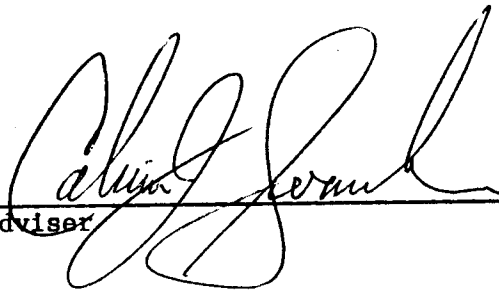


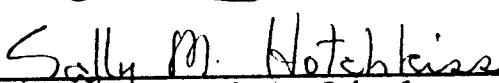
APPLICATION OF HERZBERG'S THEORY OF  
MOTIVATION APPLIED TO POLICE OFFICERS

by

Jeanette A. McElhanev

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements  
for the Degree of  
Master of Science  
in the  
Criminal Justice  
Program

  
Adviser August 15, 1987 Date

  
Dean of the Graduate School August 20, 1987 Date

YOUNGSTOWN STATE UNIVERSITY

August 1987

## ABSTRACT

AN APPLICATION OF HERZBERG'S THEORY OF  
MOTIVATION APPLIED TO POLICE OFFICERS

Jeannette A. McElhaney

Master of Science

Youngstown State University, 1987

This study reviewed literature relating to work motivation and productivity. The vast majority of this literature deals with employee attitudes and job satisfaction, as well as motivational factors of various occupational groups.

The purpose of this study was to test the validity of Herzberg's Theory of Motivation as applied to police officers. Basically, Herzberg developed a Dual Factor Theory of Motivation which viewed man as having two sets of needs: intrinsic or job factors (motivators) and extrinsic (hygiene factors). The motivators provide a level of job satisfaction, while the hygiene factors prevent dissatisfaction, but do not motivate. The hygiene factors are: salary, work conditions, job security, fringe benefits, status, and company policies. The motivators include achievement, recognition, responsibility, work itself and advancement.

A questionnaire was devised and administered to 200 police officers in the Ohio Trumbull County area. The return rate was 42.5%, or 102. The questionnaire was developed by taking each one of Herzberg's factors and putting it into two different questions. One of the questions used it as a motivator, and the other as a hygiene

factor. To analyze the questionnaire, a Likert scale was used and a point value given to each response. The point value for each question on the total survey was summarized and analyzed.

Basically, data gathered for the total sample does support Herzberg's Theory. The hygiene factors of "pay," "work conditions," "job security," "fringe benefits," "status" and "company policies" were all shown to be supported. Likewise, the motivators that Herzberg identified were also supported by the sample population. They were namely "achievement," "recognition," "responsibility," "work itself" and "advancement."

The research explained nine subsets with the population to determine if any significant variance from the total population occurred. In the under 40-Year-Old subset, all of the hygiene factors and motivators were supported. The over 40-Year-Old subset also supported the tested theory on all the hygiene factors and motivators. The Under-20,000-Income group was the least supportive of the theory. They showed for the hygiene factors of "salary," "work areas" and "job security" only. This group, however, did support the theory on all of the motivators identified by Herzberg. The Over-30,000-Income group strongly supported the theory showing all the motivators and hygiene factors supported. Likewise the subset of second or part time job showed support for Herzberg's theory on all of the motivators and hygiene factor. For the subpopulation of Associate-Degree-and Under benefits were not supported as a hygiene factor while the subpopulation of Baccalaureate-Degree-and-Over supported all of the motivators and hygiene factors.

This study provides recommendations for further testing of the validity of Herzberg's Theory by sensitivity analysis and cross tabulation of the subgroups.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my sincere thanks to Dr. Calvin Swank, Thesis Committee Chairman, for his guidance, suggestions, and support during the writing of this thesis.

I also thank Dr. James Conser and Dr. C. Allen Pierce for their advice and comments in preparation of this research project.

Deep appreciation to my parents, Harvey L. McElhaney and Rose A. McElhaney for their support, encouragement, and assistance.

Special thanks to Patrick G. McElhaney for his encouragement and knowledgeable insight into this project.

Finally, I wish to acknowledge Elaine Rafferty for her expert typing skills.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
ABSTRACT.....	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	vi
LIST OF TABLES.....	viii
CHAPTER	
I. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM.....	1
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.....	7
Major Theories on Motivation.....	7
Content or Need Theory.....	7
Process of Instrumentality Theory.....	8
Equity Theory.....	11
Motivational Studies in General.....	11
Motivational Studies of Police Officers.....	26
Summary.....	36
III. METHODOLOGY.....	38
Methods.....	38
Research Design.....	38
Sample.....	40
Instrumentation.....	41
Summary.....	42
IV. ANALYSIS OF THE DATA.....	44
Total Population.....	44
Subsets.....	45
V. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION.....	51
Implications For Future Research.....	52

	PAGE
APPENDIX A. Motivators and Hygiene Factors in Herzberg's Theory of Motivation.....	54
APPENDIX B. Questionnaire.....	56
APPENDIX C. Police Departments That Participated in the Study..	61
APPENDIX D. Demographics of Population.....	63
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	65

## LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
1. Comparison Of Herzberg's Rankings With Fitz-Enz Subjects.....	25
2. Questions Paired for Analysis Using Either A Motivator Or A Hygiene Factor.....	39
3. Results Of Study.....	46
4. Average Response For Each Question For The Total Population And Subjects.....	48



## CHAPTER I

## THE PROBLEM

At some time during their lives, virtually every man and an increasing number of women enter the work force. Working for both men and women has become so commonplace that the question why people work is seldom asked. If asked directly why they work, most individuals would probably give a simple answer. They work because there is work to be done, because they like to work, or because they need to earn a living.<sup>1</sup> Although these answers contain a grain of truth, their apparent simplicity obscures what is, on close examination, an extremely complex and basic problem.<sup>2</sup>

There are few problems of more importance to our culture than an understanding of the motivation to work.<sup>3</sup> Work is one of the most absorbing things men and women can think and talk about.<sup>4</sup> It fills the greater part of the day for most of us. For the fortunate, it is a source of great satisfaction; for many others, it is a cause of grief.<sup>5</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Victor Vroom, Work and Motivation (John Wiley and Sons, New York, 1964), p. 29.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Frederick Herzberg, The Motivation to Work (John Wiley and Sons, New York, 1959), p. VIII.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 3.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., p. ix.

For the organization, the community, and the individual, it is necessary to examine the basis of the motivation to work. To the organization, the payoff from a study of motivation would be increased productivity, decreased turnover, decreased absenteeism, and smoother working relations.<sup>6</sup> To the community, it might mean a decreased bill for psychological casualties and an increase in the overall productive capacity of our organizations and in the proper utilization of human resources.<sup>7</sup> To the individual, an understanding of the forces that lead to improved morale would bring greater happiness and greater self-realization.<sup>8</sup>

Frederick Herzberg conducted a motivational research project which led to his popular two-factor theory of work motivation. Herzberg's study was concerned with one of the most frequently investigated areas of job attitudes. The central question was, "What do people want from their jobs?" It must be concluded that the answer to this question is conceived as the crucial source to the successful motivation of the worker.<sup>9</sup>

Herzberg developed his theory based on a series of interviews with 200 accountants and engineers.<sup>10</sup>

The Dual Factor Theory of Motivation he proposed, views man as having two sets of needs, intrinsic or job-content factors (motivators)

---

<sup>6</sup>Ibid.

<sup>7</sup>Ibid.

<sup>8</sup>Ibid.

<sup>9</sup>Ibid., p. 107.

<sup>10</sup>Ibid.

and extrinsic (hygiene factors) which relate to job content. Motivators function within an individual's work environment in order to provide a level of job satisfaction while hygiene factors are needed to reduce or alleviate dissatisfaction. The hygiene factors are:

1. Salary
2. Work conditions
3. Job security
4. Fringe benefits
5. Status
6. Company policies

Motivators include:

1. Achievement
2. Recognition
3. Responsibility
4. Work itself
5. Advancement

It should be understood that both meet the needs of the employer; but it is primarily the "motivators" that serve to bring about the kind of job satisfaction and the kind of performance and productivity that organizations are seeking from its work force.<sup>11</sup>

It has been stated that the conceptualization of Herzberg's Theory provides perhaps the best effort of current theory and research formulated on the idea that satisfaction leads to performance.

---

<sup>11</sup>Ibid.

Motivational factors presumably lead to work satisfaction and are associated with performance.<sup>12</sup>

It is necessary to define exactly what is considered motivated behavior. Motivated behavior in Herzberg's conception is voluntary behavior. While some behaviors--specifically, those which are not under voluntary control--are assumed to be unmotivated. These probably constitute a rather small proportion of the total behavior in adults.<sup>13</sup> It is reasonable to assume that most behaviors which people display on their jobs and which lead them in and out of jobs is voluntary and, consequently, motivated.<sup>14</sup>

This study will concentrate on whether hygiene factors and motivators as defined by Herzberg exist for police officers; thus, either supporting or not supporting Herzberg's Theory. Such knowledge, hopefully, will offer the field of criminal justice a basic understanding of the motivational needs of police officers in the work environment. This is imperative when one considers that a poorly motivated police department will be more costly to the government it exists in, in terms of unsatisfactory performance, excessive turnover, and poor morale among employees. On the other hand, an effectively motivated police department will be more efficient, effective, and may be able to satisfy individual personal needs of self-realization.

---

<sup>12</sup>Schwab and Cummings, "Theories of Performance and Satisfaction: A Review," Industrial Relations, 1970, p. 407.

<sup>13</sup>Vroom, Motivation in Management, American Foundation for Management Research, 1965, p. 8.

