THE RELATIONSHIP OF AGE, TENURE AND

JOB SATISFACTION IN PATROL OFFICERS

by

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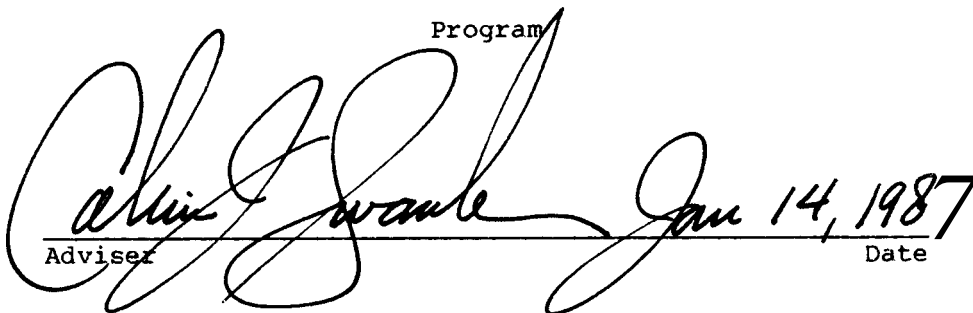
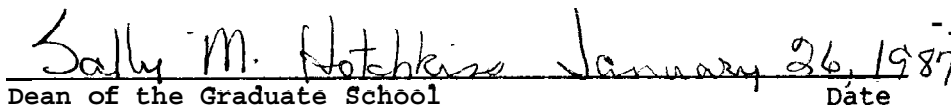for the Degree of

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ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP OF AGE, TENURE, AND JOB SATISFACTION

IN PATROL OFFICERS

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This is a study of the relationship between age, tenure and job
satisfaction in patrol officers. Subjects were 173 officers from 23
police agencies in northeastern Ohio. Job satisfaction was measured
using the Job Descriptive Index (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1975), a
survey instrument which assesses satisfaction with five essential
facets of work (i.e., quality of work, pay, promotions, supervision,
and people on the job). A positive linear relationship was hypothesized
between age and job satisfaction, and between tenure and job satis-
faction. Findings of the study supported one research hypothesis but
not the other. A significant positive correlation was found between
tenure and job satisfaction. Positive associations were also found
between job satisfaction and income, and between job satisfaction and
department size. Negative associations were found between rank and
satisfaction with people on the job, and between rank and satisfaction
with supervision. Of the job facets measured by the Job Descriptive
Index, patrol officers were least satisfied with pay and promotions,
and most satisfied with supervision. When scores of the sample were

compared to those of other police groups, several differences and

similarities emerged. Possible reasons for observed results are also

discussed.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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LIST OF SYMBOLS

SYMBOL	DEFINITION
M	Arithmetic mean of a sample or data set
N	Sample size
r^2	Explained variation
r	Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient
p	Probability
SD	Standard Deviation
t	Student's t ratio

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Job satisfaction has been a topic of debate and study since the industrial revolution. Karl Marx (1844) was among those who pointed out the dysfunctional consequences of boring and unfulfilling work, At least 32 studies on the subject had been conducted by the mid-1930s (Hoppock, 1935). In 1976, Locke found more than 3,300 references on job satisfaction. At present, there are probably well over 4,000 such studies.' Reasons for the popularity of this subject are not hard to explain. Job satisfaction directly or indirectly affects the well-being of individual workers, the organizations that employ the workers, and society in general.

Adult Americans typically spend about half of their waking hours at work. To most people work is one of the key elements of their lives. Individual quality of life, including physical and psychological health, also appears to be dramatically influenced by the nature of one's employment (Hopkins, 1983). In addition, work places the -- individual into an organizational setting where the efforts of two or more people are joined to achieve a common purpose. Although prior studies have produced inconsistent results on the relationship between job satisfaction and productivity per se (Cherrington, Reitz, & Scott, 1971), there is strong evidence to suggest that job satisfaction influences such factors as absenteeism and turnover (Porter & Steers, 1973), as well as other types of job behavior that can affect the

quality and quantity of work or services produced (Locke, 1976). Employee satisfaction with work may take on added significance in the public sector where agencies usually do not compete for clientele.

Noting that a society composed of a significant number of dissatisfied workers is not likely to be economically or socially healthy, some scholars have suggested that job satisfaction is a reflection of overall social health (e.g., Kahn, 1972; Seashore & Taber, 1975). Thus, from the perspective of quality of life for individual workers, the success of organizations, and the health of society as a whole, job satisfaction is an important issue.

Purpose

Locke (1976) points out that a job is not a single entity, rather it is a complex interaction of tasks, roles, responsibilities, interactions, incentives, and rewards. Equally complex is the multi-faceted concept of job satisfaction. In its most basic form, job satisfaction is the attitudinal reaction of the person to his or her job and job environment. Worker reactions are the product of interaction between numerous societal, organizational, and individual variables. While most of the job satisfaction research has focused on the content and context of the job itself, it is clear that individual and societal factors also play a part. In addition to work skills, each individual brings a whole set of attitudes, personality dispositions, feelings, and emotions to the job with him or her (Porter, Lawler, & Hackman, 1975). As a result, the satisfaction of two workers occupying virtually the same job in the same context may vary significantly. Indeed, "no one looks through a perfectly clear glass; the glass is distorted by the

combination of life experiences unique to that individual" (Hopkins, 1983, p. 74). Moreover, cognitive changes pertaining to work are known to occur within the same individual across time (Porter, et al., 1975).

This study looked at the association between two such individual variables (viz., age & tenure) and job satisfaction among police officers. The purpose of the study was to empirically examine the correlation between age, tenure, and self-perceived job satisfaction among patrol officers in selected Ohio police agencies. A related objective was to provide meaningful feedback to participating police organizations. During the study job satisfaction was generally treated as a dependent variable, while age and tenure were treated as independent variables.

General Perspective of Police

As a foundation to discussing the need for study, such as this, it is worthwhile to briefly develop a general perspective of contemporary policing in areas germane to the research. Police organizations, personnel, and functions in the United States reflect diversity and contrast. At the federal level there are at least 112 agencies with varying enforcement, administrative, and investigative responsibilities (Skoler, 1980). Moreover, all 50 states maintain a highway patrol, state police, or public safety department with functions ranging from full law enforcement duties to traffic control only. In most states, various other police-related organizations also exist. However, the greatest diversity in operation, authority, general function, and size among police agencies occurs at the local level of government where the primary responsibility for providing police

services rests.   Historically, Americans have always been committed to organizing police services at the local level.   Local control is seen as a safeguard against abuse and a means of insuring that police are accountable and responsive to the communities they serve.   As a result, virtually every general unit of government maintains its own independent police force (Skoler, 1980).   Current estimates of the total number of separate and independent police organizations in this country range from about 17,000 to 19,600 (Fife, 1985; Pearson, 1983).   Approximately 95% are at the county and municipal levels (Skoler, 1980).   In terms of size, these organizations cover a wide range.   The nation's largest police department, New York City, employs more than 33,000 full-time personnel (Uniform Crime Reports [UCR], 1985).   At the other end of the spectrum are more than 10,000 departments with fewer than nine full-time employees (Pearson, 1983).

Diversity also seems to characterize the approximately 650,000 personnel in the United States who are employed full-time in police work.   In a 1969 survey conducted by the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP), about half of the officers reported that they had finally settled on police work after trying several jobs (cited in Radelet, 1986).   In addition, a series of new laws (e.g., the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972)[3] and judicial decisions (e.g., Griggs v. Duke Power Company, 1971),[4] have brought about dramatic changes in police selection and promotion processes during the past 20 years, resulting in a much more pluralistic work force.   The percentage of civilians employed in policing increased from 10.7% in 1965 to 24% in 1984.   Although still under-represented, more women and minorities are employed in policing than ever before.   In 1967, women comprised 0.1%

of sworn officers and were not allowed to become patrol officers in most departments. In 1984, however, women were eligible to serve as patrol officers in most police agencies, and made up approximately six percent of total sworn officers. The number of minority personnel employed in policing has also increased. Barely four percent of this nation's police personnel were from a racial minority group in 1967. Conversely, a 1981 study of the nation's fifty largest cities indicated that well over 20% of police officers were either black or hispanic. (Radelet, 1986; Staufenberger, 1980; Task Force Report: The Police, 1967; UCR, 1985). Yet another area where police employees differ markedly is in education. During the past 20 years there has been a considerable rise in the education level of American police officers. A 1977 study conducted by the Police Executive Research Forum reported that 42% of the officers surveyed had an associate degree or higher (cited in Robinette, 1981). However, cocrt litigation has essentially blocked higher education from becoming a condition of initial employment for police officers (see Carter v. Gallagher, 1971; Holliman v. Price, 1973, & Morrow v. Dillard, 1978). Thus, while many officers have chosen to pursue, or have already attained a college degree, others have not.

The role of police in our society is a very complex issue-as well. Efforts to construct a workable definition of this role seem to substantiate the intricacies of police work (Goldstein, 1978). While acknowledging the risk of oversimplifying the many tasks performed by police, Pursley (1984) summarizes the five primary functions of police as follows: (a) to prevent criminal behavior, (b) to reduce crime, (c) to apprehend offenders, (d) to protect life and property (including provisions of service), and (e) to regulate noncriminal

conduct. The popular image of police work is primarily that of crime fighter; reality suggests a much more diversified role. Various studies have shown that police spend from 50% to 90% of their time on activities not related to crime (Greacen, 1980). In fact, other than fire, ambulance, and utility services, police are the only agency available seven days a week, 24 hours a day to respond to a citizen's call for help. Thus, in addition to the functions associated with crime and law enforcement, state and local police seem to fill the gaps in services and assistance left by other governmental agencies. [5]

In terms of function, size, composition and organizational characteristics, police within the state of Ohio are generally reflective of the nation as a whole. The largest department in the state employs over 2,000 full-time personnel. Conversely, some of the smallest agencies employ a single full-time officer or are manned on a part-time basis only. As is the case nationally, most police agencies in Ohio are small. Departments with 50 or fewer employees constitute 88% of the total number of police organizations in the state, yet employ only about 37% of the work force, while the state's eight largest agencies (less than 2% of the total) account for more than 40% of all police employees.

Need For Study

This study examined the correlation between age, tenure, and job satisfaction among patrol officers. The significance of such research can be established from two points of focus. First, is a humanistic concern for the health and general happiness of people who choose a career in police work. Second, is the influence that patrol

officer job satisfaction may have on the quality and quantity of police service provided to the public.

Much of the recent scholarly attention to the study of job satisfaction has been motivated by concern for individual workers (see Hopkins, 1983; Kahn, 1972; Seashore 6 Taber, 1975). Instead of examining job satisfaction in relation to productivity, this more humanistic approach seeks to improve happiness and quality of life for individual workers. Since work is a key element in most people's lives, it is logical to expect that job satisfaction will influence satisfaction with life. Indeed, as Hoppock's (1935) classic work points out, "there may be no such thing as job satisfaction independent of other satisfactions in life". In summarizing the finding of four prior studies, Locke (1976) also reports significant correlations between attitudes of work and attitudes of life in general. Numerous researchers have also pointed to the negative psychological consequences of work that is not satisfying (e.g., Hopkins, 1983; House, McMichael, Wells, Kaplan & Landerman, 1979; Kahn, 1974; Locke, 1976). Prominent among psychological effects are low perceptions of self-esteem and low self-confidence. The relationship between occupation and the self is well stated by Levinson:

> At best, occupation permits fulfillment of basic values
> and life goals. At worst, work life over the years
> is oppressive and corrupting, and contributes to a growing
> alienation from self, work and society. In studying
> life, we need to understand the meaning of work and the
> multiple ways it may serve to fulfill, to barely sustain or
> to destroy the self. (p. 45)

Other research suggests a causal relationship between physical health and job satisfaction. Many medical authorities believe that stress is one of the leading causes of various physical disorders including: coronary heart disease, ulcers, high blood pressure, headaches, gastric disorders, rheumatic or allergic reactions, kidney disease, and diabetes (Stratton, 1978; Weiman, 1977). Perhaps the most convincing evidence of job satisfaction's relationship to health is a longitudinal study of longevity. Over a period of years, the single best overall predictor of longevity was work satisfaction (defined as a feeling of general usefulness and ability to fulfill a meaningful social role). The second best predictor was the subject's overall happiness. Surprisingly, both factors predicted longevity better than tobacco use or physical functioning (Palmore, 1969).

Several authorities have pointed to police work as a high stress occupation (e.g., Kroes, Margolis, & Hurrell, 1974; Reiser, 1976; Stratton, 1978, 1984). Building on the work of others, Stratton (1984) breaks the occupational stressors of police work down into four categories: (a) stressars external to the law enforcement organization, (b) stressors internal to the organization, (c) stressors in police work itself, and (d) the stressors confronting the individual police officer. Noteworthy is the number of stressors discussed by Stratton that have also been identified as variables in the job satisfaction equation (e.g., supervision, career development, pay, offensive organizational policies, and poor reward/reinforcement systems). Humanistic concern for the health, quality of life, and happiness of workers is clearly a worthwhile motivation for study.

Current knowledge of the relationship between employee job satisfaction and organizational productivity can be summarized as follows:

> Just as reviews of the literature have shown consistently that job satisfaction is related to absences and turnover, they have been equally consistent in showing negligible relationships between satisfaction and levels of performance or productivity.... Both logic and research suggest that it is best to view productivity and satisfaction as separate outcomes of the employee-job interaction, and to expect causal relationships between them only in special circumstances.[6]
>
> (Locke, 1976, p. 1332-1333)

The literature to which Locke refers is predominantly based on research conducted in the private sector. To the extent that a commonality of organizational phenomena exists between private companies and public police agencies, one would expect the relationship between police organization productivity and patrol officer job satisfaction to be essentially as described by Locke. Clearly, lower organizational performance due to high absenteeism and turnover is undesirable in all types of organizations. Moreover, where job satisfaction is low, it seems likely that the most competent personnel would be the first to leave the organization. When it comes to defining and measuring productivity, however, one must acknowledge significant differences between private organizations and public police agencies. Studies of productivity in private industry lend themselves to quantification (i.e., number of items produced per unit of time). Police, on the

other hand, perform an extraordinarily wide range of functions that almost defy quantitative measurement (Pursley, 1984). Traditionally police have relied on figures, such as the number of cases cleared, and official crime statistics as indicators of productivity. Such figures are often unreliable and do not reflect the many non-crime related functions of police (Pursley, 1984). Given the complex role and numerous functions of police in a free society such as ours, it may well be that qualitative factors are as appropriate in gauging police productivity as quantitative factors. As Goldstein (1977) points out:

> Police agencies frequently become so preoccupied with their
> internal operations that they tend to lose sight of the fact
> that the ultimate measure of their achievement is the quality
> of their end product.... It is of dubious merit if the
> officer, on showing up, satisfies neither the citizen who
> summoned aid nor the community's standard of quality service.
> (p. 16)

Thus, productivity in police organizations may well be affected by patrol officer job satisfaction to the degree that a reasonably satisfied officer will provide better quality service to the citizens of the community than a dissatisfied officer will.

