etc and clears it with unfounded/sustained etc. IA does not enter unless it is very serious or requested. Supervisors investigate minor complaints all the time. Just because you see a zero there does not mean one wasn't complained on.
6. Thank you for the opportunity to be a part of the survey and the dollar, I'll take a friend out for a cup of coffee.
7. I assumed you meant my immediate supervisors – Lt. And Capt. Not Deputy Chiefs and the Chief. Take the dollar and either give it to your favorite charity or go get a soda.
8. The questions regarding old style v/s modern policing should be in this survey. Older officers would know what I'm talking about. No respect or fear for Police by the criminal.
9. I think your survey would produce more accurate results if you also included information about the individual's rank/ I love my job!
10. This survey was a very good idea. Businesses in the non-governmental fields should do the same. It will help them to better appreciate and assist their work force. Also close the gap between administration and rank and file workers.
11. There may seem to be a discrepancy between question number on the next to last page and some answers on the last page. My job involves doing a whole piece of work from start to finish, but too rarely gives me the chance to due to work load and ambivalence of management (not supervision).

Miscellaneous Comments

1. From a character and integrity standpoint how do we measure up? By the way here is your dollar back.
2. Don't take bribes. (Respondent filled out survey and returned dollar)
3. Keep the dollar or donate to a good cause.

4. The problem with law enforcement today is lack of cooperation between local, state, and federal agencies.
5. My one year old son said "Thanks for the dollar!"
6. I apologize for the lateness of the survey.
7. Sorry; this is late. But I hope it will be helpful.
8. I do not take money to do this. Thank you.
9. Give the dollar to FOP Youth camps. Thanks.
10. Thank you for asking me to help you. I was happy to do it. Good luck!
11. Sorry this took so long to get back to you (this is the second one I completed.) Thanks for taking this on and good luck!
12. Sorry for delay.

VITA

Angela Marie Hill, wife of Thomas Wade Hill, Jr., and daughter of Larry Raymond Garner and Rebecca Colleen Garner, was born in Dayton, Ohio, on August 20, 1975. She graduated with honors from Cleveland High School in Cleveland, Tennessee in May 1993. Following high school, she began working on a Bachelor of Science degree with a major in Mathematics and a minor in Philosophy at East Tennessee State University in Johnson City, Tennessee and graduated in May 1997. She began working towards her Master of Science degree at The University of Tennessee in Human Resource Development in January 2000. Angela is a member of the Phi Kappa Phi Honor Society.

Her career began in 1998 as a Training Specialist for the Knoxville Police Department in Knoxville, Tennessee. In that position, stationed in the Domestic Violence Unit at the police department, she trained over 2,000 law enforcement officers and over 8,000 community members across Tennessee on the issue of domestic violence. In 2001, she was promoted to Program Manager overseeing the Domestic Violence Unit, and she currently holds that position.

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