<sup>14</sup>Ibid.

The study was conducted by administering a questionnaire to 200 police officers. The following Ohio departments were chosen for participation in this study: Warren City Police, Liberty Township Police, Howland Township Police, Niles City Police, Cortland Police, Trumbull County Sheriff's Department, and the Warren Post of the State Highway Patrol. The questionnaires were distributed by the sergeant during roll call to available officers.

The application questionnaire was developed by taking each one of Herzberg's factors (i.e., pay) and putting it into two different questions. One of the questions uses it as a motivator, and the other question as a hygiene factor. For example, Herzberg's Theory states that pay is a hygiene factor and is not a motivator. In the questionnaire, Question 12 uses the question as a motivator, and Question 6 uses it as a hygiene factor. Question 12 states that, "I don't really believe that if a police officer is paid more, he is going to work harder on a daily basis," clearly is a motivator question; while Question 6 states, "If I don't feel I'm being paid a fair wage, I could never be happy with my job." This clearly uses the factor pay as a hygiene question. If Herzberg's theory is valid, the question should receive a total point average of 3.1 or higher when asked in a hygiene or motivator question depending on the factor being tested.

The analysis will also be cross-tabulated by age, sex, education, income, and second or part-time job. By doing this, it may be found that Herzberg's theory is true for high income, but not low income; for older instead of younger officers; or men and not women or visa versa.

### Operational Definitions

Herzberg's Motivation Theory identifies two sets of needs within the individual: motivators and hygiene factors. The function of the motivators and hygiene factors can be defined as follows:

Motivators are those factors related to the job itself which provide a level of job satisfaction.

Hygiene factors are those things which prevent dissatisfaction but do not motivate the employee or provide job satisfaction.

### Overview of the Thesis

The thesis is divided into five chapters. Chapter one, the statement of the problem, shows the need and the purpose of the study.

Chapter two is a review of literature covering the major theories of motivation, motivational studies in general and motivational studies of police officers.

Chapter three, the methodology chapter, contains the research design, the sample, and the instrumentation.

Chapter four will be an analysis of the data and findings while Chapter five will be a summary and conclusion with recommendations for further research.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

#### Major Theories of Motivation

##### Content or Need Theory

There exist many categories of the basic and well known motivational theories. One such category is the Content or Need Theory. The most popular of these theories being Maslow's Need Hierarchy. Maslow contends that a person's personality develops through various states that focus on needs. The needs in his theory are physiological, safety and security, belongingness, self-esteem, and self-actualization. When one need is filled or satisfied, then another need appears until it is satisfied.<sup>15</sup>

There are three assumptions to Maslow's Theory:

1. People are wanting beings whose needs can influence their behavior. Only unsatisfied needs can influence behavior; satisfied needs do not act as motivators.
2. People's needs are arranged in an order of importance from the basic to the complex.
3. People advance to the next level of the hierarchy only when the lower needs are at least minimally satisfied.

---

<sup>15</sup>Abraham H. Maslow, Toward a Psychology of Being, (New York, Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1962).

Herzberg's Motivation Theory is also a content or need theory. Herzberg views man having basically two types of needs, intrinsic or job factors (motivators) and extrinsic (hygiene factors). The motivators provide job satisfaction while the hygiene factors prevent dissatisfaction, but do not motivate. Basically the hygiene factors are salary, work conditions, job security, benefits, status and company policies while the motivators include achievement, recognition, responsibility, work itself and advancement. For a more indepth discussion of Herzberg's theory, refer to page 2.

Another popular Content or Need Theory is McClelland's Achievement Motive. In this theory, a Thematic Apperception Test was used to analyze the motive to achieve. The test involves asking the participants to respond to a picture or series of pictures. From the stories that the participant recites, the levels of the need to achieve are determined (n Arch).<sup>16</sup>

A person with a high n Arch has certain characteristics that include being task oriented, a moderate risk taker, setting goals that one can realistically obtain, the ability to reevaluate goals, being organized, confident, and the desire for immediate feedback.<sup>17</sup>

#### Process of Instrumentality Theory

Another set of motivational theories is the Process of Instrumentality Theory. The most popular of these theories is Victor

---

<sup>16</sup>Saul W. Gellerman, Motivation and Productivity, 1963, p. 123.

<sup>17</sup>Conser, "Motivational Theory Applied to Law Enforcement Agencies," Journal of Police Science and Administration, Vol. 7, No. 3, 1979, p. 286.



Vroom's Expectancy Theory.<sup>18</sup> The theory is based on a person's evaluation of various strategies of behavior. The person then chooses the strategy that he believes to be work-related rewards. The key variables in the theory are expectancies, valencies, outcomes, instrumentalities, and choice. The expectancy is the belief of the likelihood that an act will be followed by a particular outcome. The valence is the strength of a person's preference for a particular outcome. The outcome is the end product of the behavior. First level outcomes are some part of performance and are a result of an individual's effort. Second level outcomes are consequences of first level outcomes. Instrumentality is the relationship between first and second level outcomes and choice is the particular behavior pattern decided on. Vroom's Theory explains that the motivational force that one exerts on the job is a function of: (1) The perceived expectancy that certain outcomes will result in particular behaviors, and, (2) the valence for these outcomes. Thus, expectancy and valence determine the level of motivation.

Another popular motivational theory is McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y.<sup>19</sup> These two theories represent different approaches to management and are used as basic assumptions about human behavior.

Theory X states:

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if possible.

---

<sup>18</sup>Vroom, Work and Motivation, p. 29.

<sup>19</sup>Douglas, McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1960.)

2. Because of this human characteristic, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.

3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all.

Theory Y states:

1. The expenditure of physical and mental effort is as natural as play or rest.

2. External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort toward organizational objectives. People will exercise self-direction and self-control in the services of objectives to which they are committed.

3. Commitment to objectives is a function of rewards that are associated with their achievement.

4. The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility.

5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.

6. Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized.

It is obvious to see that each theory has its limitations, but McGregor's Theory contributed greatly to the field of motivation.

## Equity Theory

The Equity Theory of Motivation was developed by Adams.<sup>20</sup> Simply put, the theory states that if there exists a discrepancy between the amount of a reward received and a person's efforts, one is motivated to reduce it. Also, the greater the discrepancy, the more motivation there is to reduce that discrepancy. The employee will compare their input and outcomes with those of other employees of equal status. If there is inequality in the two, the person is motivated to reduce the inequality.

### Motivational Studies In General

Besides the most famous motivational theories, there also exists an overwhelming number of other motivational studies. A sample of such research follows.

A study of almost 11,000 hourly employees in 37 firms was conducted by Rabenowitz and Falkenback. Data was collected on the attitudes of a large sample of American workers which throws light on some general issues of motivation and morale. Data was collected between 1978 and 1981. A wide variety of industries are represented, including manufacturing, agriculture, service, retail trade, and transportation. Companies also varied greatly in size and were geographically dispersed throughout the United States.

The findings, which describe workers' perceptions and attitudes regarding 18 separate characteristics of their jobs or companies, were

---

<sup>20</sup>J. S. Adams, "Toward An Understanding of Inequity," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, Vol. 31, November, 1963, p. 422.

grouped under six headings: Tangible Rewards, Job Experience, Supervision, Management, Communication, Participation, Corporate Philosophy, Policy, and Personal and Social Worth.<sup>21</sup> Responses were summarized in a series of tables contrasting the percentages of workers who expressed favorable and unfavorable attitudes toward each job or company characteristic across all four relevant items. Favorable attitudes (marked "F" in the tables) reflected agreement or strong agreement with positive statements about the job or company, and strong disagreement or disagreement with negative statements; unfavorable (marked "U") attitudes reflect the reverse.<sup>22</sup>

The data gathered from Rabenowitz and Falkenback's study suggests that workers do care about their jobs, their companies, about quality, and productivity.<sup>23</sup> If workers do not seem to care, management should ask whether its policies encourage the expression of concern on the part of the hourly employee.<sup>24</sup>

In 1982, Forgionne and Peeters conducted a study to determine how sex influences job satisfaction and motivation. The data for the study were obtained by mailing a questionnaire to a statistically representative random sample of 420 managers drawn from a variety of service sector organizations in the United States, Canada, and Western Europe. Findings of the study can be summarized as follows:

---

<sup>21</sup>Rabenowitz and Falkenback, "Worker Motivation: Unsolved Problems or Untapped Resources?", California Management Review, Vol. XXV, No. 2, January, 1983, p. 46.

<sup>22</sup>Ibid., p. 47.

<sup>23</sup>Ibid., p. 54.

<sup>24</sup>Ibid., p. 47.

Motivation: Sex was unrelated to motivation except for managers with less than six months training. Among these people, more female than male managers expressed overall job motivation. The difference disappeared at higher levels of training.

Recognition: More males than females are motivated by recognition if they have ten years or more of experience.<sup>25</sup>

Advancement: More females than males are motivated by advancement if:

1. They have five to ten years of experience.
2. They are in middle-management positions.
3. They are college graduates.
4. They have less than six months on-the-job training.
5. They have three or more dependents.

Work: More than half of the highly satisfied women reported an intrinsic reward—particularly, the work itself, as the aspect of their jobs that they liked the best. This does not hold true among managers with a postgraduate college education. There it was found that more males than females were motivated by the work itself.