Economic considerations further justify the concern police organizations should have for employee job satisfaction. Nationally, the cost of police services increased from $6.5 billion in 1972 to more than $14 billion in 1980 (Staff, 1982). Personnel costs account for between 60% and 90% of the budget in most police agencies (Swank & Conser, 1983). Noting the relationship of personal health to job satisfaction, as discussed earlier, along with rising costs for

medical coverage, disability compensation, and other fringe benefits that are paid largely by the employer, it seems to make excellent "business sense" to be concerned about job satisfaction.

As noted previously, job satisfaction is a complex situational phenomenon that is subject to change over time. Only through continued research can the nature and lessons of job satisfaotion be understood and applied. Hopefully, this study has advanced our knowledge and understanding of job satisfaction to the mutual benefit of individual police officers, police organizations, and the public in general.

Conceptual Definitions

"Understandability implies some consensus on definition" (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1975, p. 6) To enhance understandability and allow systematic evaluation the conceptual definitions inherent to the study are enumerated below.

1. Age: As used here, age refers to the number of years that a person has lived as measured from birth to last birthday.

2. Job Satisfaction: Given the complexity of the topic it is not surprising that definitions vary markedly. In fact, many researchers avoid defining job satisfaction beyond that required for measurement (Hopkins, 1983). Most definitions of job satisfaction rely on the need-satisfaction model which views job satisfaction as resulting from interaction between individual needs and aspects of the job. Hopkins (1983), for example, defines job satisfaction as, "a state of mind that results from an individual's needs or values being met by the job and its environment" (p. 32). Locke (1976) suggests

that the concept of job satisfaction can only be grasped as a result of introspection and defines **it** as, "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (**p.** 1300). The previous definitions, as well as others, seem to view job satisfaction only from a positive or satisfied perspective (**e.g.,** needs or values being met; a pleasurable or positive emotional **state).** Conversely, the literature often refers to job satisfaction in terms of degree. For the purposes of this study, job satisfaction **is** defined as the state of mind that results from appraisal of one's job and job environment. This slight modification of the definition provided by Hopkins (1983) allows the term to be more universal, and places **it** more in line with general usage.

3. <u>Patrol Officer</u>: Defined as a uniformed police officer whose principal activities include responding to call, deterring crime, preliminary investigation, giving aid, providing information, enforcing laws, and many other duties not assigned to more specialized elements of the police organizatgion (Eastman, 1971). Public perceptions of police in general are heavily influenced by the actions of patrol personnel. This **is** so because the patrol force **is** usually the largest and most visible element of the police organization. In fact, most people are exposed only to patrol officers (Swank **&** Conser, 1983)**.**

4. <u>Tenure</u>: Length of service and length of employment are phrases often used to describe this term. As used here, tenure refers to the number of years that a person has performed police work as his or her full-time occupation.

Research Hypothesis

This study measured what are believed to be the most important components of job satisfaction (**viz.,** the quality of work, pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision, and people on the job). A significant positive linear correlation was hypothesized between age and job satisfaction, and between tenure and job satisfaction. More specifically, job satisfaction was expected to be lowest among officers who were young and new on the job, improve through the middle years, and be highest among the older and more senior officers.

Theoretical Considerations

Although attempts have been made, no generally accepted theory of job satisfaction has yet been developed (Porter et al., 1975). Thus, most researchers have relied on one or more of the individual motivation theories as a causal explanation for job satisfaction. At present there is a clear lack of consensus as lo which of these theories offer the most complete explanation of job satisfaction.

This study was largely descriptive and correlational in nature. No attempt was made to prove or disprove a specific theory of job satis-faction, therefore, further discussion of job satisfaction theories will be reserved for the literature review.

Overview of Thesis

The thesis topic has been **introduced** in this chapter. Additionally, hypotheses were broadly stated and key terms were conceptually defined. Remaining chapters provide a more detailed

review of prior research and report findings pertaining to the relationship between age, tenure, and job satisfaction among patrol officers. Chapter Two is a selective review of the literature. The methodology of the study is presented in Chapter Three where testable hypotheses are stated, subjects are described, and measures employed to collect and analyze data are discussed. Chapter Four contains the findings of the study. while Chapter Five identifies and attempts to interpret significant implications of the study in the context of previous research. Alternative explanations of observed relationships and limitations of the study are also discussed.

Footnotes

[1]Locke cited the existence of 3,350 references on job satisfaction in 1976. Based upon a literature search, he further suggests that approximately 111 new articles are written per year.

[2]Content factors refer to dimensions of the job that are intrinsic, the individual's satisfaction with the actual job performed (e.g., recognition, variety, and involvement). Context factors are those dimensions of the job that are extrinsic or environmental (e.g., pay, security, and supervision).

[3]The Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972 extended the jurisdiction of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission to include public employers with 15 or more employees.

[4]In Griggs, the U. S. Supreme Court held that tests given as a basis for obtaining employment must be job related.

[5]For an explication of the role and functions of police, see Goldstain (1977).

[6]Lawler & Porter (1967) suggest that there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and productivity. However, the relationship is complex and dependent upon those aspects of the job that are satisfying being intimately related to productivity.

[7]Hypotheses are restated in testable form in Chapter Three.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

As previously noted, a voluminous amount of material has been published on job satisfaction. The text of this chapter represents an effort to: (a) place the study of work and job satisfaction into historical perspective, (b) summarize the results of selected studies thought to be representative of the general findings in job satisfaction research and, (c) describe in detail the results of studies which have focused on the relationship between age, tenure, and job satisfaction.

An Historical Perspective

Throughout history work has been viewed from a variety of different perspectives. Some early civilizations (e.g., Greeks and Hebrews) regarded work as a curse because it took time away from thinking and other aesthetic experiences. Conversely, work was emphasized by the guild system and religion in Europe during the middle ages. Under these conditions the practice of work tended to unite the worker, the family, and the religion (Beach, 1975; Heisler & Houck, 1977). With the industrial revolution, however, came major changes to the activity known as work. It no longer tended to involve family members, became increasingly segmented, and lost much of its intrinsic value (Heisler & Houck, 1977). During this time period men such as Adam Smith, Emile Durkheim, and Karl Marx began to express concern about the debasing effects of industrialization upon the worker. In the words of

Marx, "division of labor perfects the worker, but degrades the man" (cited in Heisler & Houck, 1977, p. 52). Despite such warnings, the primary focus of researchers during this era continued to be on productivity. Foremost in this regard was Fredrick W. Taylor,' who is considered to be the father of the first school or organizational theory developed in this country (viz., the classical school also known as scientific management). The thrust of his thinking was to increase productivity by examining and improving technical features of the work. Taylor (1.912) espoused finding the one best and simplest way to perform each task and he believed that workers responded primarily to economic incentives (i.e., rational man). He implicitly assumed that the most satisfied and productive workers would be those who received the highest earnings with the least amount of fatigue (Locke, 1976).

Investigation of fatigue reduction and other environmental factors, which had been a primary concern of Taylor and others (e.g., Gilbreth), continued well into the 1930s and beyond (Locke, 1976; Swanson & Territo, 1983). However, the next major development of historical significance in the study of job satisfaction was the Hawthorne studies (see Roethlisberger, 1941) conducted during the 1920s and 1930s. These studies prompted the human relations school of management thought, which shaped the trend for research and thinking in job satisfaction and other management related issues well into the 1960s. Born at least in part out of adverse reaction to authoritarian and task oriented practices of the classical school, the human relations school stressed the role of social phenomena in determining employee satisfaction and productivity (i.e., social man). The role of economic incentives were also downgraded by human relations theorists who

asserted that satisfaction and motivation were more a function of social relationships than money. Yet another assumption of the human relations school was that higher job satisfaction would lead to higher productivity (Gruneberg, 1979).

Both scientific management and the human relations school dealt with the concept of job satisfaction as part of a larger and more encompassing management philosophy. The first in-depth study of job satisfaction per se, was published by Hoppock in 1935. This classic work was not oriented toward any particular management theory, rather, it suggested that job satisfaction was the result of a multiplicity of factors. Some factors had been studied previously (e.g., fatigue, monotony, working conditions, supervision), while others would only be discovered later (e.g., achievement). Hoppock's study also marked the beginning of what has been termed the traditional approach to the study of job satisfaction. With this approach it is assumed that if the presence of a variable leads to satisfaction, then its absence would lead to dissatisfaction, and vice versa (Gruneberg, 1979). Although the Hawthorne studies shaped the trend for research during the 1940s and 1950s, Lock (1976) suggests that it was an outgrowth of Hoppock's work, and the leadership-studies of World War II that largely sustained-the human relations movement.

The next major shift in job satisfaction research and thinking began in 1959 when Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman challenged the human relations view by proposing the motivation-hygiene theory. This signaled the beginning of a new trend in job satisfaction research and organizational theory by refocused attention on the work itself. This approach, which has the interest of most contemporary researchers,

asserts that job satisfaction can only occur when the worker is allowed to grow and mature mentally. Much of the recent study in this regard has examined the effects of work design (see Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Although enhancing productivity remains the primary goal of most studies, a growing number of researchers appear to be motivated by humanistic concerns for the health, welfare, and happiness of workers.

In conclusion, three different schools or historical trends can be identified pertaining to the study of job satisfaction.[2] Each trend, except the first one, grew largely out of adverse reaction to the previous one, and coincided with a more universal trend in organizational theory. While the work itself or growth school is most in vogue at present, a philosophy of synthesis is apparent among most investigators. As Gruneberg (1979) noted, there are few present day researchers who would be willing to adhere totally to any one of the schools that have been proposed. It is generally acknowledged that job satisfaction can be affected by the physical design of the job, social relationships, pay, supervision, and numerous other variables.

Theories of Job Satisfaction

As the focus of job satisfaction research has changed over the years, different theories have been offered to explain the phenomenon. In line with more general theories of individual motivation, theories of job satisfaction can be placed in one of two categories: (a) content theories or (b) process theories (Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, & Weick, 1970). Content or applied theories of job satisfaction (e.g., Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Argyris' immaturity-maturity theory, & Herzberg's motivation-hygiene cycle) attempt to specify "what" particular needs,

values, or expectations must be attained for an individual to be satisfied with his or her job (Gruneberg, 1979; Locke, 1976). Process or causal theories of job satisfaction (e.g., Festinger's theory of cognitive dissonance and Vroom's expectancy theory) attempt to specify the types or classes of variables (needs, values, expectancies, perceptions, etc.) that are considered to be causally relevant, as well as "how" these variables interact to determine overall job satisfaction (Locke, 1976).

Maslow's hierarchy of needs and its development by Herzberg into the motivation-hygiene theory represent what are perhaps the most popular content theory account of job satisfaction. Maslow (1943, 1970) postulated the existence of five broad classes of individual needs that are arranged in an ascending hierarchy of prepotency or importance. According to Maslow, the less prepotent needs are neither desired or sought until the more prepotent needs are satisfied or filled. Thus, the most important need will tend to monopolize the consciousness and capacities of the organism until satisfied. The lowest and most basic needs according to Maslow are physiological. These include food, warmth, elimination, water, sleep, and other bodily necessities. The second, safety needs, are concerned with actual physical safety as well as feeling safe from physical and emotional injury. Third in the hierarchy are the needs for belonging and love. These include needs to feel part of a group and to belong to and with other people. According to Maslow, this is the first level of social needs. The fourth level includes needs for self-esteem or ego and is divided into two subsets: (a) needs for feelings of personal worth, competence, and adequacy, and (b) needs for respect, admiration, recognition, and status in the eyes

of others.   The fifth and highest level of needs are those of
self-actualization or self-realization.   This can be generally described
as a process whereby one realizes the true self, and works toward
expression of the self.

Although **Maslow** did not develop a specific theory of job
satisfaction **or** work motivation as such, the implications of his theory
in this regard are obvious.   The optimal job environment for a given
individual would be one that most closely meets his or her needs at that
time **(Locke,** 1976).   While **Maslow's** theory does appear to make a great
deal of **intuitive** sense, major criticisms include no evidence that a
hierarchy of needs actually exists, and that individual needs, even at
the lower levels, are not satisfied by a single act (Locke, 1976).
Despite such criticisms, there is evidence that the theory can account
for at least some findings associated with job satisfaction (Gruneberg,
1979).

Related to **Maslow's** hierarchy of needs is Herzberg's motivation
hygiene theory.   Herzberg (1967) distinguished two types of variables
that affect job satisfaction.   The job content characteristics which
produce satisfaction are considered motivators because they satisfy the
individual's ego and growth needs.   The job environment characteristics
are considered to be hygienic because they are work supporting or
preventative.   By separating the factors involved, Herzberg argued that
job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are separate and distinct.
Factors such as pay, security, supervision, company policy, and working
conditions are considered hygienic and may create dissatisfaction but
have little to do with satisfaction.   Conversely, factors such as

achievement, recognition, responsibility, and growth are considered to be the true motivators and determinants of the degree of job satisfaction.

Arguments for and against the motivation–hygiene theory are numerous. Several researchers have challenged **it** on the grounds that **it** is method bound. When using the critical incident technique, as Herzberg did, confirmatory research has tended to support the theory. When other methods were employed, however, there were consistent failures to confirm the theory (**Ewen,** Smith, Hulin, & Locke, 1966; Vroom, 1964). Herzberg has also been criticized for minimizing or denying the existence of individual differences among employees as to reported sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Locke, **(1976).** Conversely, several studies (**e.g.,** Hulin & Blood, 1968) have suggested that individual and cultural factors influence what a person seeks from work. In fact, for some individuals and groups, money may be the most important aspect of the job (Gruneberg, 1979). Whatever the defects of the motivation–hygiene theory, most scholars recognize **Herzberg's** work as a major contribution to the underst-anding of job satisfaction. This contribution stems primarily from the **interest** he inspired in the study of work itself and the importance of psychological growth, as **precon**-ditions of job satisfaction.

In contrast to the content theories, that address "what" causes job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, are a number of process theories which attempt to specify causally relevant variables and explain "how" these variables interact to determine job satisfaction. Although differences exist among many of the process theories, they can generally be placed into one of two categories. First, are the theories that view

job satisfaction as dependent upon the amount of discrepancy between what the worker expects and what the worker attains. Second, are the theories that view job satisfaction as resulting from the amount of individual need or value attainment allowed by the job (Gruneberg, 1979; Locke, 1976).