This study indicated that there is a relative increase in female motivation by recognition and advancement with increased family size. Female managers with less than six months training expressed greater overall motivation than their male counterparts. Since this difference did not exist among managers with more training, there appears to be a relative decrease in overall female motivation as women

---

<sup>25</sup>Forgionne and Peeters, "The Influence of Sex on Managers in the Service Sector," California Management Review, Vol. 25, No. 1, Fall, 1982, p. 79.

acquire additional training. There is a similar relative decline in motivation by recognition and advancement as female managers acquire additional training.<sup>26</sup>

In a study reported in the Journal of Management Studies, the factors perceived by employees to cause high and low productivity was examined. One hundred fifty-two employees from one firm, working in managerial, clerical, and professional jobs were interviewed. The interview responses were grouped into factors within each of three broad categories: External events, agents, and personal traits. Findings indicate that goals, deadlines or schedules, workload, and task interest were the most frequently mentioned events. The self, the organization, and the immediate supervisor were most often cited as agents. The most frequently mentioned personal traits were satisfaction, pride, frustration, and the desire of recognition. Results of this study support the efficacy of such techniques as scientific management, as well as management by objectives, job enrichment, and even proper placement.<sup>27</sup>

Lampe and Earnest (1984) studied how motivation affects accountants' productivity and turnover. To discover the correlation between motivational factors and employee turnover, they collected data from almost 1,000 accountants. In the study, ten job attributes were identified and isolated to show their effect on motivation. In addition, these factors were measured to show the differing effects on entry level and experienced accountants.

---

<sup>26</sup>Ibid., p. 80

<sup>27</sup>White and Locke, "Perceived Determinates of High and Low Productivity in Three Occupational Groups: A Critical Incident Study," Journal of Management Studies, Vol. 18, No. 4, 1981, p. 387.

A total of 23 midwestern offices representing seven large accounting firms participated in the study. In each office, attitude questionnaires were distributed to all staff accountants.

Participating accountants placed themselves in one of four levels according to job descriptions which avoided conflicting job titles:

1. Entry level (one to two year's duration),
2. Intermediate level (one to three years' duration),
3. Experienced line (two to four years' duration), and
4. Management level.<sup>28</sup>

The results of the study showed that turnover has a strong correlation with levels of work motivation. Because of this relationship, expectancy theory measures of work motivation provide a meaningful tool to help improve retention.<sup>29</sup> By isolating and quantifying the work-related attitudes that affect motivation, one can effectively concentrate on improving positive and correcting negative attitude differentials.<sup>30</sup> For example, more emphasis could be placed on bonuses at Level 3, and, at the same time, reorganization of job tasks would be more effective at the lower level.<sup>31</sup> A beneficial by-product is that the accountants who stay with the organization longer also would be more highly motivated to perform their job tasks well.<sup>32</sup>

---

<sup>28</sup>Lampe and Earnest, "How Motivation Affects Accountants' Productivity and Turnover," Management Accounting, February, 1984, p. 50.

<sup>29</sup>Ibid., p. 55.

<sup>30</sup>Ibid.

<sup>31</sup>Ibid.

<sup>32</sup>Ibid.

Motivation and the sales force was researched by Ingram and Bellenger (1982). The authors feel that rather than having an academic research base, sales managers are left to devise motivational programs based on industry guidelines, organizational and industry precedents, expectations of supervisors, and personnel assumptions of what motivates salespeople.<sup>33</sup> The respondents in this study were employees of 17 selected industrial firms with sales offices in the Atlantic area. A total of 241 usable questionnaires were returned from the 428 that were mailed out, for a response rate of 56%. By examining these significant variables, three basic profiles of salespeople can be described in terms of personal and organization characteristics as related to reward preference. The first group can be described as an older, less educated group, with high incomes earned from commission-based compensation plans. Members of this group work for companies where the recognition opportunity rate is fairly high and the promotion rate is very low.<sup>34</sup> In terms of reward preferences, this group does not want a promotion, nor pay increase. Recognition, or personal growth opportunities, are rewards.

The second group is also an older group. This group earns lower incomes, primarily from salary sources. These salespeople work for companies with fairly high promotion opportunity rates, but very

---

<sup>33</sup>Ingram and Bellenger, "Motivational Segments in the Sales Force," California Management Review, Vol. XXIV, No. 3, Spring, 1982, p. 81.

<sup>34</sup>Ibid., p. 86.



low recognition opportunity rates.<sup>35</sup> Job security and worthwhile accomplishments are desirable rewards.

The third group is highly educated, younger, and high in vocational maturity. They earn fairly good incomes from commission sales. This group does not want to be promoted, does not value liking and respect, job security, sense of accomplishment, or pay as rewards.<sup>36</sup> The opportunity for personal growth has a disproportionately high reward preference.

The implication of this study, ideally, is that a sales manager would design a distinct motivation program for each individual.<sup>37</sup> Realistically, this is not feasible for many sales managers. However, if groups can be identified within which relatively homogeneous reward preferences exist, sales managers may be able to apply corresponding strategies for these segments.<sup>38</sup>

The motivational differences between managers and other members of the labor force has been studied by many. The results of a number of studies support the conclusion that managers tend to have stronger achievement motivation than members of other occupational groups. The most comprehensive study of the strength of need for achievement in different occupational groups was conducted by Veroff, Atkinson, Feld, and Gurin (1960).<sup>39</sup> Their probability sample was nationwide and

---

<sup>35</sup>Ibid.

<sup>36</sup>Ibid.

<sup>37</sup>Ibid.

<sup>38</sup>Ibid.

<sup>39</sup>Vroom, Motivation in Management, p. 15.

included 486 men employed on a full-time basis in various occupations. Need for achievement was measured by the thematic apperception method. The results show a progressive increase in achievement motivation scores with increase in occupational levels. People working in professions, and managers and proprietors, received the highest scores; clerical, sales, skilled, and semi-skilled workers received intermediate scores; and farmers and unskilled workers received the lowest scores.<sup>40</sup>

Meyer, Walker, and Litwin (1961) also used the thematic apperception method to measure the strength of need for achievement of a group of managers and a group of specialists employed by a large industrial organization.<sup>41</sup> These two groups were matched in age, education, and level in the organization. The results of the study showed that managers were found to have significantly stronger need for achievement than the specialists. It was also found that the managers were more likely to state a preference for intermediate degrees of risk over low or extreme risk than the specialists, when asked to choose among hypothetical pairs of betting alternatives with equal expected value.<sup>42</sup>

---

<sup>40</sup>Ibid., p. 16.

<sup>41</sup>Ibid.

<sup>42</sup>Ibid.

Barron H. Harvey, Assistant Professor at the School of Business Administration at Georgetown University, conducted a survey of middle managers in the federal government and found that one of their primary problems is motivating themselves and their subordinates. Harvey asked 256 federal middle managers who were attending management training sessions in Atlanta, Philadelphia, and Washington, D.C., to identify the problems they most frequently encountered on the job. Fifty-two of the respondents said that managing subordinates who have reached the top of their career ladder or who are approaching retirement age--a group known as "dead-enders"--was their biggest problem.<sup>43</sup>

Federal managers are clearly concerned with the problem of motivation, Harvey says, but their concern is not being adequately addressed by current government-sponsored training programs. Harvey believes that the current literature on organizational and industrial psychology and employee motivation can be tapped for motivational techniques that can be specifically geared to the needs of the federal government.<sup>44</sup> For example, the government can:

1. Make the employees' personal objectives more compatible with those of the particular government agency.
2. Create alternate career paths so that dead-enders can be shifted to other jobs where advancement is possible.
3. Enrich the job by redesigning it.

---

<sup>43</sup>Barron H. Harvey, "Motivating Federal Employees: A Concern for Middle Managers," Personnel, Vol. 59, No. 2, March/April, 1982, p. 62.

<sup>44</sup>Ibid., p. 63

4. Expand the job to encompass new or added responsibilities with new learning requirements.

5. Provide more cash and status awards for good performance.<sup>45</sup>

"While no single one of these approaches is a panacea," Harvey says, "one or more of them might be useful in various situations involving federal employees suffering from low motivation."<sup>46</sup>

Pearce (1983) did a study on the differences in motivation and job attitudes between volunteers and employees doing similar work. The sample consists of members of five organizations: Volunteer-staffed and employee-staffed newspapers, poverty relief agencies, family planning clinics, and fire departments.

The results of the study showed that there is no statistically significant difference in reported intrinsic motivation.<sup>47</sup> However, volunteers are more likely to report that they work for the reward of social interaction than are employees. Most interesting is the substantial difference between the service motivation reported by volunteers and employees. The significant service motivation interaction reflects relatively less service motivation among both newspaper volunteers and employees than among

---

<sup>45</sup>Ibid.

<sup>46</sup>Ibid.

<sup>47</sup>Pearce, "Job Attitude and Motivation Differences Between Volunteers and Employees From Comparable Organizations," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 68, No. 4, 1983, p. 650.

those performing the more purely service tasks of poverty relief, family planning, and fire fighting.<sup>48</sup>

In the findings of job attitude, volunteers reported greater job satisfaction, less intent to leave, and greater praiseworthiness of their work than did comparable employees.<sup>49</sup> The significant difference effect for job satisfaction is the result of lower job satisfaction among newspaper and poverty relief workers when compared to family planners and fire fighters.<sup>50</sup>

In summary, volunteers, doing the same work as employees, are more likely to report that they work for the rewards of social interaction and service to others, that their work is more praiseworthy, and that they are more satisfied and less likely to leave their organizations.<sup>51</sup>

In 1983, Kemp conducted a study of autonomous work groups. Investigated were the attitudinal and motivational effects of an autonomous group working in a greenfield site. This site was one of several purpose-built factories within which management structures and practices were designed to support a well-developed form of autonomous group working. After the first six months of production of the greenfield site, a questionnaire battery was administered to 333 employees (mean age 31.2 years) of the greenfield and an established site. Through the use of multiple comparison groups, it was

---

<sup>48</sup>Ibid.

<sup>49</sup>Ibid.

<sup>50</sup>Ibid.

<sup>51</sup>Ibid.

demonstrated that planned manipulation of work design was successful, leading to greater perceived work role complexity as well as to commensurate differences in perceived leadership style.<sup>52</sup> This manipulation of work design resulted in significantly higher levels of job satisfaction. However, no effect was found for employee motivation, organizational commitment, trust, or mental health.<sup>53</sup>

Long (1982) examined how worker ownership affects job attitudes. His research site was a company located in a medium-sized Canadian city and engaged in activities involving the application of highly advanced electronics technology to practical problems. At the time the study began, the company employed about 150 people. Prior to employee purchase, it had been a wholly-owned but independently operated subsidiary of a larger organization. The parent organization agreed to an employee ownership plan that had been developed by a task force composed of company workers and managers. The plan allowed employees to purchase up to one-third of the company's voting (common) stock, at a price considerably below its assessed book values.<sup>54</sup> One hundred twenty managers and workers purchased all available shares. Data was collected mainly by questionnaires, but other sources of information were also used--including interviews, personal

---

<sup>52</sup>Kemp, "Autonomous Work Groups in a Greenfield Site: A Comparative Study," Journal of Occupational Psychology, Vol. 56, No. 4, December, 1983, p. 271.

<sup>53</sup>Ibid.

<sup>54</sup>Long, "Worker Ownership and Job Attitudes: A Field Study," Industrial Relations, Vol. 21, No. 2, Spring, 1982, p. 197.

observations, and examinations of the minutes of meetings and company records.<sup>55</sup>

The results of the study pointed to little change in job attitudes. In interviews, neither managers nor nonmanagers were willing to state that employee ownership had caused major attitude change, although a considerable number perceived slight improvements in some attitudes and many believe that positive attitudes might have weakened without implementation of employee ownership.<sup>56</sup>

Katerburg and Blau (1983) examined the degree to which effort level and direction of effort were related to job performance. They contend that with a complete view of motivation, simple self-reports of how hard one worked cannot adequately represent motivation without dubious assumption of the appropriateness of the particular activities into which that effort is directed and maintained.<sup>57</sup>

Real estate representatives from two large firms in a large midwestern city were voluntary participants in the study. The author arranged data collection procedures with managers in each branch office who were selected for the study. A series of interviews were followed by a data collection session in which representatives completed questionnaires as part of their monthly sales meetings.

---

<sup>55</sup>Ibid., p. 198.

<sup>56</sup>Ibid., p. 200

<sup>57</sup>Katerberg, "An Examination of Level and Direction of Effort and Job Performance," Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 26, No. 2, June, 1983, p. 249.

Both direction and effort level were found to be significant predictors of individual performance, and direction of behavior contributed uniquely to the prediction of performance.

Many studies have been conducted that deal specifically with Herzberg's Motivation/Hygiene Theory.

A very interesting study on motivation of data processing professionals was conducted by Fitz-Enz. He contends many managers and researchers have formed the opinion that programmers, as an occupational group, are rather unusual individuals compared with people who select other careers.<sup>58</sup> Fitz-Enz conducted research in a dozen companies in the western United States during the latter part of 1977 to attempt to find something about the dp pro's motivation to work and his desire for communicating with the organization that employs him. Data was gathered using a survey questionnaire designed and protected for the specific project. Some 1,500 subjects in several industries, occupations, and job levels responded to the questionnaire.

In this study, the author compared his findings with Fred Herzberg's Theory of Motivation. Table 1 pg. 25 was a comparison of Herzberg's ranking with those of Fitz-Enz subjects.

Table 1 results of the 1960's Herzberg's study were compared with those of the author's study.<sup>59</sup>

It is apparent, to some degree, that data processing professionals have motivational drives which do not fully correspond to other occupational groups. The author feels that the implication for

---

<sup>58</sup>Fitz-Enz, "Who is the D. P. Professionals?", Datamation, Vol. 24, No. 9, September, 1978, p. 125.

<sup>59</sup>Ibid., p. 126.



TABLE 1  
 COMPARISON OF HERZBERG'S RANKINGS  
 WITH FITZ-ENZ SUBJECTS

Herzberg Results:	Study Results:
1. Achievement	1. Achievement
2. Recognition	2. Possibility for growth
3. Work itself	3. Work itself
4. Responsibility	4. Recognition
5. Advancement	5. Advancement
6. Salary	6. Supervision, technical
7. Possibility for growth	7. Responsibility
8. Interpersonal relations subordinates	8. Interpersonal relations, peers
9. Status	9. Interpersonal relations, subordinates
10. Interpersonal relations, superiors	10. Salary
11. Interpersonal relations, peers	11. Personal life
12. Supervision, technical	12. Interpersonal relations, superiors
13. Company policy and administration	13. Job security
14. Working conditions	14. Status
15. Personal life	15. Company policy and administration
16. Job security	16. Working conditions

management was that in order to have motivated employees, supervisors must understand and bear with individual needs. The monolithic notion that "people are all alike" simply is not supportable.<sup>60</sup>

In order to get insight into motivational factors affecting accountants, Meagher (1979) surveyed accountants within a local industry. Of the 70 questionnaires sent out, 48 were completed and returned in a reply rate of 69%. Respondents were asked to rate job conditions: Low, average, or high as they related to their present job situation and to rank Herzberg's 13 job conditions in order of priority (Highest = 1 and Lowest = 13) as to their impact on individual career objectives.<sup>61</sup>

Management can improve the necessary key motivators for accountants.<sup>62</sup> The accountant should be provided more freedom, an atmosphere conducive to growth should be created, and adequate communication must be maintained between management and accountants.<sup>63</sup>

#### Motivational Studies of Police Officers

One area of motivation that has been researched by many is the motivational factors of police officers.

The Journal of Police Science and Administration reported a study on motivation and various police department models. The purpose

---

<sup>60</sup>Ibid., p. 127.

<sup>61</sup>Meagher, "Motivating Accountants," Management Accounting, Vol. LX, No. 9. March, 1979, p. 27.

<sup>62</sup>Ibid., p. 30.

<sup>63</sup>Ibid.

of the study was to set out the possible models of municipal police departments, based on the degree of motivation exhibited, and determine the utility of the models by examining an agency with a reputation for having a high degree of motivation.<sup>64</sup>

The Mesa Police Department was selected for study to determine its degree of motivation and determine which one of the generalized organizational models it fits. The study consisted of structured interviews with a non-random sample of 20 police officers from the Mesa Police Department which had a total of 225 sworn personnel at the time of the study (1979). An interview schedule was developed to acquire information related to each officer's background and perceptions about job satisfaction and motivation. The models proposed were the political model, bureaucratic model, professional model, and the community model.

The political model is known for its lack of motivation. The primary reason for this is politics; however, the authoritative nature of the organization also plays a part in keeping motivation low.<sup>65</sup> Officers in an agency reflecting the bureaucratic model are motivated, and this motivation comes primarily from organizational emphasis on professionalism, military aspects, and the law enforcement role. Complete satisfaction, however, is not achieved because elements of the community withhold support, respect, appreciation, and, in some cases,

---

<sup>64</sup>Hernandez, "Motivation and Municipal Police Department: Models and An Empirical Analysis," Journal of Police Science and Administration, Vol. 10, No. 3, September, 1982, p. 284.

<sup>65</sup>Ibid.

downgrade the department's reputation and prestige.<sup>66</sup> The professional model is a highly motivated type of agency. Officers identify with the department but do not have the degree of commitment that is seen in the next model.

The community model, in many respects, is like the professional model. However, because of the way the work is structured; because officers participate in most aspects of the organization; because of the way the officers are treated by the supervisors, administrators, and peers; because the organization is totally integrated and a team-feeling permeates it, it is found that needs are satisfied, motivation abounds, and officers are truly committed to the agency.<sup>67</sup>

According to this study, the Mesa Police Department fit into the professional model. The department was able to satisfy most of the officers' needs, particularly in the area of work itself and in the important areas of esteem and status; consequently, it maintained a high level of motivation and morale.<sup>68</sup> There were, however, some problems in the following areas: Social safety, and security (disagreement with some policies and procedures related to promotions and training, primarily dislike of shiftwork and maintenance).<sup>69</sup> These

---

<sup>66</sup>Ibid., p. 285.

<sup>67</sup>Ibid.

<sup>68</sup>Ibid., p. 287.

<sup>69</sup>Ibid.

concerns do not appear to have a deleterious impact on the level of motivation. This anomaly may be due to the observation that these problems relate to extrinsic factors (safety and security) which do not seem to play as large a role in motivation as intrinsic factors (self-actualization and esteem/status).<sup>70</sup>

Another study of police motivation was conducted by Gaines, Tubersen, and Paine (1984). This study examined the role of promotion in police motivation. The study revealed that promotion represents only one source of motivation within the police department, but it is considered to be a significant source. Officers from two Connecticut police departments were in this study. The study investigated the need structure (which needs were more important) of police officers, and the extent to which promotion satisfied need. The officers were divided over the instrumentality of promotion in fulfilling their needs.<sup>71</sup>

Stroller (1977) conducted a study which tested the need for achievement in work output among policemen. A suburban police department was used to test the hypothesis that small work samples with feedback of two weeks duration could have enough impact to stimulate and identify highly motivated personnel by their increased productivity. A total of 54 policemen completed the experiment. Policemen in Group 1 received feedback about their productivity during the first two weeks of the experiment followed by no feedback about productivity during the second two weeks of the experiment. Policemen

---

<sup>70</sup>Ibid.