Equity theory and expectancy theory are probably the best known examples of the first type. The central theme of equity theory in relation to job satisfaction is that each individual has a perception (psychological contract) of what is a fair reward (outcome) for a given amount of effort or work (input). This perception is established by comparing one's input to outcome ratio with that of other employees who are considered peers. When an acceptable ratio does not exist, the person will attempt to restore it by working more or less efficiently, or by trying to obtain greater rewards. Only when the output/income ratio seems reasonable is there likely to be job satisfaction (Gannon, 1977; Mortimer, 1979). Similar in many respects to equity theory, is expectancy theory. According to this expectancy theory, an individual will feel satisfaction if they believe their efforts will result in desired outcomes (Swank & Conser, 1983). Desired outcomes can be intrinsic rewards, -such as interesting work, and/or extrinsic rewards, such as better working conditions (Gannon, 1977).

Theories based on the principles of equity and expectancy are favored by many researchers (see Gannon, 1977; Porter et al., 1975).[3] Much of the popularity can be attributed to these theories' being more quantifiable, which enhances their usefulness for scientific inquiry. This can also be a disadvantage, however, it is often difficult to accurately translate complex human emotions and attitudes into

numbers. Locke (1976) criticized some studies that have attempted to relate expectancies to satisfaction on the basis that individual values or needs (e.g., goals, desires, and aspirations) account for a greater portion of self-perceived job satisfaction than expectancies do. He further suggested that many expectancy based studies have failed to adequately control for the effects of values or needs. As is the case with other theories, those based on equity and expectancy seem to account for some aspects of job satisfaction, but not others (Folger, Rosenfield, & Hays, 1978; Gruneberg, 1979).

The second category of process theories views job satisfaction as a function of haw well, or how poorly the job allows attainment of individual needs or values.[4] Clearly, individuals differ in what they need or value in a job. The intent of need fulfillment theorists has been to examine the ways such differences affect job satisfaction.

Vroom (1964) proposed two forms of the need fulfillment theory. With the subtractive model he suggested that job satisfaction was negatively related to the amount of difference between what the person needs or values, and the extent to which the job provides these needs. The greater the congruence between need content and need provided, the greater the satisfaction, and vice versa. A major problem with the model is that all needs are given equal weight or value, thus, the effect of individual need or value importance is ignored (Locke, 1976). Vroom (1964) further argued for a second model of need fnlfillment, known as the multiplicative model. Here, the self-perceived amount of need or value fulfillment offered by the job is multiplied by the importance of that need to the individual. The products of each need are then added together to provide an overall measure of job

satisfaction. This model also has shortcomings, but would appear to provide a more accurate measure of overall job satisfaction than the subtractive model. As Locke (1976) pointed out, the multiplicative model fails to distinguish between the amount of the need or value desired by the person and how much the person wants that amount. For example, a police officer may want a $50,000 per year salary, but being realistic, not want it very badly. Conversely, the officer may very much want to be a detective, but for a relatively short period of time. Other problems with the multiplicative model can occur during measurement. When subjects are asked to rate the amount of the value or need provided they may implicitly weigh it by importance; similarly, subjects asked to rate importance may include a rating of amount provided (Locke, 1976). Some theorists have attempted to integrate the subtractive and multiplicative models. Locke (1976) has proposed the fallowing: $S = (Vc - P) \times Vi$ where S stands for satisfaction, Vc stands for value or need content, P stands for perceived amount of value or need provided by the job, and Vi stands for value importance. Some implications of this formula present problems as well. Most significant, perhaps, is the idea that only single values are addressed, whereas most reactions to work are believed to be the result of multiple value or need appraisals (Locke, 1976). As is true with other theories of job satisfaction, those dealing with need or value attainment appear to provide only a partial explanation.

In summary, the literature suggests that there are essentially two categories of job satisfaction theory. First, are the content theories which attempt to account for "what" needs, values, or expectations must be attained if the worker is to find satisfaction with

the job. Second, are the process theories that try to specify the classes of variables that are relevant and explain "how" these variables interact to determine job satisfaction. Additionally, content theories seem to more or less suggest a deterministic view of people, while process theories emphasize the cognitive dimension wherein humans are assumed to have the ability to make conscious decisions about work after weighing the importance and probability of obtaining future outcomes. Content theories are more applicable, but less measurable. Process theories, on the other hand, lend themselves to quantification, but are more difficult to apply (Swank & Conser, 1983). Finally, both types af theories have been criticized because they tend to be static, looking at job satisfaction at only one point in time (Gruneberg, 1979). Indeed, many theorists view job satisfaction as a constant adaptation to changing situations and changing values, needs or expectations (Gruneberg, 1979).

Despite the intuitive appeal of some theories and empirical support for others, there is presently no universally accepted overall theory of job satisfaction that can account for all of the phenomena all of the time. In some situations, expectations appear to provide the most fruitful approach, in other situations values, needs, cultural factors, or other variables may suggest a more complete explanation.

Causal Factors in Job Satisfaction

What do workers want out of their jobs? Major findings of prior studies that have attempted to answer this complex question will be summarized in this section. Relevant factors are grouped and discussed

under the headings of job content (i.e., intrinsic facets of the job itself), job context (i.e., extrinsic or environmental aspects), and individual considerations.

As noted previously, the current trend in job satisfaction research focuses attention primarily on the work itself with the objective of allowing the employee greater opportunities for mental growth and development. In many respects, this trend represents the content or intrinsic factors of work which are roughly synonymous with what Herzberg (1967) termed "motivators." Job content variables that have been examined and found to be related to job satisfaction include: feelings of success, opportunity to use valued skills and abilities, recognition, involvement, variety, difficulty, amount of work, responsibility, autonomy, job enrichment, and complexity (Gruneberg, 1979; Locke, 1976; Quinn & Cobb, 1974). While each of these factors is unique, they do share a common element, namely, the use of mental or cognitive skills. Logically, studies in this area have focused on the degree to which employees perceive their jobs to be psychologically challenging and rewarding, as well as the ways these perceptions are manifest in terms of behavior.

Hoppock (1935) was one of the first to empirically document a relationship between a job content variable (viz., individual feelings of success) and satisfaction. Similar findings were reported with greater frequency during the 1950s and 1960s (see Herzberg, [5] 1967; Vroom, 1964; Walker & Guest, 1952). During the past 20 years scores of studies have been conducted which clearly establish job content factors as important determinants of satisfaction (e.g., Beach, 1975; Gardell, 1977; Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Locke, 1976; Porter et al., 1975). In

fact, in societies such as ours where physiological and safety needs are largely met for most segments of the population, many experts believe that content factors are the major determinant of job satisfaction (Gruneberg, 1979).

Although much of the recent study in work motivation and satisfaction has concentrated on intrinsic or content factors, few investigators would deny the importance of context or extrinsic factors as well. Even Herzberg (1967) acknowledged the importance of such factors, as they may create "dissatisfaction" and prevent workers from concentrating on aspects of the job which are potentially fulfilling. Content factors which appear to be related to employee feelings about work include: pay, fringe benefits, security, promotion, co-workers, supervision, role conflict and ambiguity, organizational structure and climate, participation, and working conditions. Of these ten variables, four (viz., pay, promotion, supervision, and co-workers) have been subjected to the most research and have quite consistently emerged as being the most important to American workers (Quinn & Cobb, 1974; Smith et al., 1975; & Vroom, 1964).

It should come as no surprise that conflicting evidence exists about the importance of pay as a determinant of job satisfaction=- Based on an extensive review of the literature, Lawler (1971) reported pay to be the job aspect that most employees expressed dissatisfaction with, yet, on the average it was ranked third in importance among job facets. Much of the difficulty in acccurately assessing the significance of pay can be attributed to the numerous and complex ways that it can motivate and satisfy different individuals. Some theorists even suggest that it is futile to search for a universal determinant of pay satisfaction

(Gruneberg, 1979). Nonetheless, it is generally appreciated that pay is much more than simply a means of satisfying physical needs. It also serves as a symbol of achievement, as a source of recognition, as a status symbol, as a means of security, and as a vehicle for obtaining other things of value such as leisure time (Locke, 1976). In fact, since it has no intrinsic meaning of its own, pay can symbolize whatever the person wants it to symbolize. (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). Employee satisfaction with pay also appears to be affected by the content of the job, as well as individual factors. In general, pay is likely to have greater importance for employees who cannot obtain other forms of satisfaction from the job (Gruneberg, 1979). McClelland (1967) summarized the importance of pay as motivator and source of job satisfaction by stating that it is only one factor among many. He also warned that money is a treacherous tool because it is "deceptively concrete, often tempting managers, and workers as well, to overlook other variables that are potentially more important" (p. 120).

Unlike pay, which can be administered on a group or individual basis, promotions must usually be dealt with on an individual basis only. Locke (1976) suggests that the roots of one's desire for promotion include:. psychological growth, justice (if one feels he or she has earned the promotion), higher earnings, and social status. For upwardly mobile people, promotion does appear to be an important determinant of job satisfaction. Porter et al. (1975) suggested that promotions and pay were the two most valued extrinsic rewards an organization can give. Similarly, Hersey and Blanchard (1982) reported an increasing desire among employees for promotional opportunities, and,

Hopkins (1983) found promotions to be an important issue among state employees. Thus, the literature clearly supports the conclusion that promotional opportunities are related to job satisfaction for most people. [6]

Interest in the effects of supervision and co-workers on job satisfaction can be traced to the Hawthorne experiments (see Roethlisberger, 1941). In studies where employees were asked to rank aspects of job satisfaction by significance, both supervision and co-workers have generally been placed in the middle (i.e., not as important as wages and interesting work, but more important than such factors as working conditions and communication) (Bopp, 1974). [7] [8] Pertaining to supervision, Stogdill (1974) concluded, based on review of 30 studies, that followers generally feel more satisfaction under a considerate or people-oriented leader. It has also been established, however, that different individuals and groups seem to prefer or expect different behavior or styles from their supervisor. Several studies have shown task-oriented leadership to be resented by unskilled and semi-skilled workers, but positively related to satisfaction and performance among higher level employees[9] (Gruneberg, 1979; House, 1971). Such findings imply that in some situations the pleasantness of the supervisor_may be of secondary importance to accomplishing assigned tasks.

As with supervision, the importance of friendly co-workers and harmonious social relationships on the job have been well established as salient factors in job satisfaction. According to Maslow, social interaction or "belongingness" is one of the basic human needs. Gruneberg (1979) asserts that social interaction is one of the key mechanisms through which people receive many of life's pleasures, and

that the work situation is a significant part of one's social interaction. Such an observation seems accurate given the importance of work in most people's lives, and because people spend a significant amount of time at work. Gruneberg (1979) also suggests individuals find work groups satisfying for the following reasons: friendship, cooperating with others to achieve a common goal, feeling valued by others, and the protection afforded against outside threats. Aside from the Hawthorne experiments, several studies have demonstrated the importance of social relationships to job satisfaction. A classic study is Van Zelst's (1952) work, which showed quite clearly that when employees are allowed to increase social satisfaction derived from work there is a corresponding increase in job satisfaction. As with other job facets, the importance of co-workers and social relationships appear to be situational. Some studies suggest that close social relationships are more important in less skilled work groups (Gruneberg, 1979).

In summarizing the importance of job context characteristics in relation to each other, and in relation to job content characteristics, the literature suggests a complex situational association. It would be a gross error to understate the importance of intrinsic factors as determinants of job satisfaction. It would be equally unwise to-- underestimate the importance of extrinsic considerations, as there is strong evidence suggesting economic benefits and other extrinsic rewards remain highly important to both white and blue collar workers alike (Mortimer, 1979).

Individual differences were frequently brought up in the preceding discussion of intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of work. Such differences are often the only factor that seems to account for the

contradictory and inconsistent evidence sometimes reported. It is not surprising that job satisfaction is affected by personal factors since each individual is unique. Hopkins (1983) cited three salient aspects of the person that affect work: (a) psychological orientation (i.e., views of life, etc.), (b) job orientations (i.e., view of the job and its environment), and (c) personal attributes (e.g., age, sex, and race). Prior studies of individual factors related to job satisfaction seem to have focused most on personal attributes. In fact, Locke (1976) asserts that some of the most unresearched areas of job attitudes pertain to the ways individuals view themselves, and the ways these views affect what is expected and what is satisfying from the job. Personality, cultural background, education, age, sex, and tenure, are the individual factors that have been examined most frequently in relation to job satisfaction. The results of studies in these areas are enlightening. Slocum and Topichak (1972) found that Mexican workers were more satisfied than American workers with similar jobs. Of related interest is Hulin's (1966) study which showed that employed workers in economically depressed communities were more satisfied than employed workers in more prosperous communities. Of related interest, Quinn, Staines, and McCullouch (1974) also reported particularly low job. satisfaction among employees who attended college but did not graduate (cited in Mortimer, 1979). In addition, Gruneberg (1979) pointed out that not everyone wants a job which is psychologically fulfilling; some prefer jobs with the highest financial returns. Indeed, what one individual or group may want in terms of work is often different from that of another.

The recognition of such differences has caused some investigators to view job satisfaction, at least in part, as a function of the proper **"fit"** between the employee and the work (Locke, 1976; Mortimer, 1979). The **"fit"** philosophy places emphasis on the compatibility of internal individual attributes and external work features. The difference between workers in what they seek from the job is seen as the overriding factor influencing satisfaction (Locke, 1976). While noting some methodological weaknesses, French **(1974)** reported a fairly strong relationship between the "fit" hypothesis and various symptoms of psychological **stress.**

Despite findings such as those noted previously, the collective results of prior research pertaining to individual factors shows less consistency and are generally considered less meaningful than findings in other areas of job satisfaction **(Gruneberg,** 1979). Moreover, there is some support for the position that individual and social characteristics are not as important in explaining job satisfaction, as other aspects of the work environment (see Mortimer, 1979; **Newman,** 1975).

The more extensive the review of causal factors, the more apparent **it** becomes that job satisfaction is the result of a complex mix of many interdependent and changing variables of the job and the person. This view is supported by numerous studies that have examined the combinations of job factors which are most important to American workers. For example, in a study conducted by Quinn and Cobb **(1974),** factor analysis was used to assess the importance of 25 job facets. Five dimensions of work were interpreted as being significant **(viz.,** comfort, challenge, financial rewards, relations with co-workers, and

resources).   Smith et al (1975) also conducted a comprehensive investigation of causal factors in job satisfaction.[10]   The variables which emerged most consistently in this study were: a general factor, pay and material rewards, supervision, promotion, and other workers on the job.   Yet another example, is a recent five-state study of public employees.   Here, the variables reported to be most predictive of job satisfaction were job quality (content), promotion, and supervision (Hopkins, 1983).   It seems obvious that none of the causal factors in job satisfaction (viz., content, context, or individual) can be considered in isolation.   Most workers simply do not conform to abstract classification schemes that have sometimes been offered to explain their desires (e.g., economic man vs. self-actualizing man).

Trends in the Distribution of Job Satisfaction

The distribution of job satisfaction among workers is important as an indicator of social health (Hopkins, 1983; Seashore & Taber, 1975; Kahn, 1972).   Briefly discussed here, are trends and changes in the distribution of job satisfaction among American workers.