<sup>71</sup>Gaines, Tubersen, Paine, "Police Officer Perception of Promotions As a Source of Motivation," Journal of Criminal Justice, Vol. 12, No. 3, 1984, p. 267.

in Group 2 received no feedback about their productivity during the first two weeks of the experiment, followed by feedback about productivity during the second two weeks of the experiment. At the end of the experiment, all policemen were given the achievement items of the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule and achievement scales of the California Psychological Inventory. The experiment suggests that a police department can increase the output of officers without issuing a direct order, thus avoiding possible adverse public reactions.<sup>72</sup>

A motivational study of police was conducted by Hageman (1979). In this study, motivating factors for joining the police force among recent training academy graduates were explored. The population for this research consisted of 70 law enforcement officers (police and detectives) who had worked as officers less than five years and were attending a 14-week basic law enforcement class at academies in Issaquah, Washington, in 1974. A self-administered questionnaire with both precoded and open-ended questions was developed. Questions specifically dealt with motivating factors for joining the force, such as helping the public, enforcing the law, accomplishing something worthwhile. Analysis of the data showed that among the possible motivating factors, accomplishing something worthwhile ranked first, helping the public ranked second, and the adventure of police work third. Only 27.1% replied that they viewed the work as a steady job with a secure future as a very important reason for joining. Therefore, it appears that the predominant reason for joining is

---

<sup>72</sup>Stroller, "Need for Achievement in Work Output Among Policemen," Illinois Institute of Technology, Doctoral Dissertation, 1977

altruistic as opposed to practical. Several reasons exist to explain these results according to the study. First, many departments are moving away from the traditional, paramilitary structure. Second, many departments are developing more service-oriented programs, such as team policing. The study suggests that the "new breed" of individuals joining the force does so because of a desire to accomplish something worthwhile and to help the public. These people are less authoritarian and desire a greater involvement with their communities.<sup>73</sup>

A study to determine the motivational factors involved in becoming a police officer were examined by Cross (1977). In his study, results of observations or interviews with 102 students at a police training institute were reported. Of the 102 subjects in the sample, 70 were interviewed. The study used Lofland's concept of turning points as indicative of a moment when old lines of action have been disrupted, resulting in an opportunity or to do something different with one's life. Eight different types of turning points were discovered. Leaving school or completing military service opens new avenues for opportunity. In many cases, minimum and maximum age limits for entering police work are a deciding factor. Removal of barriers to police entry may be a prerequisite to joining a police department. Another situation may involve the potential policeman being forced out of or blocked from entry into a desired profession or occupation. For some, police work is undertaken before entering or reentering a desired field. Dissatisfaction with one's old job can also contribute to the

---

<sup>73</sup>Hageman, "Who Joins the Force For What Reasons--An Argument For the New Breed," Journal of Police Science and Administration, Vol. 7, No. 2, June, 1979, p. 206.

decision to enter police work. Related to this factor may be that of leaving a higher paying job for the greater self-fulfillment of police work. The process of becoming a police officer is often greatly affected by social relationships. Encouragement from social relations who were associated with police work occurred in the cases of 85% of the sample interviewed.<sup>74</sup>

Quarles' (1978) study was concerned with rank and salary in American police departments. A number of alternatives which may increase morale and motivation were examined. Current incentives in police work are primarily vertical and reserved for individuals pursuing police management careers. Very few incentives exist for horizontal development. Consequently, the most talented and ambitious individuals are steered into management positions with the effect of reducing the quality of personnel in baseline positions. Narrowly classified role objectives often serve to limit motivation, initiative, and morale within the department. Police departments lose many good employees as a result of career and salary limitations. Changes in operable rank and position opportunities should functionally increase mobility, morale, tenure, and job satisfaction. An emphasis on intrinsic rewards from the nature of the work can enhance job performance according to the study. Dual ladder classification systems are those which involve the side-by-side existence of a reward system of progressively increasing authority over greater numbers of employees with a reward system involving successively higher salaries, status

---

<sup>74</sup>Cross, "Turning Points--An Alternative View of Becoming a Policeman," Journal of Police Science and Administration, Vol. 5, No. 2, June, 1977, p. 155.



titles, and more responsible assignments. This system fails in many departments because it eventually forces effective street officers into supervisory roles which may not be wanted by the individual. A patrol incentive plan is an alternative involving status rewards in the form of an insignia to be worn as part of the uniform. Provisions of multiple pay grades within basic ranks, accompanied with increased responsibilities is a method that, according to the author, prevents loss of effective officers to supervisory or specialist positions. The study concludes that if occupational burnout is to be avoided, innovative rank, salary, and agency changes which reward competence in both management and technical skills will be needed.<sup>75</sup>

Another such study was conducted by Bench (1976). The study concerned with the relationship between Herzberg's motivation/hygiene factors and Holland's personality patterns and sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction of 180 male law enforcement officials from 11 agencies in two southern states. The study tested Herzberg's Theory of Motivation/Hygiene and Holland's Theory of Careers. The Motivation/Hygiene Theory holds that two independent groups of job characteristics: Motivator factors (e.g., achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement) and hygiene factors (e.g., company policy, salary, working conditions, supervisor)--account for job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The motivator factors create satisfaction whereas the hygiene factors create dissatisfaction by their absence and no job dissatisfaction by their presence. The Career

---

<sup>75</sup>Quarles, "Rank and Salary Alternatives For Contemporary Police Departments," Law and Order, Vol. 26, No. 5, May, 1978, p. 52.

Theory is based on the congruence of a person's personality pattern, personality type, and occupational environment. To test these ideas, the following information was sought: Job characteristics that are most important as sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction among police officers, the most prevalent personality type among police, and variation of motivation/hygiene factors with personality type. Data was gathered from small or rural city and county police officers from August 1974 through October 1974. Motivator factors proved more important than hygiene factors as sources of both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The most common personality pattern was RSC (realistic, social, conventional). Personality patterns varied with enforcement experience, but not with age. The most common pattern for senior law enforcement personnel was RCS (realistic, conventional, social). Motivator/hygiene factor ratings for both satisfaction and dissatisfaction factor--work itself--were highly important as a source of satisfaction, but relatively unimportant as a source of dissatisfaction. The results did support the Motivation/Hygiene Theory, but offer partial support for the Career Theory.<sup>76</sup>

Traditional police management control strategies were discussed in the F.B.I. Law Enforcement Bulletin.<sup>77</sup> The article stated that as police departments become complex, the need for policies and procedures becomes more pronounced. However, too much direction can lead to a

---

<sup>76</sup>Bench, "Study of the Relationship Between Herzberg's Hygiene Factors and Holland's Personality Patterns For Law Enforcement Officers," West Virginia University, Doctoral Dissertation, 1976.

<sup>77</sup>National Institute of Justice, F.B.I. Law Enforcement, Vol. 49, No. 2, February, 1980, p. 8.

lack of flexibility and outmoded and improper policies. The control process of measuring performance and providing feedback sometimes leads to management concentration on what is quantifiable at the expense of that which is important. Moreover, performance measures selected for the control system can change the behavior of employees, and if the measures are not a valid indicator of performance, this change in behavior may be detrimental.

The article further states that research studies indicate that feedback effectiveness can vary, depending on who or what provides it. Most people seem to find the task and themselves the preferred source. Knowledge of motivational theory can also be applied to control personnel behavior. This theory includes Abraham Maslow's Hierarchical Relationships of Needs and Frederick Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation in which a person must be given a meaningful and challenging task to perform in order to be motivated. In addition, Expectancy Theory, which recognized a cognitive aspect of behavior, suggests that people trade upon their experience and knowledge to make quick, subjective estimates of behavioral payoffs. By designing and administering the work practices (pay, promotion, assignments) of the organization so that they are obvious superior performance rewards, police managers can increase the probability of satisfactory performance.

A study was conducted on police grievances by Swanton.<sup>78</sup> Police employee grievances expressed over a calendar year were collected from police union records and classified according to type. Sixty-four percent of grievance types fell into administration and logistic categories. Grievance classifications of this type provide management with a tool with which to identify areas of possible suboptimal performance and remedy them. A very loose relationship appeared to exist between the classification and Herzberg's hygiene factors, which tend to suggest that the broad pattern of police employee grievances is not greatly different from that of other workers.

#### Summary

This chapter reviewed various motivational theories and studies that have been conducted. The literature was divided into several sections, the first of which discussed the topics of major theories of motivation. Among these theories are the content or need theories. One such theory is Maslow's Need Hierarchy. Maslow contends that a person's personality develops through various stages of need. The needs identified in his theory are physiological, safety and security, belongingness, self-esteem and self-realization. When one need is satisfied, then another appears until it is satisfied. Also within the content or need theory is Herzberg's Motivation Theory. Essentially Herzberg proposes that there are two sets of needs with an individual,

---

<sup>78</sup>Swanton, "Police Grievance Profiles," Police Studies, Vol. 6, No. 3, Fall, 1983, p. 36.

intrinsic or job factors (motivators) and extrinsic (hygiene factors). The motivators provide job satisfaction while the hygiene factors are necessary to prevent dissatisfaction. Another content or need theory is McClelland's Achievement Motive. In this theory the motive to achieve is examined with certain characteristics being identified that determine a person's achievement motivator.

The process of instrumentality theory is another general motivational theory. Included in this theory was Victor Vroom's expectancy theory. The expectancy theory is based on a person's evaluation of various strategies of behavior. The person then chooses the strategy that he believes to be work-related rewards. McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y are also a process of instrumentality theory. His theory focuses on different approaches to management based on assumptions about human behavior. A Theory X person dislikes work and needs to be coerced, controlled and threatened with punishment. The Theory Y person likes work, will be self directed towards organizational objectives and is committed to those objectives.

The last major motivational theory to be addressed was the equity theory of motivation. Simply put, the theory states that if there is a discrepancy between the amount of a reward received and a person's effort, one is motivated to reduce it.