Based on a review of prior studies, Hoppock concluded in 1935 that approximately one-third of the workers were dissatisfied with their jobs.   But efforts to periodically monitor the distribution of job satisfaction for evidence of longitudinal change, did not begin until 1958.   Since then, national worker surveys and Gallup polls have consistently reported positive job satisfaction responses of between 80% and 90% (Beach, 1975).   For example, approximately 90% of the work force indicated that they were at least somewhat satisfied with their jobs in 1973 (Mortimer, 1979).   Similarly, Hopkins (1983) reported 85% to 90% of

state public employees to be satisfied with their jobs. However, many of the data discussed were collected using direct single item Likert type questions (i.e., "All in all., how satisfied would you say you are with your job?") (Mortimer, 1979, p. 9). This methodology has been criticized by many investigators as being of questionable validity. Kahn (1972) argued that the concept of job satisfaction strikes too closely at one's self-esteem to be answered directly. Similarly, Beach (1975) suggested that workers who reported being "satisfied" on direct single item surveys, were really saying that they were not "dissatisfied" in Herzbergian terms (i.e., pay, security, work conditions, etc., are satisfactory).

More sophisticated multi-item instruments (e.g., University of Michigan Survey of Working Conditions; Quality of Employment Survey) that have been used since 1969, seem to question the consistent trend of high job satisfaction previously reported. For example, when a cross section of white collar workers (including professionals) were asked "What type of work would you try to get into if you could start all over again?" only 43% indicated that they would voluntarily choose the same work (Beach, 1975, p. 56). Moreover, only 24% of the blue collar workers surveyed reported that they would choose the same kind of work if given another chance. Even more alarming are some indications that job satisfaction may be declining. Comparison of the 1973 and 1977 Quality of Employment Surveys reveal substantial declines in overall satisfaction.[11] Specifically, workers report higher dissatisfaction with: (a) the amount of challenge and interest encountered in the job, (b) pay and fringe benefits, (c) job security, (d) chances for promotion and, (e) comfort factors (Quinn & Staines, 1979). While most pronounced

among younger workers aged 21 to 44 and among college graduates, higher dissatisfaction was reported among many other segments of the population as well.

Mortimer (1979) examined factors which might explain the causes of this apparent decline, and concluded that while there is little support for the contention that external features of work (i.e., economic rewards, health and safety, time demands, etc.) actually deteriorated between 1973 and 1977, there is evidence of decline in the degree of "fit" between employee needs, values, and capacities, and the work experiences they encounter. However, a demographic factor may provide a partial explanation for the decline. From several studies conducted during the past 50 years (see Gruneberg, 1979; Hunt & Saul, 1975), it has been fairly well established that younger workers are generally less satisfied than older workers. As a result of the post World War II "baby boom", a higher number of yocnger workers (aged 21-44) now make up the work force. Thus, the overall distribution of job satisfaction may be lower simply because a greater portion of the labor force is young. This factor should not overshadow the possibility that feelings of dissatisfaction among workers are stronger than before, however. Beach (1975) suggested that today's young workers are seeking much more from their jobs than previous generations did. Similarly, Yankelovich (1979) attributes higher dissatisfaction among younger employees to an increasing "psychology of entitlements" whereby wants are converted into rights (cited in Mortimer, 1979).[12]

In view of these findings, at least four conclusions can be made pertaining to trends and changes in the distribution of job satis-faction. First, when considered objectively, both extrinsic and

intrinsic aspects of work have shown a trend of slow and consistent and improvement during the past 50 years. Second, due to such factors as a higher overall standard of living, the effects of mass media, and greater educational opportunities, the subjective expectations of many workers may be rising faster than the economic system and other dimensions of the work environment can meet them. Third, higher levels of job dissatisfaction reported among younger workers should moderate as they grow older (see Wright & Hamilton, 1978). Fourth, the newer multi-item instruments used to assess job satisfaction appear to measure different aspects of this complex phenomenon than the older and more general direct response instruments did (see Wanous and Lawler, 1972).

Age, Tenure, and Job Satisfaction

In spite of the obvious relationship between age and tenure, these variables are conceptually different and seem to affect job satisfaction in different ways (Gibson & Klein, 1970). A classic work that examined the association between these variables and job satisfaction was published by Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell in 1957 (cited in Hunt & Saul, 1975). Herzberg et al.,[13] suggested a curvilinear or U-shaped relationship between age and job satisfaction, and between tenure and job satisfaction. Accordingly, satisfaction would be high when people begin their first job, but decline with increasing age and tenure up to some point, and then rise again until retirement. Efforts to test Herzberg's position has prompted several studies during the past 25 years. Findings pertaining to the relationship of age, tenure, and job satisfaction are reported in this section.

Contrary to the curvilinear description offered by Herzberg et al., the majority of more recent studies suggest a positive linear relationship between age and job satisfaction. For example, the results of a three-year nationwide survey of full-time workers age 18 and older, revealed a moderate but consistent positive correlation between age and job satisfaction for both males and females[14] (Glenn, Taylor, & Weaver, 1977). Similarly, Hopkins (1983) reported a significant positive relationship among state public employees. Findings of the above studies have been largely supported by other research (see Gibson & Klein, 1970; Hunt & Saul, 1975).

Related to age, is the issue of tenure and job satisfaction. The consensus of empirical research in this area is less clear. While the majority of studies (e.g., Hunt & Saul, 1975) have reported a positive correlation between tenure and job satisfaction, conflicting evidence exists as well. For example, a negative association between satisfaction and tenure was reported among blue collar manufacturing workers up to 12 years of service (Gibson & Klein, 1970). Additionally, job satisfaction was found to be more strongly associated with tenure than age among female white collar workers, whereas the opposite held true for male white collar workers (Hunt & Saul, 1975).

Several theorists have attempted to explain the relationship between age, tenure, and job satisfaction. Herzberg et al., (1957) supported the curvilinear hypothesis by suggesting that job satisfaction declines initially when work expectations are not met, but rises later as more realistic and attainable expectations are established, and as maturity and work experience increases (cited in Hunt & Saul, 1975).

More **recent accounts** of the age-job satisfaction relationship discuss three possible explanations for the tendency of older workers to be more satisfied. The first explanation suggests that the younger generation of workers subscribes to different values and are demanding more from their jobs than did workers of previous generations. Key features here inclnde a general decline in economic insecurity, more of a willingness to question authority, and an escalating "psychology of entitlements," whereby wants are converted into rights (Yankelovich, 1979). Accordingly, **it is** argued that lower job satisfaction exists among younger workers because the values and orientations noted above are **ill-**suited for our economic system, which **is** based on acceptance of authority and traditional rewards such as pay and job security. **A** second explanation assumes that each new generation enters the world of work with high expectations, but, over the years these expectations are progressively lowered as their **attainment** becomes more difficult. As a result, older workers are more satisfied with less (Campbell, Converse, & Rogers, **1976).** The final explanation suggests older workers are more satisfied with their jobs simply because they have better jobs. Unlike the two previous explanations, this one relies neither on the wearing down of older workers or revolutionary youth to explain the age-job satisfaction relationship. The rationale for this explanation **is** simply that younger workers normally start at the bottom of the career ladder and are confined to less rewarding and satisfying positions. However, with increasing age, seniority, knowledge, and experience younger workers grow **into** more rewarding and satisfying positions, with corresponding increases in job satisfaction.

Wright and Hamilton (1978) used data from the 1972-73 Quality of Employment Survey[15] to compare the three explanations cited previously. Results of their comparison can be summarized as follows:

1.   As with previous studies, the data shows that job satis-fction increases with age.   Moreover, age was a better predictor of job satisfaction that social class (i.e., white collar and blue collar categories).

2.   Generational differences in job values appear to have been overstated.   In general, it was the older workers who attached greater importance to freedom and autonomy in work.

3.   Chances for promotion was the most important extrinsic feature among workers under age 30.   In contrast, promotion was rated low among older workers.   Additionally, the importance of job security, fringe benefits, and good work hours was rated low among young workers, and tended to increase with age.

Based on these and other findings the authors concluded that older workers are more satisfied primarily because they have better jobs, so long as better is defined in terms of what people themselves say is important in their work.

Pertaining to the relationship between tenure and job satisfaction many theorists have suggested that individual perspectives on various aspects of work are always in stages of revision and negotiation as one passes through a career, yet, few empirical studies exist to explain what these changes might be.   The most frequently cited study in this area was conducted by Van Mannen and Katz (1976) for the purpose of determining career stages and comparing patterns across different public sector occupations,   Here, the relationship between

tenure and job satisfaction differed significantly across careers. Overall job satisfction among administrative and professional employees remained relatively constant up to the eleventh year of service, declined from the eleventh through the twentieth years, and then showed a steady trend of increase for the remainder of the career. Conversely, clerical and maintenance employees displayed a consistent trend of increasing job satisfaction throughout their careers. Despite such findings the authors did not draw firm conclusions due to the cross-sectional research design that was employed.

As with other aspects of job satisfaction, its relationship to age and tenure is somewhat obscure. In this regard the observations of Hunt and Saul (1975) are worth noting. "The research has highlighted the impracticality of attempting to develop a simple statement of the relationship between criteria of job satisfaction and employee age and tenure in an organization...(p. 702). Additionally, the use of cross-sectional data to analyze what is essentially a longitudinal phenomenon must be noted as an inherent shortcoming to understanding the true relationship between age, tenure, and job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction Among Police Personnel

Collectively, there are thousands of studies on job satis-faction, yet, only a few pertain to police officers. Discussed here are three studies which summarize the current state of job satisfction research among police personnel.

A recent study explored self-perceived levels of job satisfaction among 170 officers in Oakland, California and in Detroit, Michigan. The author drew three conclusions. First, intervening

variables, such as administrative policies, significantly affect job satisfaction. Second, most officers do not appear greatly dissatisfied with tangible benefits (where dissatisfaction did exist, it focused on the lack of advancement opportunities). Third, the more educated officers in Oakland expressed the most job satisfaction, while in Detroit no such correlation appeared (Buzawa, 1984).

The relationship between job satisfaction and stress among police personnel seems to have guided much of the prior research. A survey of 99 officers from a Midwestern city police department was conducted to examine the correlation between job satisfaction, role stress, and supervisory behavior. Results of the study showed role stress to be strongly associated with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and numerous other attitudes. Evidence was also presented suggesting what enhances structure on the part of the supervisor is welcomed by stressed police personnel to the extent that it defines how tasks are to be accomplished (Aldag & Brief, 1978).

Cynicism has also been examined in relation to job satisfaction. One hundred seventy-five police officers from four nations (viz., England, Australia, Canada, and the United States) were surveyed in this regard. As hypothesized, in all four nations job satisfaction was found to be higher among officers who held less cynical attitudes (Lester, Butler, Dalley, Lewis, & Swanton, 1982). However, Khoury and Khoury (1982) found no meaningful relationship between job satisfaction and altruism (an orientation toward helping people even when there is nothing personal to be gained).

In summary, there is a limited amount of literature pertaining to job satisfaction among police personnel, and none of the published

findings specifically addressed age or tenure. What little work has been done, however, does appear to be broadly consistent with more generally accepted findings. Obviously, a great deal of work remains to be done.

Summary

The practice of work is as old as man, however, the study of job satisfaction has been a relatively recent endeavor. An enormous output of research on the nature, causes, and correlates of job satisfaction has occurred during the last sixty years. Three schools of thought have provided the basis for most research (viz., scientific management, human relations, and work itself or growth). Two categories of job satisfaction theory have also been offered to explain the phenomenon. First, are the process theories that attempt to specify the classes of variables that are relevant, and explain "how" they interact. Second, are the content theories which address "what" needs, values, or expectations must be attained to achieve job satisfaction. At present, however, there is no generally accepted overall theory of job satisfaction, and some investigators believe that no single theory can account for all the behaviors associated with job satisfaction.

Causal factors in job satisfaction were grouped and discussed under the headings of job content (i.e., intrinsic facets of the job itself), job context (i.e., extrinsic or environmental aspects), and individual considerations. While much of the recent study has focused on content factors, collective findings clearly point out the importance of content and individual considerations as well. Indeed, job

satisfaction does appear to result from a complex mix of interdependent and changing variables of the job and the person.

Evidence pertaining to the distribution of job satisfaction is to say the least, controversial. When considered objectively, both intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of most jobs have shown a trend of improvement during the past 50 years, yet, there is evidence suggesting a general trend of declining job satisfaction (Beach, 1975). Factors offered to explain this decline include worker expectations rising faster than the economic system can meet them, and a higher number of younger workers in the labor force as a result of the post World War II "baby boom". Another important consideration is the difference between older direct response instruments and newer multi-item instruments. As with other seemingly inconsistent aspects of job satisfaction, the literature does not present a clear picture of past or present distribution trends. The continued use of longitudinal measures and multi-item instruments should make future distribution data more meaningful.

Interest in the relationship between age, tenure, and job satisfaction can be traced to the work of Herzberg et al. (1957). Contrary to Herzberg's hypothesis of curvilinearity, the general consensus of more recent study is that a positive linear correlation exists between age and job satisfactian, and between tenure and job satisfaction.

Regrettably, literature pertaining to job satisfaction among police personnel is limited and observers must rely largely on findings from other occupational groups. Further, the generalizability of such

information may be questionable due to the situational nature of job satisfaction.

In conclusion, the literature discussed in this chapter presents a collective picture of job satisfaction research that appears vague, often disjointed, and frequently contradictory. The difficulty inherent to conducting research in this area may explain some of the inconsistencies, however, it is also clear that the phenomenon under investigation is extremely complex. As Gruneberg (1979) points out, in a field as complex as job satisfaction it may well be that no single theory or factor can account for all the behavior all the time. Despite such shortcomings, numerous practical and empirical benefits have resulted from job satisfaction research.

Footnotes

[1]Frederick W. Taylor made his last public appearance March 4, 1915, at Youngstown, Ohio. He died approximately two weeks later.

[2]This is overly simplistic in many respects, however, it provides a useful framework for summarizing major historical trends.

[3]Porter, et al. (1975) suggest that job satisfaction is determined by the difference between the amount of some valued outcome that a person receives, and what that person feels should be received. Gannon (1977) also supports the basic model of expectancy theory and suggests that other theories (e.g., Maslow's need hierarchy, McClelland's achievement motivation theory, Herzberg's motivation hygiene theory, and Festinger's theory of cognitive dissonance) lend support to the principles of equity theory.

[4]As is the case in most of the literature, the terms "need" and "value" are used synonymously here. Some reseachers do, however, draw clear distinctions between their terms and view one or the other as being the more direct determinant of job satisfaction. An example is Locke (1976) who defines needs as "objective requirements of an organism's survival and well being." (p. 1303) A value, on the other hand, is "what a person consciously or subconsciously desires, wants, or seeks to attain." (p. 1304) Thus, while needs are perceived as being innate, values are acquired or learned.

[5]While the overall hypothesis espoused by Herzberg may be questionable (see Ewen et al., 1966; Vroom, 1964), the importance of intrinsic work attributes have been well established.

[6]For some people promotion may not be valued. Others may avoid promotion if it has the potential to disrupt work group attachments, family relations, or requires relocation.

[7]Based on analysis of 16 studies by Herzberg et al., (1957), the following job facets have been placed in descending order of importance: (1) job security, (2) job interest, (3) opportunity for advancement, (4) appreciation by supervisors, (5) company and management, (6) wages, (7) supervision, (8) social aspects of the job, (9) working conditions, (10) communication, (11) fringe benefits (cited in Bopp, 1974).

[8]Such findings must be viewed with caution given the potential influence of social desirability factors and general inadequacies in the design of many of the studies (Gruneberg, 1979).

[9]Being assessed as task oriented does not rule out the possibility that the leaders studied were people oriented as well. Several investigators believe that the most effective leaders are both task and people oriented.

[10]This project, known as the **Cornell** studies of satisfaction, was initiated in 1959 and completed in 1969. The instrument developed was used in this study to measure job satisfaction among patrol officers.

[11]The more general single-item measures did not detect an increase in dissatisfaction during this time period (Mortimer, 1979).

[12]Other investigators disagree with **Yankelovich's** position (see Wright & Hamilton, 1978).

[13]The **Herzberg** et al., description is based on an extensive review of the literature, but includes no original research.

[14]Numerous studies have failed to find a positive correlation between age and job satisfaction among female workers.

[15]University of Michigan's 1972-73 Quality of Employment Survey was a cross-sectional survey of the United States labor force (N=1102). Respondents were divided by age and social class into white-collar and blue-collar categories.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study examined the relationship between age, tenure, and job satisfaction among patrol officers. The data collected was largely descriptive and the analysis of these data was primarily correlational. The methods and procedures which guided data collection and analysis are presented in this chapter, topics discussed include: the sample, the research design and procedures, instrumentation, computerization, statistical analysis procedures, and the restatement of testable hypotheses.

Description of Subjects

The population of interest consisted of all municipal and county level police officers in the rank of captain and below who were performing patrol duties in Mahoning, Trumbull, and Columbiana Counties of Ohio, as well as two larger agencies not within the three-county area. The latter two agencies were included to obtain the perspective of patrol officers from larger departments (over 400 personnel). This population was experimentally accessible and similar in many respects; all subjects were performing patrol-type duties, operating under the same or similar civil service procedures, and living within a geographical area that shared similar economic conditions.

Stratified single stage cluster sampling was the technique used in most cases to select respondents. All police agencies were first grouped according to size (i.e., small 1-49 personnel; medium 50-399

personnel; more than **399** personnel).   Shifts were then randomly selected

from within each grouping, and all members of selected shifts was asked

to complete the questionnaire.   The sample obtained consisted of **173**

patrol officers from **23** agencies.   Tables **1** and **2** provide summary

information pertaining to individual and job related characteristics of

the sample.

Table **1**

Job Related Characteristics of Sample

Variable	$\underline{M}$	$\underline{SD}$	Min	Max	Range
Years in police field					
	12.2	6.7	1.0	29.0	28.0
Years at present department					
	11.4	6.7	0.0	29.0	29.0
Weekly hours worked police job					
	40.8	2.6	40.0	55.0	15.0
Weekly hours other job(s)[a]					
	13.3	6.6	3.0	30.0	27.0
Monthly income police job					
	1837.3	322.3	1200.0	2500.0	1300.0
Monthly income other job(s)[a]					
	398.1	325.6	100.0	2000.0	1900.0

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Rank		
Patrolman or deputy	152	88.4
Corporal or sergeant	14	8.1
Lieutenant or captain	6	3.5

[a]Data pertains to the portion of the sample **(57.2%)** that reported
working part-time at other job(s).

Table 2

Individual Characteristics of Sample

Variable	M	SD	Min	Max	Range
Age	37.1	6.8	22.0	60.0	38.0

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Race		
White	146	89.0
Black	17	10.4
Other	3	0.6
Sex		
Male	163	94.8
Female	9	5.2
Marital status		
Married	122	70.5
Single	25	14.5
Divorced or separated	26	15.0
Father's occupation		
Manufacturing	73	43.7
Laborer	16	9.6
Trades or crafts	15	9.0
Transportation	13	7.8
Protection Services	12	7.2
Other[a]	39	22.7
Education level		
High school	131	75.7
Associate	19	11.0
Bachelor's	19	11.0
Master's or doctoral	4	2.3

Note. Percentages are adjusted to exclude missing values.
[a]Job categories reported under this heading are sales, clerical, entertainment, paraprofessional, minister, engineer, doctor, teacher, accountant, technical, manager, owner, and military.

Departments from which the sample was drawn varied in size from as few

as 4 full-time personnel to over 1100, with the median size being 14.7.

Fifty subjects (28.9%) worked in relatively small agencies (49 or fewer personnel). The number of subjects from medium (50 to 399) and larger agencies (400 and over) was 51 (29.5%) and 72 (41.6%), respectively. The largest number surveyed from a single agency was 47, the smallest was one, and the median number survey was seven.

Pertaining to the sample, the range of monthly salaries ($1300) is noteworthy, as is the number of officers (57.2%) holding part-time jobs, and education levels. Only 24.3% of the officers held an associate or higher degree.' Finally, the lack of lateral mobility by officers between agencies should be mentioned as the vast majority of subjects (89.0%) had spent their entire careers within the same department.

Design and Procedures

A cross sectional survey was the research design selected for the study. Initial coordination for collection of data was made by briefing members of the Mahoning Valley Chiefs of Police Association in February 1986. Police executives in attendance were largely supportive of the study. Data collection began in May 1986 and was completed in August 1986. As previously stated, stratified cluster sampling was employed using shifts as the sampling units. The planned method of data collection was to administer the survey during roll call at the start of selected shifts. This procedure was chosen for its efficiency, and because sampling bias could be minimized (all members of a selected shift could complete and return the survey on the spot). In 17 of the 23 agencies data was collected at roll call, as described previously. In the other six departments, copies of the instrument along with

instructions pertaining to administration and random selection of shifts were left with the agency to be administered from within, and then picked up at a later date. This approach was employed at the preference of agency executives.

Other factors which contributed to the collection of accurate date include:

1. Anonymity for participating officers and agencies.

2. A sample drawn from many agencies (viz., 23).

3. A carefully developed instrument that possesses acceptable psychometric properties.

Some problem areas were encountered during data collection, however, that should be expressed. In the six agencies where the survey was administered in house, subjects may have been reluctant to respond honestly about supervisors or other aspects of the job fearing scrutiny of the completed questionnaire by departmental personnel. Additionally, there is no way of knowing whether instructions were followed pertaining to random selection of shifts. Supervisors in a few agencies were uncooperative which forced the selection of replacement shifts. This may have tended to increase sampling error.

Instrumentation

Job satisfaction was measured using the Job Descriptive Index or JDI (Smith et al., 1975). This standardized direct response instrument emerged from the Cornell Studies of Satisfaction conducted during the 1960s,[2] and is highly regarded by most researchers (see Golembiewski & Yeager, 1978; Gruneberg, 1979; Kerr, 1976; Locke, 1976; Vroom, 1964).

The JDI is easily administered and has been widely used in both industry and government as a research tool. In fact, it has probably been the most frequently used measure of job satisfaction during the past 10 years (Crites, 1986). This instrument has also been found applicable to a broad range of jobs and to employees with differing demographic characteristics (Golembiewski & Yeager, 1978). Moreover, normative data exists as a result of widespread testing and use.

The JDI is designed to measure satisfaction within both a general long-term framework and a descriptive short-term framework. Its authors reviewed factor analytic studies and conducted an extensive amount of original research to arrive at the variables that seem to best characterize job satisfaction. The five components that emerged were: (a) quality of work, (b) pay, (c) opportunities for promotion, (d) supervision, and (e) people on the job.[3] The pay, promotions, and supervision categories are largely self-explanatory, however, the work and people categories merit further explanation. The work category addresses work quality, both in terms of content and context, while the people category asks about "the majority of people that you work with now or the people you meet in connection with your work" (Smith et al., 1975). The Job Descriptive Index consists of lists of adjectives or short phrases describing or evaluating each of the five job facets listed previously. The respondent is instructed to indicate how each word or phrase applies to his or her job. If the word applies, a "y" (for yes) is entered beside the word. If the word does not apply, an "N" (for no) is entered. If the respondent cannot decide, a question mark is entered (see Figure 1). This format was selected to minimize response sets which are more likely to arise if response

alternatives are printed in a fixed order. A balanced number of favorable and unfavorable items are also given in each category to control for response acquiescence (Smith et al., 1975). The number of words or phrases presented for each **subscale** ranges from nine for pay and promotions, to eighteen for work, supervision, and people, for a total of seventy-two items.

Think of the opportunities for promotion that you have now. How well does each of the following words describe these? In the blank beside each word put

Y for "Yes" if it describes your opportunities for **promotion**

N for "No" if it does NOT describe them

? if you cannot decide

. . . .

OPPORTUNITIES FOR PROMOTION

_____ Good opportunities f a **promotion**

_____ Opportunity somewhat limited

_____ Promotion *on* ability

_____ Dead-end job

_____ *Good* chance for promotion

_____ Unfair promotion policy

_____ Infrequent promotions

_____ Regular promotions

_____ Fairly good chance for promotion

Figure 1. Promotion **Subscale** of the Job Descriptive Index.

As recommended by the authors, direct scoring procedures were used, All favorable answers were scored three, all unfavorable answers were scored zero, and all **ommissions** or question marks were scored one.

This method was derived from comparisons of satisfied and dissatisfied workers defined by upper and lower halves. In the vast majority of comparisons the dissatisfied group gave "?" responses more frequently than the satisfied group. Thus, it was concluded that the "?" response was more indicative of dissatisfaction than satisfaction and a value of one rather than two was assigned (Smith et al., 1975). The total score possible for each subscale is 54 (pay and promotions scores are doubled to make them numerically equivalent to the scores of other subscales). An overall possible score, obtained by summing the five subscales, is 270. The authors of the JDI do not recommend computation of a summary or overall score, as the job aspects measured by the five subscales are thought to be discriminantly different. However, JDI summary score are reported throughout the literature as measures of combined or overall satisfaction and will give a measure at least as psychometrically sound as other available summary measures. A copy of the instrument and the scoring instructions are included as Appendices A and B, respectively.

The psychometric properties of the JDI have been assessed in numerous studies. It has generally been evaluated as having adequate reliability. Based on tests conducted during development, Smith et al., (1975) reported an average corrected reliability coefficient for the five scales of .79 for split-half half estimates of internal consistency. Higher internal consistency was reported for each of the subscales: work (.84), pay (.80), promotions (.86), supervision (.87), and people (.88). Subsequent research has continued to show moderate to strong internal consistency (Kerr, 1986). Test-retest reliability over brief periods (two to six weeks) has been fairly high, while longer term tests of reliability have shown low to moderate reliability

coefficients (Kerr, 1986; Smith et al., 1975). Based on a review of prior research, Kerr (1986) reported high performance of the instrument for all forms of validity. A particularly strong case has been made for construct validity based on numerous publications that report correlations between JDI subscales and other measures of job satisfaction (Golembiewski & Yeager, 1978). One of the most thorough evaluations of the instrument was conducted by Schriesheim and Kinicki (1984). They conclude, "All in all... the JDI is a high-quality measuring instrument, and there is no existing measure of job satisfaction with as much positive evidence concerning its validity and reliability" (cited in Kerr, 3986, p. 755).

In addition to favorable psychometric properties, the Job Descriptive Index has numerous practical strengths. First, its testing and popularity has created a pool of normative data which allows researchers to compare information about job satisfaction with a common frame of reference. Second, the JDI can easily and quickly be administered in mass quantities; it requires only about ten minutes to complete and the simple language allows use across a wide range of populations. There is some evidence to suggest that the instrument may be too simplistic for talented adults or for adults in very high-level positions, however (Kerr, 1986).

In establishing the relationship between the research measures of the instrument and the research hypotheses, it is sufficient to note that twenty questions of the survey elicited background information from the subject such as age, sex, tenure, income, education level, and marital status. This allowed the nature of the sample to be described and provided information for analysis relevant to age and tenure.

Respondents also completed the five subscales of the JDI rendering assessments of their job satisfaction. Thus, the instrument complimented the research design and elicited data necesary to test the research hypotheses.

Hypotheses

Although previous findings have been somewhat inconsistent, the preponderance of literature suggested a positive linear relationship between age, tenure and job satisfaction. Similar results were expected of this study.

The null and research hypotheses are shown below:

$H_{(o)1}$. There is no statistically significant positive correlation between age and job satisfaction among patrol officers.

$H_{(r)1}$. There is a statistically significant positive correlation between age and job satisfaction among patrol officers.

$H_{(o)2}$. There is no statistically significant positive correlation between tenure and job satisfaction among patrol officers.

$H_{(r)2}$. There is a statistically significant positive correlation between tenure and job satisfaction among patrol officers.

Procedures for Computerization and Statistical Analysis

Survey responses were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences or SPSS[4] (Klecka, Nie, & Hull, 1975). Two levels of missing values were encountered. First, subjects occasionally failed to respond to specific question(s).[5] Missing data of this type were minor, however, and therefore excluded

from analysis. **Additionally,** the contents of eight questionnaires were grossly incomplete and therefore excluded from analysis altogether. A copy of instructions used to code and enter data is included as Appendix C.

The statistic used to assess correlation was the **Pearson product-**moment correlation **coefficient** (r), which measures the strength of the relationship between two interval level variables. **Pearson** r was selected because **it is** one of the most **stable** (smallest standard **error)** correlational techniques **(Borg &** Gall, 1983).

Significance **tests** were computed by the SPSS Program using Student's t. The significance level at which null hypotheses would be rejected was set at .05 (p< .05), using a one-tailed test.

Job satisfaction scores obtained during this study were also compared to those of previous studies where the Job Descriptive Index was used. To assess significance between scores, Student's t was again employed, using a two-tailed test of significance and assuming inequity of variance (heteroscedasticity) among samples **(Kushner &** De Maio, 1980).

Finally, assumptions required for parametric analysis and statistical inference **(i.e.,** random sampling, normally distributed variables, and interval level measurement) were assumed to have been met. Evidence supporting this position includes the following:

1. Sampling procedures which drew subjects performing similar duties from numerous **police** agencies. .

2.   Favorable characteristics of the instrument which contributed to the reduction of imperfections normally associated with sampling error such as subjects misunderstanding questions.

3.   Kurtosis and skewness figures for all dependent and independent variables were within acceptable limits indicating near normal distributions.[6]

4.   Both age and tenure were measured at the ratio level.   Job satisfaction was measured by the JDI, a three point index with weighted scoring procedures which resembles a Thrustone type scale.   Given the sound rationale for weighting, as discussed previously, and the similarities between weighting and Thurstone scaling, the instrument is believed to be an accurate interval level like measure of job satisfaction (Smith et al., 1975).