Subsequent sections in this chapter examine motivational studies in general and motivational studies involving police officers.

## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

#### Methods

This chapter focuses on the method used to test the validity of Herzberg's Motivation Theory as applied to police officers in a given setting. The design, instrumentation, and procedures are discussed.

#### Research Design

The purpose of the research is to provide evidence which supports or rejects Herzberg's Motivation Theory. Specifically, it is designed to determine whether the separate hygiene and motivators outlined by Herzberg exist for the police officers in the sample tested.

A written questionnaire was developed which focused on the 11 key motivators and hygiene factors in Herzberg's theory. A listing of these appears as Appendix A. For each of these, two questions were formulated and separated by at least eight other questions. By this separation, one could be confident that the remembering of the first question did not affect the respondent's answer to the second. One of these questions was designed to test the factor as a motivator. The other question tested is as a hygiene factor. The questionnaire appears as Appendix B. The basic factors tested are listed in Table 2.

The questionnaire was designed around a five-point Likert scale. The scale then afforded the respondent the opportunity to strongly

TABLE 2  
 QUESTIONS PAIRED FOR ANALYSIS USING  
 EITHER A MOTIVATOR OR A HYGIENE FACTOR

<u>FACTORS AS IDENTIFIED BY HERZBERG</u>	<u>QUESTION NUMBER WHICH TESTS THE FACTOR IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE</u>	
	<u>MOTIVATOR</u>	<u>HYGIENE</u>
Pay	12	6
Work Areas	20	13
Status	25	8
Benefits	17	24
Policies	16	23
Recognition	18	27
Responsibility	7	14
Promotion	10	21
Achievement	11	22
Work Itself	26	15
Job Security	9	19

disagree, disagree, agree, strongly agree, or remain neutral on each of the questions. The Likert scale was chosen for its practicality and applicability. First, it enables the respondent an excellent range of choices. Second, it basically forces the respondent to select an answer which means more complete and accurate data. Finally, it provides a defined data base which can be easily categorized and analyzed.

To test for clarity and understanding of the questionnaire and to determine how long it takes the average participant to complete the questionnaire, a pilot study was conducted. Five questionnaires were given to officers in the Youngstown Police Department. The average time to complete the questionnaire was seven minutes. An open-ended interview was conducted with the officers after the questionnaires were completed to determine if there existed any confusion with a particular question or questions. None emerged. No data analysis was pursued from the pilot study due to the obviously small sample size which would preclude any meaningful results.

#### Sample

The written questionnaire was distributed to police officers by the roll call sergeant in the following Trumbull County Ohio police departments: Warren City Police, Liberty Township Police, Howland Township Police, Niles City Police, Cortland Police, Trumbull County Sheriff's Department, and the State Highway Patrol, Warren, Ohio. (Appendix C.) The officers were asked to answer frankly and honestly and not to identify themselves on the questionnaire in any fashion. To further ensure that the respondents answered truthfully, a statement was added to the top of the questionnaire explaining its purpose. The roll



call sergeants collected the completed questionnaires which the officers directly dropped in a sealed box. By this method, one, hopefully, avoided having the sample contaminated with "acceptable" answers.

A total of 200 questionnaires were given to the eight departments involved. The departments have a cumulative total of 240 officers working on a full-time basis as of July 1986. A total of 102 were completed and returned. Thus, 42.5% of the total sample population was examined. Furthermore, the number of locations involved supports the premise that an acceptable number of questionnaires was returned. Even though many locations were involved, the geographic area was very limited. It was intentionally limited for two reasons. First, it was possible to physically deliver, discuss and retrieve the forms at all departments involved. This enabled one to ensure the roll call sergeant's involvement and gain the support of key management at each location. The second reason is that the Trumbull County departments are an evenly distributed sample of the county's total police officer population. Thus, by examining the subset, it is possible to generalize to the total population of the Trumbull County police. The demographic statistics of the sample appear as Appendix D.

#### Instrumentation

To tabulate the data, each response was given a numeric point value. Accordingly, a strongly disagree was assigned a point value of either one or five depending on the factor tested. Disagree, a point value of two or four, and neutral, a point value of three in all cases. Similarly, agree was assigned a four, and strongly agree, a five. The point value of all the responses to each question was summed and a simple

average for each question was tabulated. In this fashion, it was possible to determine how the population viewed each factor analyzed.

Demographics incorporated into the questionnaire enabled examination of significant subsets of the population. Thus, the sample population was broken down and analyzed, not only as a total group, but also in a number of subsets. The purpose of the subsets was to determine if Herzberg's theory was more applicable to select groups than a total population. To this end, the following sub-sample groups were also analyzed:

1. Those having a second job
2. Those having no second job
3. Over 40 years of age
4. Under 40 years of age
5. Under \$20,000 annual income
6. \$20,000-\$30,000 annual income
7. Over \$30,000 annual income
8. Associate degree and under
9. Baccalaureate degree and over

Table 2 (refer to page 39) illustrates which questions are paired for analysis of the factor as a motivator and hygiene.

### Summary

This chapter has discussed the method used to test and determine the validity of Herzberg's Motivational-Hygiene theory as applied to police officers in the area county. The method selected attempts to determine if the motivators and hygiene factors as identified by Herzberg

are applicable to the subgroup of police officers. Discussed were the research design, sample, and instrumentation. The next chapter will be an analysis of the findings of the general population tested as well as the subsets.

## CHAPTER IV

## ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Total Population

The first step in the analysis was to evaluate the total population and identify those factors that are in support of Herzberg's Motivation Theory. That is, the answers that fell into the 3.1 and above category when the points were added together and divided by the total number of questionnaires completed. For example, all the answers to question number six were added together by their point value (i.e., Strongly Disagree=1 or 5 depending on factor tested, Disagree=2 or 4, Neutral=3, Agree=4, Strongly Agree=5), and then divided by 102 (the number of questionnaires analyzed).

The first factor to show support of the theory is "pay." This factor obtained a 3.3 when analyzed as a hygiene question. This score is above 3.0 and thus supports the theory. Another factor that is in support of the theory is "work areas"—it scored a 3.9 and is in stronger support of the theory. Other hygiene factors that were in support of the Herzberg Theory were "job security," "benefits," "status," and "company policies." Thus it can be concluded that all of the hygiene factors in Herzberg's Motivation Theory are supported by the results in this study as applied to police officers in the sample.

The next step was to analyze the motivators as identified by Herzberg to see if they supported the theory. The first motivator factor to be analyzed was "achievement." Strong support was shown for this

factor as a motivator. It received a total point value of 4.1 by the respondents of the questionnaire. "Recognition" also showed strong support with a total point value of 4.4. Other motivational factors that showed support were "responsibility," "work itself," and "advancement."

The analysis of the population can be summarized as follows. The data gathered for the total population does support Herzberg's Theory. The Hygiene factors identified by Herzberg all received a total point value of 3.1 or higher. Likewise motivators were also found to be supported for the general population. Each motivator also received a total point value of 3.1 or higher by the general population of the study.

#### Subsets

The research examined nine subsets within the population to determine if any variance from the total population occurred. Using the classification system outlined above each of the eleven factors were rated as strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree and strongly agree. The results appear in a master listing as Table 3.

The Under-40-Year-Old subset comprised 67.5% of the total sample. The collection showed "promotions" as a motivator and not a hygiene factor. They also showed "achievement," "recognition," "responsibility" and "work itself" as motivators.

The Over-40-Year-Old subset, 32.5% of the sample, contrasted with both the total sample and the Under-40-Year-Old subset by showing "pay" as a hygiene factor in support of Herzberg. This subset also showed "work areas," "job security," "benefits," "status" and "policies" as hygiene factors. The group showed "achievement," "recognition,"

TABLE 3

RESULTS OF STUDY

This table illustrates results of data analysis for the total population as well as the ten subsets analyzed. The factor tested as a motivator is labeled Motivation and the question tested as a hygiene factor is labeled Hygiene. Based on the questions, it is determined whether there is or is not support for Herzberg's Motivation Theory.

\* = According to Herzberg

I = Indication to Support or Not Support Theory

N = Neutral

Y = Yes

- = In Opposition to Theory

+ = Supports Theory

* Factor	Total Pop.	Under 40	Over 40	Under \$20,000	\$20,000 to \$30,000	Over \$30,000	2nd Job Yes	2nd Job No	2 Year Degree and Under	4 Year Degree and Over
	Motivation I Hygiene	Motivation I Hygiene	Motivation I Hygiene	Motivation I Hygiene	Motivation I Hygiene	Motivation I Hygiene	Motivation I Hygiene	Motivation I Hygiene	Motivation I Hygiene	Motivation I Hygiene
H Pay	N + N	N + N	N + Y	N + N	N - N	N + N	N + N	N - N	N + N	N + N
H Work Areas	N + Y	N + N	N + Y	N + Y	N + N	N + N	N + N	N + N	N + N	N + N
M Status	N + N	N + N	N + Y	N - N	N + N	N + Y	N + N	N + N	N + N	N + N
H Benefits	N + N	N + N	Y + Y	Y - N	N + N	N + N	N + N	N - N	N - N	N + N
H Policies	N + N	N + N	Y + Y	N - N	N + N	N + N	N + Y	N + N	Y + N	N + N
M Recognition	Y + Y	Y + Y	Y + Y	Y + Y	Y + Y	Y + N	Y + Y	Y + Y	Y + Y	Y + Y
M Responsibility	N + Y	N + Y	Y + Y	N + N	N + Y	Y + Y	Y + Y	N - Y	N + Y	Y + Y
M Promotion	Y + N	Y + N	Y + Y	Y + Y	Y + N	Y + N	Y + N	Y + N	Y + N	Y + N
M Achievement	Y + Y	Y + Y	Y + Y	N + Y	Y + Y	Y + N	Y + Y	Y + Y	Y + Y	Y + N
M Work Itself	N + Y	N + Y	Y + Y	N + Y	N + Y	Y + Y	N + Y	N + Y	N + Y	N + Y
H Job Security	N + Y	Y + Y	Y + Y	Y + Y	N + Y	N + Y	Y + Y	N + Y	Y + N	N + Y

"responsibility," "work itself" and "advancement" as motivators and thus supported the theory. It should be noted that this group appeared to support the tested theory the most strongly with some of the highest point values given. For instance, "job security" when asked as a hygiene factor received a 5.0 total point value; "promotion" received a 4.6; policies a 4.8; "promotion" and "recognition" received a 5.0 total point value when asked as a motivator. In examining Table 4 the differences between the range of points in support of the theory between the Under-40 and Over-40 segment does suggest the premise that the different age bonds are motivated to a different level.