Summary

Chapter Three has addressed issues pertaining to the research methodology.   Topics discussed include the sample, the research design and procedures, hypotheses, instrumentation, computerization, and the model for statistical analysis.   The methodology employed strikes a balance between what was feasible and what would have been ideal.   A substantial data base has been complied which describes job satisfaction among patrol officers.   While there are potential weaknesses in some procedural aspects of the study, a fairly high degree of confidence exists in the accuracy of the data and the representativeness of the sample.   Presented in the next chapter are the findings of the study.

Footnotes

[1] In 1977, 42 percent of officers surveyed by the Police Executive Research Forum had an associate or higher degree (Robinette, 1981).

[2] Development and testing of the Job Descriptive Index spanned a 10 year period from 1959 to 1969.

[3] The authors believe these five areas are the most discriminantly different to workers. They acknowledge, however, that the overall construct of job satisfaction is not completely represented by the instrument (Smith et al., 1975).

[4] The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) is a packaged program specifically designed to compute those statistics typically used by the social sciences. It was developed during the late 1960s and is now one of the most widely used statistical packages.

[5] Across the five measures of the independent variable the two measures of the dependent variables a total of three missing values were encountered.

[6] For a distribution to be within acceptable limits of normality for parametric analysis where the mean score is used, kurtosis values should be within the -3.0 to 7.0 range, and the skewness value should be from - 2.6 to 2.6 (Slivinske, 1985).

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH FINDINGS

Results of the study showed a **significant** relationship between age and job satisfaction, but not between tenure and job satisfaction. Additional findings suggested that income and department size were related to job satisfaction as well. Correlation strengths were generally weak, although significance was attained in a number of cases.

Hypothesized Findings

The **Pearson** correlation coefficient (r) was used to measure the association of hypothesized relationships, and Student's t was used to assess significance. The alpha level was set at .05 ($p < .05$), with a one-tailed test of significance.

$H_{(o)1}$. There is no statistically significant positive correlation between age and job satisfaction among patrol officers,

Findings relevant to this hypothesis are presented in Table 3. The correlation coefficient for overall job satisfaction and age was weak, but significant ($r = .16$, one-tailed $p < .05$). Three job satisfaction subscales also showed a weak, but significant relationship to age (i.e., work, promotions, and people). Whereas the correlation between age and overall satisfaction attained significance, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table **3**

Correlations Between Age and Measures of Job Satisfaction

Variables	r	p	N
Overall	.16	.02*	172
Work	.13	.05*	173
Pay	.10	.09	172
Promotions	.13	.05*	171
Supervision	-.01	.45	171
People	.22	.002**	172

*one-tailed $\underline{p}$< .05
**one-tailed $\underline{p}$< .01

$H_{(o)2}$. There is no'statistically significant positive correlation between tenure and job satisfaction among patrol officers.

Correlations between tenure and job satisfaction are reported in Table 4. Very weak positive relationships were generally evident throughout, and significance was achieved in only one category (viz., pay). Though the correlation between overall satisfaction and tenure was in the hypothesized direction, it failed to achieve significance and the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 4

Correlations Between Tenure and Measures of Job Satisfaction

Variables	$\underline{r}$	$\underline{p}$	$\underline{N}$
Overall	.06	.23	173
Work	.07	.19	173
Pay	.15	.03*	173
Promotions	.02	.40	172
Supervision	-.11	.08	172
People	.09	.12	173

*one-tailed $\underline{p}$< .05

Additional Findings

The explained variance in overall job satisfaction based on age was only about 2.6% (r^2= .0256), while tenure and job satisfaction showed no significant relationship. In an effort to further explain job satisfaction, correlation coefficients were computed to assess relationships between job satisfaction and other independent variables. Significant findings appear in Table 5.

In addition to age, two variables, income from police job and department size, were significantly correlated with overall satisfaction. Of subscale measures, the negative relationships between rank and satisfaction with people on the job, and between rank and satisfaction with supervision were noteworthy. It was interesting as well, that education level showed no significant relationship with the measures of job satisfaction, except in the people category.

Table 5

Correlations of Selected Variables with Measures of Job Satisfaction

Variables	r	p
Income from police job with overall satisfaction (JDI)	.20	.008**
Department size with overall satisfaction	.16	.04*
Income from poliae job with pay satisfaction	.28	.0002***
Department size with pay satisfaction	.23	.002**
Rank in agency with people on job	-.22	.004**
Department size with people on job	.20	.008**
Education level with people on job	.18	.02*
Income from police job with people on job	.18	.02*
Rank in agency with supervision	-.16	.04*

Note. In each category the second variable is a measure of job satisfaction.

  *two-tailed p< .05
 **two-tailed P< .01
***two-tailed p< .001

        Subject responses to specific words or phrases of the JDI

provided additional information as to job-related perceptions.

Responding to the word "Respected," 76 subjects (43.9%) answered yes, 73

(42.2%) answered no, and 24 (13.9%) were undecided. Also interesting

were responses to "Promotion on ability" and "Unfair promotion policy."

Only 30 officers (17.3%) answered yes to the former phrase, while 132

(76.7%) answered no, and 10 (5.8%) were undecided. To the latter

phrase, 101 (58.7%) answered yes, 52 (30.2%) answered no, and 19 (11%) were undecided.

Yet to be addressed is the question of how satisfied with work the subjects of the study were. Table 6 shows their mean scores and standard deviations for JDT measures. Patrol officers appear to be relatively dissatisfied with pay and promotions, while moderately satisfied with supervision, people on the job, and work. Are these scores high or low in relation to those of other police officers? A partial answer to the question can be provided by comparing the data in Table 6 with like data of other studies.[1]

Table 6

JDI Summary Scores for Northeast Ohio Patrol Officers

Variables	M	SD
Overall	129.5	46.7
Work	31.0	11.2
Pay	17.2	13.2
Promotions	12.3	13.4
Supervision	36.4	15.9
People	32.6	15.9

Tables 7 contrasts scores of the present study (northeast Ohio), to the scores of a small group of Indiana county police officers. Average job tenure for the 29 subjects of the Indiana study was 3.8 years (Khoury & Khoury, 1982).[2]

Table 7

Comparison of Northeast Ohio Patrol Officers to Indiana County Police

	Ohio patrol officers N=173		Indiana police N=29		
Variables	M	SD	M	SD	t
Overall	129.5	46.7	122.8	a	
Work	31.0	11.2	31.4	9.0	0.210
Pay	17.2	13.2	11.0	12.1	2.480*
Promotions	12.3	13.4	15.8	10.0	1.353
Supervision	36.4	15.9	37.8	13.0	0.518
People	32.6	15.9	26.8	10.8	2.443*

[a]Data not reported in source document, t could not be computed.

*two-tailed p< .05

Table 8 compares scores of the present study to those of a second police sample. Subjects here were 47 officers from police agencies in the United States sampled while attending training courses and seminars (Lester et al., 1982). Their mean age and tenure were 33.7 years and 9.5 years, respectively (see Footnote 2). Noteworthy was the consistent scoring pattern among the three samples. Moderate levels of satisfactions were consistently reported with work, supervision, and people on the job, while pay and promotions were consistently rated lowest.[3]

Table 8

Comparison of Northeast Ohio Patrol Officers to Lester et al. Study

| Variables | Ohio patrol officers N=173 | | Lester et al. N=47 | | |
	M	SD	M	SD	t
Overall[a]	96.9	36.6	85.0	[b]	
Work	31.0	11.2	32.7	7.5	1.399
Pay	17.2	13.2	9.4	7.1	5.371***
Promotions	12.3	13.4	9.6	8.1	1.781*
Supervision	36.4	15.9	33.3	16.7	1.166

[a]The people category was not reported for the comparison group, and not considered in computing the overall score or standard deviation.

[b]Data not reported in source document, t could not be computed.

*two-tailed $p < .05$
**two-tailed $P < .01$
***two-tailed $p < .001$

In addition to completing the structured portion of the questionnaire, 29 officers, approximately 17%, elected to make narrative comments. Consideration of these remarks, although largely subjective, added insight to the findings derived from statistical analysis. Not surprisingly, negative entries outnumbered favorable ones. The ratio was about six to one. Pay and benefits were mentioned most frequently, followed by supervision and police work as a career. Other job related issues that surfaced include: local government, departmental policies, promotions, police training, and the courts. The comments of selected respondents follow.

Respondent **A** (28–year old patrol officer with high school education; 8 years of service; monthly salary $1,500): "The citizens of the community are not the root of my discust (sic). The administrators of the city and the police department, chief, capts **(captains)** leuts (lieutenants) are who **I** blame for my dislike of the profession. The general lack of justice in the justice system. I totally distrust all lawyers and judges, and want nothing more than enough money to be able to move far away from the people **I** serve."

Respondent **B** (37–year old patrol officer with high school education; 15 years of service; monthly salary $2,100): "**I** think a **morale** problem exists on the department today. The federal courts have made **it** very difficult to hire qualified people and also interfered with our promotion testing. If the morale could be 'boosted,' officers would be much happier and the work performance would improve. **A** satisfied officer **is** a good officer. This goes a long way."

Respondent **C** (39–year old patrol officer with high school education; 8 years of **service;** monthly salary $1,600): "The **police** career can normally be as satisfying as you choose **it** to be. Too many police officers, especially plt. (patrol) '**retire** on active duty' as far as initiative or wishing to pursue investigations or follow through after initial report. **By** (sic) many mag. (magazine) articles monthly on police **stress** and burnout. They **often** say 'yep, that's me' when in fact, they have voluntarily categorized themselves. There **is stress** and futility, but much of **it** can be overcome by perseverance and ability. There are ~~many~~ totally lazy police officers feeling only that they are here for 'an 80 hour paycheck' and 25 years service. **A** calendar police officer merely checking off **months** and years **is** a liability on active

duty to any city or state. **I** have good and bad days. But the profession requires one to recover or sink to worthlessness. Thank You. "

Respondent D (35-year old patrol officer with associate degree; **11** years of service; monthly salary $1,650): **"Police** work is a very challenging job and can be very exciting, but **until** the police officers are paid an adequate wage for their work there will continue to he incompitence (sic)."

Respondent E (39-year old patrol officer with associate degree; 16 years of service; monthly salary $1,220): "Less job satisfaction for the affirmative action types coming into the job."

Summary

Findings of the study supported one research hypothesis but **not** the other. **A significant** relationship was observed between age and job satisfaction, but not between tenure and job satisfaction. Other variables that showed significant **correlations** with overall job satisfact-ion were income and department size. When JDT **subscale** scores from this study were compared with the scores of two other **police** samples differences and similarities appeared. Conclusions, limitations, and recommendations of the study are discussed in the next chapter.

Footnotes

[1]When compared to a large cross-section of blue collar workers (N= 2662) in the private sector (Smith et al., 1975), patrol officer job satisfaction scores were significantly lower in all categories.   The reliability of this comparison is questionable, however, as data for the private sector employee were collected in 1960.

[2]More complete subject information was not reported in the source document.

[3]Caution should be exercised in the interpretation of these data, particularly as it pertains to generalizability.   Sample sizes were small and non-probability sampling techniques appear to have been used in some cases.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Job satisfaction has been the focus of much study in the private sector. It has been investigated less frequently in the public sector, however, and only occasionally among police personnel. Historically, three schools of thought have guided most job satisfaction research (viz., scientific management, human relations, and growth). The growth school, which emphasizes the importance of challenging work, is most in vogue at present, although it is generally acknowledged that job satisfaction can be affected by the physical design of the job, social relationships, and many other variables. At present, there is no universally accepted theory of job satisfaction, and some investigators believe that no single theory can account for all the behaviors associated with job satisfaction (Gruneberg, 1979). Theories that have been offered to explain job satisfaction fall into one of two general categories, content and process.[1] Causal factors of job satisfaction have generally been grouped and discussed as job content considerations (i.e., intrinsic facets of the job itself), job context factors (i.e., extrinsic or environmental), and individual factors. Although much of the recent literature has focused on content factors, collective findings have clearly demonstrated the importance of context and individual considerations as well. Findings pertaining to individual factors in job satisfaction have often been more inconsistent, than in other areas. However, the majority of studies do suggest a positive

linear correlation between age and job satisfaction, and between tenure and job satisfaction. Research addressing job satisfaction among police personnel and organizations is severely lacking, though published results do appear to be largely consistent with more general findings. Despite the shortcomings and inconsistencies often associated with job satisfaction research, numerous practical and empirical benefits have resulted from study of the phenomenon.

This study explored the relationship between age, tenure, and job satisfaction among patrol officers in northeastern Ohio. A positive linear correlation was hypothesized between age and job satisfaction, and between tenure and job satisfaction. Research of this type is significant for at least two reasons. First, is a humanistic concern for the health and general happiness of people choosing a career in police work. Second, is the influence that patrol officer job satisfaction may have on the quality and quantity of police service provided to the public.

Subjects of the study were 173 patrol officers from 23 police agencies in northeastern Ohio. Their mean age and job tenure were 37.1 years (SD= 6.8) and 12.2 years (SD= 6.7), respectively. Multi-stage cluster sampling was employed using departments and shifts as sampling units. When possible, data were collected by visiting selected shifts during roll call.[2] Job satisfaction was measured using the Job Descriptive Index or JDI (Smith et al., 1975), a three choice survey instrument which assesses satisfaction with five essential facets of work (i.e., quality of work, pay, promotions, supervision, and people on the job). This instrument has been widely used across a broad range

of employee groups, and possesses favorable psychometric properties. Correlations were computed using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient ($\underline{r}$) and Student's $\underline{t}$ was used to assess significance.

Findings of the study supported one research hypothesis but not the other. A significant correlation was found between age and overall job satisfaction ($\underline{r}= .16$, one-tailed $\underline{p}< .05$), but not between tenure and job satisfaction. The data collected allowed other observations to be made as well. In addition to age, significant associations were observed between overall satisfaction and income ($\underline{r}= .20$, two-tailed $\underline{p}< .05$), as well as between overall satisfaction and department size ($\underline{r}= .16$, two-tailed $\underline{p}< .05$). Significant negative correlations were found between rank and satisfaction with people ($\underline{r}= -.22$, two-tailed $\underline{p}< .01$), and between rank and satisfction with supervision ($\underline{r}=-.16$, two-tailed $\underline{p}< .05$). Of the job facets measured by the JDI, patrol officers were least satisfied with pay and promotions, and most satisfied with supervision. When the scores of the sample were compared to those of other police groups a number of differences and similarities emerged.

Discussion

Discussion begins with exploration of hypothesized findings. Although weak correlations were evident throughout, a positive association was observed between age and job satisfaction among patrol officers, as four of the six job satisfaction measures, including the overall category, attained significance (i.e., work, $\underline{r}= .13$, one-tailed $\underline{p}< .05$; promotions $\underline{r}= .13$; one-tailed $\underline{p}< .05$; people $\underline{r}= .22$, one-tailed $\underline{p}< .02$; one-tailed; overall $\underline{r}= .16$, one-tailed $\underline{p}< .05$). These observations are generally consistent with previous findings (see Glenn

et al., 1977; Hopkins, 1983). Three possible explanations have been offered for older workers being more satisfied: (a) younger workers subscribe to values that contradict the expectations of the work system; (b) the standards of workers are systematically eroded as they grow old, thus they learn to be satisfied with less; and (c) older workers simply have better jobs (see Wright & Hamilton, 1978).

The tenure-job satisfaction association failed to achieve significance, although it was in the intended direction. While the majority of prior studies had suggested a positive association between tenure and job satisfaction, the evidence was by no means clear, and generally considered to be less satisfactory than in other areas of job satisfaction research (see Gruneberg, 1979). Thus, failure to find a significance in the present study is not considered grossly inconsistent with prior observations.
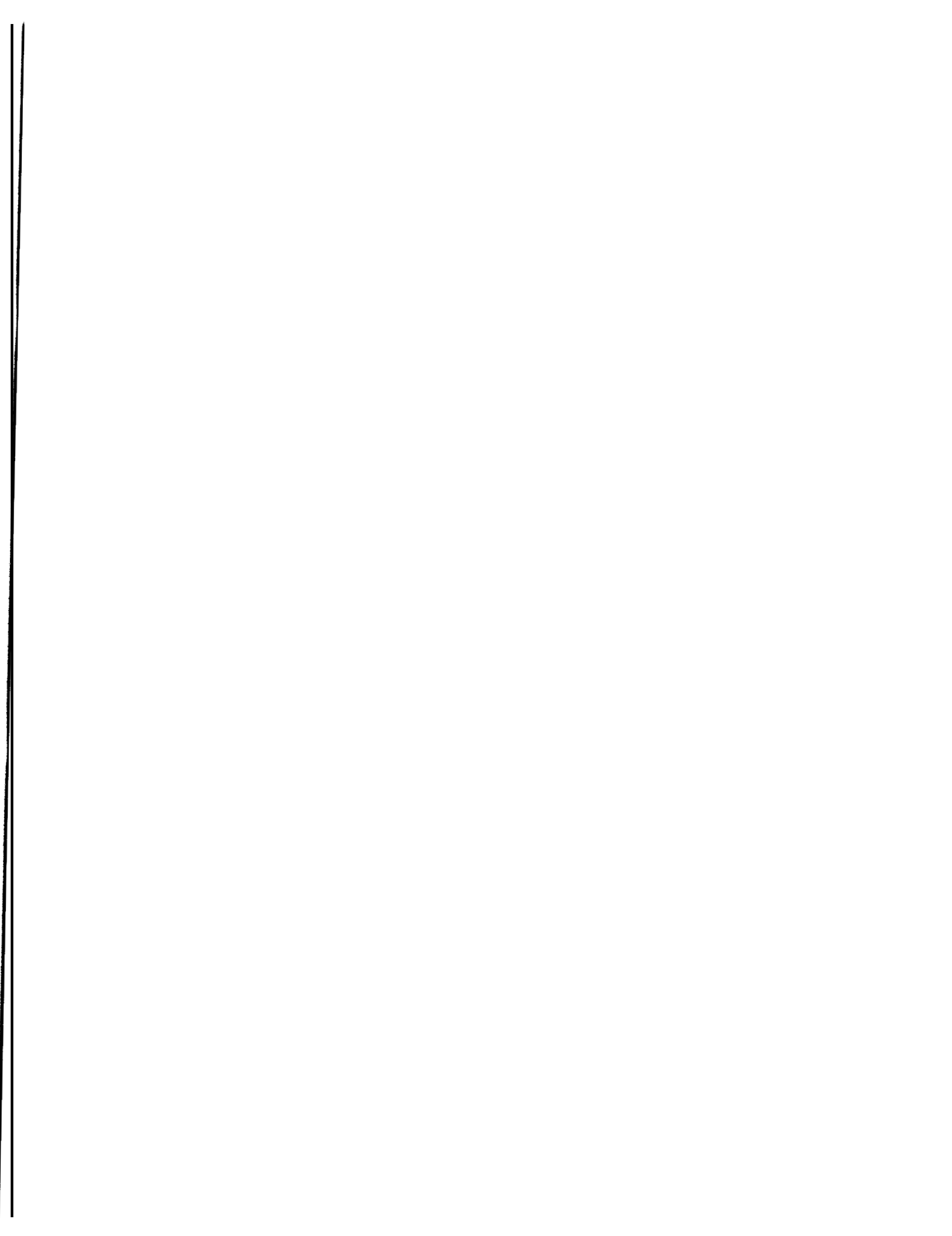
Age-job satisfaction relationships in this study were generally stronger than tenure-job satisfaction relationships. This finding is generally consistent with prior research (see Hunt & Saul, 1975). There were two notable exceptions, however, where an inverse relationship appeared and tenure-job satisfaction relationships were stronger (i.e., pay and supervision). Interestingly, these areas showed the highest correlations of any job satisfaction measure in relation to tenure, but the lowest correlations in relation to age. Given the similar effects of increasing age and tenure these findings are difficult to explain. Noteworthy among additional findings were correlations that emerged between income from police work and the various measures of job satisfaction. The income variable achieved significance in relation to overall satisfaction ($r = .20$, two-tailed $p < .01$), satisfaction with pay

(r= .28, two-tailed p< .001), and satisfaction with people on the job

(r= .18, two-tailed p< .05). These observations highlight the importance of pay in relation to job satisfaction. Also significant was the positive relationship between salary and people on the job. This may have implications both in terms of co-worker relationships and how the public is perceived and treated.

Interestingly, department size showed significant relationships with the same measures of job satisfaction as income (i.e., overall satisfaction, r= .16, two-tailed p< .05; pay satisfaction, r= .23, two-tailed p< .01; and people on the job, r= .20, p< .05) These relationships may be an artifact of the income issue, however, as larger agencies tend to pay higher salaries.

Education level also showed a positive association with people on the job (r=.16, two-tailed p< .05). This observation is encouraging as it suggests that more educated police officers tend to evaluate people on the job more favorably. Alternatively, given the low scores of the sample on some job satisfaction measures, negative associations might have been expected in relation to education. Much of the literature suggests that lower job satisfaction may occur among more educated individuals who generally expect more in terms of promotions, pay increases, and challenging work (see Robinette, 1981). Not all expectations can be met, particularly in police agencies.

Rank was negatively related to two job satisfaction measures (i.e., people on the job r= -.22, two-tailed p< .01; and supervisions r= -.16, two-tailed p< .05). It is not clear why higher ranking officers would tend to perceive people on the job and supervisors less favorably. The pressure middle managers often receive from above

(supervisors) and below (subordinates), may provide a partial explanation for the negative relationship (see Swanson & Territo, 1983).

Discussion now turns to the mean scores of the sample on the Job Descriptive Index and an assessment of their job satisfaction. Of 54 points possible in each category, the mean scores of the sample were as follows: (a) work on present job, 31; (b) pay, 17.2; (c) promotions, 12.3; (d) supervision 36.4; and (e) people, 32.6. These data suggest that respondents held fairly negative perceptions of pay and opportunities for promotion, while perceptions in other work facets were more moderate.

Of particular concern are the areas of pay and promotional opportunities. Porter et al. (1975) believe these two areas are the most valued extrinsic rewards an organization can give. Reasons for low satisfaction with pay among patrol officers were obvious, particularly in some of the smaller agencies where annual salaries as low as $12,000 were reported. Salary may be of added importance to police personnel. As noted in Chapter Two, employees who cannot obtain other forms of job satisfaction (e.g., promotion) appear to attach greater importance to pay (Gruneberg, 1979). Low promotional opportunities are a systemic problem in most police agencies, though two factors appear to be aggravating the situation. First, promotional testing and selection procedures are perceived as unfair and not related to ability by many officers. Second, is the impact of litigation alleging racial discrimination in promotional testing and procedures. The result, in many cases, has been a freeze on further testing and promotions. For example, in one of the larger departments a shortage of supervisory personnel existed, as no one had been promoted in several years.

Moreover, a recently administered promotions exam had been impounded by the court and could not be used to promote agency personnel. Finally it should be remembered that the subjective perceptions of individual officers largely determines their level of job satisfaction.

At least two observations can be made of the three comparisons made between the job satisfaction scores of patrol officers and those of other groups. First, all groups showed low satisfaction with pay and promotions, with moderate levels of satisfaction in other areas. Second, where differences occurred officers of the present study (northeast Ohio) scored higher in each case.

Methodological Limitations

As with all research, this study has potential weaknesses, limitations, and concerns that merit discussion. Some of the limitations are inherent to the research design, while others occurred during sampling or data collection.

Most significant perhaps are the weaknesses and limitations introduced by using a cross sectional survey instrument to measure a phenomenon that is essentially longitudinal and very complex. As Van Mannen and Katz suggest, "To measure such a complex phenomenon through the use of a simplified, broad index may well mask more than it reveals" (1976, p. 612). A related limitation may be the use of bivariate correlation analysis in an area known to consist of numerous inter-related factors. In this regard, readers are cautioned against making causal inferences based on correlational data and against generalizing findings beyond the population of interest. Relying on a single instrument as the source of data is also a potential weakness.

Ideally, multiple indicators should be obtained from varying data sources. Additionally, the size of the sample was smaller than ideal for survey research.

Potential weaknesses intraduced during sampling or data collection procedures were discussed in Chapter Three, and are repeated here:

1. Uncaooperative supervisory personnel in some agencies forced the selection of replacement subjects in different agencies which may have tended to increase sampling error.

2. In the six agencies where the survey was administered in house, subjects may have been reluctant to respond honestly fearing scrutiny by departmental personnel.

Recommendations

Efforts to assess and improve job satisfaction among patrol officers should be guided by a systems perspective that includes all job related and individual factors. Pay and promotional opportunities appear to cause the greatest dissatisfaction among patrol officers and deserve attention in concert with other factors. It is, of course, one thing to suggest that pay and promotians need attention and quite another to explain how such improvements might feasibly be made. Prior research suggests that pay is likely to be of greater importance to employees who cannot obtain other forms of satisfaction (Gruneberg, 1979). Thus, satisfaction with pay may be enhanced by improving other job aspects. Not allowing promotional procedures to be tied up in litigation is of obvious importance to satisfaction with promotions. Additionally, some alternative systems, such as the career path system

or the three track concept, might be used to enhance opportunities for promotion (see Swank & Conser, 1983). Ensuring that future police officers have an accurate perception of the job, not only in terms of police functions and roles, but other job facets as well, should also have a positive impact on job satisfaction.

The bivariate analytical techniques employed during this study produced a number of weak, but significant correlations. Income showed the strongest relationship to overall job satisfaotion (r= .20). Yet, only about 4% of the variance in overall job satisfaction (r = .004) was explained by income alone. To understand the complex mix of factors that combine to produce job satisfaction it is apparent that future research must stress multivariate measures and analytical techniques.

Footnotes

[1] Content theories (e.g., Maslow's hierarchy of needs) attempt to specify what needs must be met for an individual to be satisfied. Process theories (e.g., Festinger's theory of cognitive dissonance) attempt to specify the types of variables involved in job satisfaction and how these variables interact.

[2] Executives in some agencies objected to the presence of non-police personnel at roll call. In such cases the survey was administered by member(s) of the agency.

APPENDIX A

<u>Survey Instrument</u>

THE
JOB
DESCRIPTIVE
INDEX

CODE NUMBER _____

Company _____

City _____

This questionnaire is part of a
study on police officers. Partic-
ipation is voluntary and your
identity will remain completely
anonymous. If you choose to
participate your honest and
thoughtful answers will be greatly
appreciated.

**Please fill in the above
blanks and then turn the
page. . . . ..**

Think of your present work What is it like most of the time? In the blank beside each word given below, write

_Y_ for "Yes" if it describes your work

_N_ for "No" if it does NOT describe it

_?_ if you cannot decide

....

WORK ON PRESENT JOB

———— Fascinating

———— Routine

———— Satisfying

———— Boring

———— Good

———— Creative

———— Respected

———— Hot

———— Pleasant

———— Useful

———— Tiresome

———— Healthful

———— Challenging

———— On your feet

———— Frustrating

———— Simple

———— Endless

———— Gives sense of accomplishment

SURVEY INSTRUMENT (CONT.)

Think ot the pay you get now How well does each of the following words describe your present pay? In the blank beside each word, put

0/0 if it describes your pay

N if it does NOT describe it

? if you cannot decide

....

PRESENT PAY

_____ Income adequate for normal expenses

_____ Satisfactory profit sharing

_____ Barely live on income

_____ Bad

_____ Income provides luxuries

_____ Insecure

_____ Less than I deserve

_____ Highly paid

_____ Underpaid

Think of **the opportunities** for **promotion** that you have now. How well does each ot the following **words** describe these? In the Mank beside each **word** put

Y for "Yes" **if it describes** your opportunities for **promotion**

N for "No" if it does NOT describe them

? if you cannot decide

. . . .

OPPORTUNITIES FOR PROMOTION

_____ Good opportunities for promotion

_____ Opportunity somewhat limited

_____ Promotion on ability

_____ Dead-end job

_____ Good chance for promotion

_____ Unfair promotton policy

_____ Infrequent promottons

_____ Regular promotions

_____ Fairly good chance for promotion

SURVEY **INSTRUMENT** (CONT.)

Think of the kind of supervision that you get on your job How weil does each of the following words describe this supervision? In the blank beside each word below, put

Y if it describes the supervision you get on your job

N if it does NOT describe it

? if you cannot decide

. . . .

SUPERVISION ON PRESENT JOB

_____ Asks my advice

_____ Hard to please

Impolite

Praises **good work**

_____ Tactful

_____ Influential

_____ Up-to-date

Doesn't supervise enough

_____ Quick tempered

_____ Tells me where I stand

_____ Annoying

_____ Stubborn

Knows job well

_____ Bad

Intelligent

_____ Leaves me on my own

_____ Around when needed

_____ Lazy

Please *go* on to the next page .   .

SURVEY INSTRUMENT (CONT.)

Think of the majority of the people that you work with now or the people you meet in connection with your work. How well does each of the following words describe these people? In the blank beside each word below, put

Y if it describes the people you work with

N if it does NOT describe them

? if you cannot decide

....

PEOPLE ON YOUR PRESENT JOB

_____ Stimulating

_____ Boring

_____ Slow

_____ Ambitious

_____ Stupid

Responsible

_____ Fast

_____ Intelligent

_____ Easy to make enemies

Talk too much

_____ Smart

_____ Lazy

_____ Unpleasant

_____ No privacy

_____ Active

_____ Narrow interests

_____ Loyal

Hard to meet

Go on to the next **page** . . . . .