The Under-\$20,000-Income group, which is 3.4% of the sample, was least supportive of Herzberg's Theory. In the hygiene factors tested "salary," "work areas," and "job security" were the only ones that supported the theory. "Status," "company policies," and "benefits" did not rate as hygiene factors and thus show no support for Herzberg's theory. All of Herzberg's motivators were shown to be supported.

The \$20,000-to-\$30,000 income subset did not support Herzberg's Theory as to pay's being a hygiene factor. This subset only gave a score of 2.9 when "pay" was asked as a hygiene question. Interestingly enough this group did not view pay as a motivator either. Perhaps the most interesting point to be made by this rating is that pay to this subset of police officers must be inconsequential. It neither motivates or prevents dissatisfaction. This seems difficult to understand, especially considering the officers' duties and the fact that over half of the population had a second job. Regardless of the reasoning, pay for police officers for this subset cannot be categorized as a motivator or a hygiene and thus, does not support Herzberg's Theory. This subset of

TABLE 4

AVERAGE RESPONSE FOR EACH QUESTION  
FOR THE TOTAL POPULATION AND SUBJECTS

M = Question tested as Motivator in Questionnaire

H = Question tested as Hygiene Factor in Questionnaire

Factor Tested	Question	Total Population	Under 40	Over 40	Under \$20,000	\$20,000 to \$30,000	Over \$30,000	2nd Job Yes	2nd Job No	2 Year Degree and Under	4 Year Degree and Over
Pay	H 6	3.3	3.2	4.3	3.3	2.9	3.1	3.1	3.0	3.1	3.1
Responsibility	M 7	3.2	3.7	4.7	3.5	3.6	4.3	3.9	3.4	3.6	3.8
Status	H 8	3.4	3.2	4.9	3.0	3.3	3.7	3.3	3.2	3.2	3.2
Job Security	M 9	3.6	3.8	4.5	3.8	3.4	3.4	3.8	3.3	3.7	3.0
Advancement	M 10	4.0	4.0	5.0	4.3	3.9	4.0	4.1	4.0	4.0	4.1
Achievement	M 11	4.1	4.0	4.7	3.6	4.0	3.8	4.2	3.7	3.9	3.6
Pay	M 12	2.8	2.8	3.4	2.6	3.0	3.4	2.9	2.7	2.8	3.0
Work Areas	H 13	3.9	3.5	4.2	4.0	3.2	3.3	3.3	3.6	3.5	3.4
Responsibility	H 14	4.0	3.7	4.9	3.5	3.8	4.1	3.8	3.7	3.7	3.6
Work Itself	H 15	3.8	3.8	5.0	3.7	3.9	3.9	3.6	3.8	3.7	4.0
Policies	M 16	3.4	3.3	4.0	2.8	3.5	2.9	3.4	3.0	3.3	3.0
Benefits	M 17	3.5	3.5	4.6	3.7	3.4	3.6	3.5	3.4	3.5	3.4
Recognition	M 18	4.4	4.5	5.0	4.1	4.4	4.0	4.4	4.2	4.3	3.8
Job Security	H 19	4.3	4.2	5.0	4.3	4.0	3.9	4.3	4.0	3.1	3.9
Work Areas	M 20	2.7	2.8	3.0	2.8	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.8	2.6	2.7
Promotion	H 21	3.4	3.6	4.6	3.7	3.4	3.4	3.6	3.5	3.6	3.4
Achievement	H 22	4.1	4.2	5.0	3.9	4.1	4.0	4.1	4.1	4.0	4.0
Policies	H 23	3.4	3.2	4.8	3.0	3.5	3.4	3.7	3.1	3.3	3.4
Benefits	H 24	3.1	3.0	3.8	2.8	3.3	3.2	3.3	2.9	3.0	3.3
Status	M 25	2.8	2.4	3.2	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.6
Work Itself	M 26	3.5	3.4	4.7	3.2	3.6	3.8	3.6	3.4	3.5	3.5
Recognition	H 27	4.0	3.8	5.0	3.7	4.1	3.5	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.8



\$20,000-to-\$30,000 income supports Herzberg's Theory as to the hygiene factor of "work conditions," "job security," "fringe benefits," "status," and "company policies." The subset supported the theory on all the motivational factors.

The Over-\$30,000-income group showed very strong support for the theory. Their analysis supported "salary," "work areas," "job security," "benefits," "status" and "policies" as all hygiene factors. All of the motivators identified by Herzberg were supported at the analysis of this income group. Such motivators as responsibility, recognition, and advancement secured point values of 4.0 and over (refer to Table 4). This led the researcher to initially postulate that higher income people--mostly more educated people--are more inclined to support the theory. Unfortunately though, when one examines the subsets based upon education level--the hypothesis loses its value.

Perhaps the most striking and unusual statistic to emerge from the sample was the fact that 42% of the sample had a part-time or second job. Clearly this would seem to indicate that second-job employees would be motivated differently or at least for different reasons. The subsets with a second job were analyzed. This subset supports both Herzberg's motivation and hygiene factors in the analysis.

Finally, the sample population was analyzed separating those with an Associate Degree and over, and those without. The two groups supported ten factors similarly. The only significant difference was that the Associate Degree and under subset did not support benefits as a hygiene factor whereas the Baccalaureate Degree and over subset rated benefits as a hygiene factor in support of Herzberg's theory. One could, thus, perhaps postulate that those under 40 years old and those which are

less educated are less likely to support the Herzberg Theory, since both subsets rated very similarly. The obvious danger in this conclusion is that one may actually be only analyzing one subset since a number of the one group may be included in the second group.

## CHAPTER V

## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This research study has examined the validity of Herzberg's Motivation Theory as it applies to police officers. A written questionnaire was developed which focused on the eleven key motivators and hygiene factors in Herzberg's Theory. Data analyzed from the questionnaires of the total sample does support Herzberg's Theory. The respondents showed "achievement," "recognition," "responsibility," "work itself," and "advancement" as motivators in support of Herzberg's Theory. The respondents of the general population also showed "salary," "work conditions," "job security," "fringe benefits," "status" and "company policies" to be in support of the theory. It therefore can be concluded that Herzberg's Motivation Theory is supported by the research in its application to the population of police officers in Trumbull County, Ohio.

Nine subsets within the data sets were also examined to determine if any variance occurred. In the Under-40-Year-Old subset all of the motivators and hygiene factors identified by Herzberg were supported. In the Over-40-Year-Old age group all of the motivators and hygiene factors were also supported. It should be noted that this group supported Herzberg's Theory the most strongly with many point averages of over 4.0. The factors that rated the strongest for this subset were "job security," "promotion," and "recognition."

In the under \$20,000 income subset the hygiene factors of "salary," "work areas," and "job security" only showed support for the

theory. Thus this group was least supportive of the Herzberg's Theory. The \$20,000-\$30,000 income subset did not support pay as being a hygiene factor. All of the other factors supported the theory. The Over \$30,000 subset supported all of the hygiene-motivator factors set out by Herzberg. Likewise those with a second job and those with a Baccalaureate degree or more supported all of the hygiene factors and motivators. In the Associate degree and under subset, "benefits" was not viewed as a hygiene factor and therefore did not support the theory on this one factor. The remaining hygiene and motivators, however, all showed support for the theory.

#### Implications For Future Research

It becomes obvious at this point to recognize the fact that the analysis above supports Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory. The reader, however, should recognize some possible shortcomings in the instruments used in the analysis.

First, perhaps the questionnaire itself is not a fair barometer of true motivations. The research used such words as "happier" and "more satisfied" as well as "more motivated" and "more productive" to describe the factors tested. It is possible that the respondents could not clearly define these and thus, responded in error. The instrument may also be flawed since it primarily measures conscious thought. Perhaps the hygiene and motivators which Herzberg examined operate primarily on a sub-conscious level. For example if asked if they will work harder when praised they may respond that they would not when subconsciously they may very well do so. Similarly, when asked if pay will make them work harder

they may respond yes when in fact they will not. Face to face interviews which permit in-depth problems might prove this to be true. Naturally, however, in-depth probing is prone to different bias.

It would also be interesting to cross-tabulate some of the subgroups analyzed to see if they more truly follow the theory. For example, future research could intersect Under-\$30,000 with Under-4-Year Degree and Under-\$30,000. The analysis presented in this paper suggests that the theory is more applicable to some groups within a population than others. With a computer it would be possible to examine every possible intersection and might lead to some different conclusions.

Further research might permit sensitivity analysis. The scale the research developed forced all the averages to fall neatly into one of three categories: Agree, Neutral, and Disagree. It is possible that with the aid of sensitivity analysis and further statistical analysis that the classification could be shown to be imperfect. Thus, by moving the classification scheme, an entirely new set of trends could emerge.

Finally, one must recognize that police officers are a unique and distinct subgroup of the total population. As such, it is possible that their motivations are quite distinct and that the findings outlined in this paper are correct. If this is indeed the case, it becomes evident that Herzberg's Theory of Motivation does hold true for police officers and may apply to other police populations.

## APPENDIX A

Motivators and Hygiene Factors in  
Herzberg's Theory of Motivation

MOTIVATORS AND HYGIENE FACTORS IN  
HERZBERG'S THEORY OF MOTIVATION

Motivators:

1. Achievement
2. Recognition
3. Responsibility
4. Work Itself
5. Advancement

Hygiene Factors:

1. Salary
2. Work Conditions
3. Job Security
4. Fringe Benefits
5. Status
6. Company Policies

APPENDIX B

Questionnaire



## QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is strictly for the purpose of a research project and will not be processed by any police agency. Please DO NOT sign your name or identify yourself in any other way.

1. I fall into the following age group:
  - A. 20 to 30
  - B. 30 to 40
  - C. 40 to 50
  - D. Over 50
  
2. I am a:
  - A. Male
  - B. Female
  
3. I fall into the following income bracket:
  - A. Under \$20,000 yearly
  - B. \$20,000 to \$30,000 yearly
  - C. Over \$30,000 yearly
  
4. I have a part-time or second job:
  - A. Yes
  - B. No
  
5. My level of education is:
  - A. High school graduate
  - B. Two-year college degree
  - C. Four-year college degree
  - D. Graduate degree
  
6. If I don't feel I'm being paid a fair wage, I could never be happy with my job.
 

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

7. The more responsibility I'm given, the more likely I am to work harder to do a good job.
- |                   |          |         |       |                |
|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
8. A police officer that performs an intricate and sophisticated job but is given a menial job title is going to be unhappy.
- |                   |          |         |       |                |
|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
9. If a person is given more job security, he will probably work harder on a daily basis.
- |                   |          |         |       |                |
|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
10. Company advancement opportunities are essential to making a police officer want to work diligently and productively.
- |                   |          |         |       |                |
|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
11. When I achieve or accomplish my goals at work, it makes me even more motivated to tackle other problems.
- |                   |          |         |       |                |
|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
12. I don't really believe that if a police officer is paid more, he is going to work harder on a daily basis.
- |                   |          |         |       |                |
|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
13. If our locker rooms and work areas were more pleasant, I would be more eager to go to work.
- |                   |          |         |       |                |
|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
14. I could never be happy in a police job where I wasn't given any real responsibility.
- |                   |          |         |       |                |
|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |

15. I think that the work itself I do is a source of job satisfaction.
- |                   |          |         |       |                |
|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
16. In our line of work, general company policies on such things as sick time, tardiness, etc., really effect my work motivation.
- |                   |          |         |       |                |
|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
17. A police officer will work harder if he is given a better benefits package.
- |                   |          |         |       |                |
|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
18. If my boss gives me recognition when I do an outstanding job, I'll probably work harder for him the next day.
- |                   |          |         |       |                |
|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
19. For a person to be happy with his job, he needs to have job security.
- |                   |          |         |       |                |
|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
20. The appearance of our locker rooms and work areas could never really effect my job performance.
- |                   |          |         |       |                |
|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
21. I could never be happy in my job if I didn't have real advancement opportunities.
- |                   |          |         |       |                |
|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
22. When I can accomplish things at work, it really makes me happier about my job in general.
- |                   |          |         |       |                |
|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |

23. In our line of work, general company policies on such things as sick time and tardiness really effect job satisfaction.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

24. I think that a fair benefits program is necessary to keep police officers happy, but that it probably doesn't motivate them.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

25. If an officer is given a really powerful and prestigious title, he'll probably work harder and accomplish more in his work day.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

26. I think that work itself is a strong source of motivation that keeps me productive.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

27. A police officer would not be happy in a job where he isn't given recognition for a job well done.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

APPENDIX C

Police Departments  
That Participated in the Study

POLICE DEPARTMENTS  
THAT PARTICIPATED IN THE STUDY

1. Warren City Police Department, Warren, Ohio
2. Liberty Township Police Department, Liberty, Ohio
3. Howland Township Police Department, Howland, Ohio
4. Niles City Police Department, Niles, Ohio
5. Cortland Police Department, Cortland, Ohio
6. Trumbull County Sheriff's Department, Warren, Ohio
7. Ohio State Patrol, Warren, Ohio

APPENDIX D

Demographics of Population

## DEMOGRAPHICS OF POPULATION

1. Age Groups
  - A. 20 to 30 = 18.5%
  - B. 30 to 40 = 49.0%
  - C. 40 to 50 = 24.5%
  - D. Over 50 = 8.0%
  
2. Male/Female
  - A. Female = 2%
  - B. Male = 98%
  
3. Income
  - A. Under \$20,000 yearly = 34.3%
  - B. \$20,000 to \$30,000 yearly = 55.9%
  - C. Over \$30,000 yearly = 9.8%
  
4. Part-Time or Second Job
  - A. Part-time job = 41.2%
  - B. No part-time job = 58.8%
  
5. Education
  - A. High school graduate = 55.9%
  - B. Two-year college degree = 26.5%
  - C. Four-year college degree = 12.7%
  - D. Graduate degree = 4.9%



## BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books

- Gellerman, Saul. W. Motivation and Productivity, 1963, p. 123.
- Herzberg, Frederick. The Motivation To Work, John Wiley & Sons, New York, 1959, pp. VIII.
- Maslow, Abraham H. Toward A Psychology of Being, New York, Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1962.
- McGregor, Douglas. The Human Side of Enterprise, New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1960.
- Vroom, Victor. Work and Motivation, John Wiley & Sons, New York, 1964.
- Vroom, Victor. Motivation in Management, American Foundation for Management Research, 1965.

Articles

- Adams, J. S. "Toward An Understanding of Inequity," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, Vol. 31, November, 1963, pp. 422-436.
- Conser. "Motivational Theory Applied to Law Enforcement Agencies," Journal of Police Science and Administration, Vol. 7, No. 3, 1979, p. 286.
- Cross. "Turning Points--An Alternative View of Becoming A Policeman," Journal of Police Science and Administration, Vol. 5, No. 2, June, 1977, pp. 155-164.
- Fitz-Enz, J. "Who Is The D.P. Professional?" Datamation, Vol. 24, No. 9, September, 1978, pp. 125-128.
- Forgionne & Peeters. "The Influence of Sex on Managers in the Service Sector," California Management Review, Vol. 25, No. 1, Fall, 1982, p. 79.
- Gaines, Tubersen, Paine. "Police Officer Perception of Promotion As A Source of Motivation," Journal of Criminal Justice, Vol. 12, No. 3, 1984, pp. 265-275.
- Hageman. "Who Joins the Force For What Reasons--An Argument For the New Breed," Journal of Police Science and Administration, Vol. 7, No. 2, June, 1979, pp. 206-210.

- Harvey, Barron H. "Motivating Federal Employees: A Concern For Middle Managers," Personnel, Vol. 59, No. 2, March/April, 1982, pp. 62-63.
- Hernandez. "Motivation and Municipal Police Department: Models and An Empirical Analysis," Journal of Police Science and Administration, Vol. 10, No. 3, September, 1982, pp. 284-288.
- Ingram & Bellenger. "Motivational Segments in the Sales Force," California Management Review, Vol. XXIV, No. 3, Spring, 1982, pp. 81-88.
- Katerberg, R. "An Examination of Level and Direction of Effort and Job Performance," Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 26, No. 2, June, 1982, pp. 249-257.
- Kemp, N. "Autonomous Work Groups in a Greenfield Site: A Comparative Study," Journal of Occupational Psychology, Vol. 56, No. 4, December, 1983, pp. 271-285.
- Lampe, J. and Earnest, K. "How Motivation Affects Accountants' Productivity and Turnover," Management Accounting, Vol. LXV, No. 8, February, 1984, pp. 50-55.
- Long, R. "Worker Ownership and Job Attitudes: A Field Study," Industrial Relations, Vol. 21, No. 2, Spring, 1982, pp. 196-215.
- Meagher, G. "Motivating Accountants," Management Accounting, Vol. LX, No. 9, March, 1979, pp. 27-30.
- National Institute of Justice. F.B.I. Law Enforcement Bulletin, Vol. 49, No. 2, February, 1980, pp. 6-11.
- Pearce, J. "Job Attitude and Motivational Differences Between Volunteers and Employees From Comparable Organizations," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 68, No. 4, November, 1983, pp. 646-652.
- Quarles. "Rank and Salary Alternatives for Contemporary American Police Departments," Law and Order, Vol. 26, No. 5, May, 1978, pp. 52-62.
- Rabenowitz, W. and Falkenback, K. "Worker Motivation: Unsolved Problem or Untapped Resources?" California Management Review, Vol. XXV, No. 2, January, 1983, pp. 45-56.
- Schwab, D. and Cummings, L. "Theories of Performance and Satisfaction: A Review," Industrial Relations, 1970, pp. 407-430.
- Swanton. "Police Grievance Profiles," Police Studies, Vol. 6, No. 3, Fall, 1983, pp. 36-43.

White, F. and Locke, E. "Perceived Determinates of High and Low Productivity in Three Occupational Groups: A Critical Incident Study," Journal of Management Studies, Vol. 18, No. 4, 1981, pp. 357-387.

Dissertations

Bench. "Study of the Relationship Between Herzberg's Motivation/Hygiene Factor and Holland's Personality Patterns For Law Enforcement Officers," West Virginia University, Doctoral Dissertation.

Stroller. "Need For Achievement in Work Output Among Policemen," Illinois Institute of Technology, Doctoral Dissertation, 1977.