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

DIRECTIONS: **Please provide** the **information** requested or **check** the **appropriate response(s)** to each of the **following** questions.

1. **Age** on **last birthday!**_____

2. **Sex: Male** ☐   **Femal** ☐

3. **Race: Black** ☐   **White** ☐

   Other **(specify)**_____

4. **Rank** in **police department!**_____

5. **Men did you** enter **police work** as a full **time occupation?**

   Month_____   Year **19**_____

6. **Men did you begin working** for the **department** you nou **work** for?

   Month_____   **Year 19**____

7. **How many** hours per **week** do **you typically work?**

   Police Job_____   Othar **employment**_____

8. Before taxes **and** other **deductions** what **is** your **monthly income?**

   From **police** Job **$**_____

   From other **employment $**_____

9. Hou **many working days** have you **missed** in the **last six months** (count **sick leave** and other **days** off but do not count annual **vacation)?**

   Days_____

10. **Marital** Status:

   Single ☐   **Married** ☐

   Widowed ☐   Separated or **divorced** ☐

11. **How many children** do you **have?**_____

12. **What** type of **work did** your father do **while** YOU **were growing** UP?

   _____

13. **What type** of **work did your mother** do **while** you were **growing up?**

   _____

Go on to the next **page** .....

SURVEY INSTRUMENT (CONT.)

14. Education: (check highest level attained)

Completed high school ☐   Some college ☐

Completed associate degree ☐

Completed bachelors degree ☐

Completed graduate or doctors degree ☐

15. Police and in service training (list schools and training completed)

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

16. Do you plan to continue in police work until retirement?

Yes ☐   No ☐

17. Do you plan to work for this departmnt until retirement?

Yes ☐   No ☐

18. When will you be eligible for retirement?

Month_____ Year 19____

19. Are you represented by a union or employees association?

Yes ☐   No ☐

20. Which of the benefits listed below are provided by your department (check all that apply)?

Medical or surgical beniefits ☐

- Sick leave with pay ☐

Paid holidays (xmas etc.) ☐

Paid vacation or annual leave ☐

Ratirement or pension plan ☐

Group life insurance ☐

Paid liability Insurance ☐

Other (specify)_____

   THANK YOU for participating! If you wish to make any additional comments about your Job or this questionnaire, please do so on the naxt papa.

SURVEY INSTRUMENT (CONT.)

COMMENTS

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX B

Scoring Procedures for the Job Descriptive Index (JDI)

SCORING THE JOB DESCRIPTIVE INDEX (JDI)

General Instructions:

All favorable answers are scored 3, all
unfavorable are scored 0, and all omissions or
?s are scored 1. The favorable Y answers are
given in Column 1, and the favorable N answers
in Column 2 of the scoring keys (blue cards).

The Pay and Promotions scores are doubled
in order to make them numerically equivalent
to the scores on the other scales.

Total JDI scores (not recommended):

We do not recommend canputing a total JDI
score, although numerous investigators have done
so. The subscales are discriminably different,
have loaded on separate group factors with no
general factor in repeated factor analytic
studies, and do not intercorrelate highly
despite their high reliabilities. Different
aspects of, and changes in, the situation also
affect the five subscales differently. Adding
sub-scores is like adding apples and oranges.

If, however, for some compelling reason a
summary score is desired, the grand total of
the five subscale totals of the JDI will give
a measure which is at least as psychometrically
sound as ocher available summary measures.
Until additional research evidence is
accumulated, a simple sum is as good as any
more complicated weighting. (Do not attempt
to weight by importance.)

SCORING PROCEDURES FOR THE JOB DESCRIPTIVE INDEX (JDI) (CONT.)

SCORING KEY — WORK

1. Place blue card on corresponding page of person's white answer booklet, covering all but the answers, so that Col. 1 on blue card is to right of answer column of white page. Align corresponding dotted and solid lines. Write a 3 on the **white page beside** each Y answer which matches a Y on the card.
2. Slide blue card to far left so that Col. 2 is to left of answer column of white page. Align corresponding lines. Write a 3 on **the white** page for every N answer which matches an N on the card.
3. Write a **1** on the **white** page beside each **?** or omission.
4. Total all 3's and I's, and enter on **white** page where the arrow indicates, WORK: TOTAL.

....

COL. 1	WORK ON PRESENT JOB	COL. 2
Y	Fascinating	
	Routine	
Y	Satisfying	
	Boring	n
Y	Good	
Y	Creative	
Y	Respected	
	Hot	n
Y	Pleasant	
Y	Useful	
	Tiresome	n
Y	Healthful	
Y	Challenging	
	On your feet	n
	Frustrating	n
	Simple	n
	Endless	n
Y	Gives sense of accomplishment	

WORK: TOTAL ➡

SCORING KEY -- PAY

1. Place blue card on corresponding page of person's white booklet, so that Col. 1 of blue card is to right of answer column of white page. Align corresponding lines. Write **3** on the white page beside each Y answer which matches a Y on the card.

2. Slide blue card to far left so that Col. 2 is to left of answer column of white page. Align corresponding lines. Write a 3 on the white page for every N answer which matches an N on the card.

3. Write a **1** on the white page beside each ? or omission.

4. Total all 3's and **1's** and enter at bottom of white page where arrow on blue card indicates, SUM

5. Double this sum. Enter on white page where last arrow indicates, PAY: **TOTAL.**

. . . .

COL. 1	PRESENT PAY	COL. 2
Y	Income adequate for normal expenses	
Y	Satisfactory profit sharing	
	Barely live on income	n
	Bad	n
Y	Income provides luxuries	
	Insecure	n
	Less than I deserve	n
	Highly paid	
	Underpaid	n

SUM ➡

SUM X 2 = PAY: TOTAL ➡

SCORING PROCEDURES FOR THE JOB DESCRIPTIVE INDEX (JDI) (CONT.)

SCORING KEY — PROMOTIONS

1   Place blue card on corresponding page of person's white booklet, so that Col. 1 of blue card is to right of answer column of white page. Align corresponding lines. Write **3** on the **white** page beside each Y answer which matches a Y on the card.

2.   Slide blue card to far left so that Col. 2 is to left of answer column of white page Align corresponding lines. Write a 3 on the **white** page for every N answer which matches an N on the card.

3   Write a 1 on the **white** page beside each ? or omission

4   Total all 3's and 1's and enter at bottom of **white** page where arrow on blue card indicates, **SUM.**

5.   Double this sum Enter on **white** page where last arrow indicates, **PROMOTIONS: TOTAL**

. . . .

COL. 1	OPPORTUNITIES FOR PROMOTION	COL. 2
y	Good opportunities for promotion	
	Opportunity somewtiat limited	**n**
y	Promotion on ability	
	Dead-end job	**n**
y	Good chance for promotion	
	Unfair promotion policy	**n**
	Infrequent promotions	**n**
y	Regular promotions	
y	Fairly good chance for promotion	

SUM ➡

SUM X 2 = PROMOTIONS: TOTAL ➡

SCORING PROCEDURES FOR THE JOB DESCRIPTIVE INDEX (JDI) (CONT.)

SCORING KEY — SUPERVISION

1 Place blue card on corresponding page of person's white booklet, so that Col 1 of blue card is to right of answer column of white page Align corresponding lines Write 3 on the **white** page beside each Y answer which matches a Y on the card

2 Slide blue card to far left so that Col 2 is to left of answer column of white page Align corresponding lines Write a 3 on the **white** page for every N answer which matches an N on the card

3 Write a 1 on the white page beside each ? or omission

4 Total all **3**'s and 1's and enter at bottom of **white** page where arrow on blue card indicates

SUPERVISION TOTAL

. . . .

COL. 1	SUPERVISION ON PRESENT JOB	COL. 2
Y	Asks my advice	
	Hard to please	n
	Impolite	n
Y	Praises good work	
Y	Tactful	
Y	Influential	
Y	Up-to-date	
	Doesn't supervise enough	n
	Quick tempered	n
Y	Tells me w▮▮▮▮▮▮▮	▮
	Annoying	n
	Stubborn	
Y	Knows job well	
	Bad	n
Y	Intelligent	
Y	Leaves me on my own	
Y	Around when needed	
	Lazy	n

SUPERVISION: TOTAL ➡

SCORING PROCEDURES FOR THE JOB DESCRIPTIVE INDEX (JDI) (CONT.)

SCORING KEY — PEOPLE OR CO-WORKERS

1 Place blue card on corresponding page of person's white booklet, so that Col 1 of blue card is to right of answer column of white page Align corresponding lines Write 3 on the white page beside each Y answer which matches a Y on the card
2 Slide blue card to far left so that Col. 2 is to left of answer column of white page Align corresponding lines Write a 3 on the white page for every N answer which matches an N on the card.
3 Write a 1 on the white page beside each ? or omission
4 Total all 3's and 1's and enter at bottom of white page where arrow on blue card indicates

PEOPLE (OR CO-WORKERS): TOTAL..

....

COL. 1	PEOPLE ON YOUR PRESENT JOB	COL. 2
Y	Stimulating	
	Boring	n
	Slow	n
Y	Ambitious	
	Stupid	n
Y	Responsible	
V	Last	
V	Intelligent	
	Easy to make enemies	n
	Talk too much	n
Y	Smart	
	Lazy	n
	Unpleasant	n
	No privacy	n
V	Active	
	Narrow interests	n
Y	Loyal	
	Hard to meet	n

PEOPLE (OR CO-WORKERS): TOTAL ➡

APPENDIX C

Coding Instructions

CODING INSTRUCTIONS

1. Code all missing values with the number **"-1"**.

2. Use the following instructions to code each of the **33** variables measured by the questionnaire.

VARIABLE NUMBER/ NAME	COLUMN(S)	CODE
V-1 Individual Identification	1-3	Enter code number on survey booklet **(001-300)**.
V-2 Department Identification	4,5	Enter department **identification** code as follows:

01:        02:
03:        04:
05:        06:
07:        08:
09:        10:
11:        12:
13:        14:
3.5:   16:
17:        18:
19:        20:
21:        22:
23:
(Agencies not identified to maintain anonymity)

VARIABLE NUMBER/ NAME	COLUMN(S)	CODE
V-3 Department Size (actual)	6-9	Enter total officer strength as stated in Table **76** of Uniform Crime Reports **(UCR)**
v-4 Department Size (code)	10,11	Enter code for department size using total officers column, Table 76, of UCR. 01: **1-49** officers 02: **51-399** officers 03: **400** and greater
V-5 Sample Size	12,13	Enter total number of surveys obtained from represented department for first entry from represented department. Code all entries with **-2.**

CODING INSTRUCTIONS

VARIABLE NUMBER/ NAME	COLUMN(S)	CODE
V-6 Age	14,15	Enter age on last birthday.
V-7 Sex	16,17	Code as follows: 01: Male 02: Female
V-8 Race	18,19	Code as follows: 01: White 02: Black 03: Other
V-9 Rank	20,21	Code as follows: 01: Patrolman/Deputy 02: Corporal/Sergeant 03: Lieutenant/Captain 04: Higher than Captain
V-10 Years in Police Field	22,23	Enter actual years. Round to the nearest year; if 6 months, round to the nearest even year.
V-11 Years at Present Department	24,25	Enter actual years. Round to the nearest year; if 6 months round to the nearest even year.
V-1.2 Hours Per Week Police Job	26,27	Enter actual hours.
V-13 Hours Per Week Other Employment	28,29	Enter actual hours. If blank or 0, enter -2.
V-14 Monthly Income From Police Job	30-33	Enter stated income.
V-15 Monthly Income From Other Work	34-37	Enter stated income. If blank or 0, enter -002.
V-16 Days of Work Missed	38-40	Enter number of days absent from work. If blank or 0, enter -02.

CODING INSTRUCTIONS

VARIABLE NUMBER/ NAME	COLUMN(S)	CODE
V–17 Marital Status	41,42	Code as follows: 01: Single 02: Married 03: Separated/Divorced 04: Widow(er)
V–18 Number Children	43,44	Enter actual number. If single enter –2.
V–19 Father's Work	45,46	Enter appropriate code from the following list of job categories:

01: Sales (Examples: Retail salesclerk, real estate agent, door–to–door salesperson, newspaper carrier).
02: Office and Clerical (Examples: Shipping clerk, mail carrier, secretary, typist, keypunch operator, cashier, bookkeeping).
03: Service or Restaurant (Examples: Cleaning person, dishwasher, cook, waitress/waiter).
04: Trades or Crafts (Examples: Mechanic or repairman, baker, plumber, carpenter, painter, electrician).
05: Transportation (Examples: Cab, bus, or truck driver).
06: Manufacturing or Producing (Examples: Assembly line worker, mill worker, packager, meat–cutter, fork–lift operator).
07: Protection Services (Examples: Police, security guard, fire–fighter, park ranger).
08: Art, Entertainment, Recreation (Examples: Dancer, actor, athlete, musician, artist).
09: Laborer, except farm/ranch (Examples: Construction laborer, gardener, truck loader, warehouse person).
10: Farming/Ranching (Examples: Farmer, dairyman, farm laborer, rancher, ranch hand).
11: Paraprofessional (Examples: Dental assistant, nurse's or teacher's aide, paramedic, paralegal).
12: Professional – Minister.
13. Professional – Engineer, architect, scientist.
14: Professional – Doctor, dentist, psychologist, psychiatrist, lawyer.
15: Professional – Teacher.
16: Professional – Accountant.
17: Professional – Nurse.
18: Technical (Examples: Draftsman, medical or lab technician, computer programmer, pilot).
19: Manager or Administrator: (Examples: Sales or office manager, school administrator, buyer).

CODING INSTRUCTIONS

20: Owner or Proprietor (Examples: Contractor, restaurant owner, small business owner).
21: Military - Officer.
22: Military - Enlisted.
23: Does not work for pay or is a homemaker.
-2: Not Applicable.

VARIABLE NUMBER/ NAME	COLUMN(S)	CODE
V-20 Mother's Work	47,48	Enter appropriate code from previous list (V-19) of job categories.
V-21 Education	49,50	Enter appropriate code from the following list: 01: Completed high school 02: Some college 03: Completed associates degree 04: Completed bachelors degree 05: Completed masters or doctors degree
V-22 Plan to Continue in Police Work to Retirement	51,52	Enter appropriate code: 01: Yes 02: No
V-23 Plan to Continue Present Department to Retirement	53,54	Enter appropriate code: 01: Yes 02: No -2: If answered no to previous question (V-22).
V-24 Years Until Eligible for Retirement	55,56	Enter actual years. Round to the nearest year; if 6 months to the nearest even year.
V-25 Represented by Union	57,58	Enter appropriate code: 01: Yes 02: No

CODING INSTRUCTIONS

VARIABLE NUMBER/ NAME	COLUMN(S)	CODE
V-26 Work on Present Job	59,60	Enter total score for this section of Job Descriptive Index (JDI). Use scoring key. All favorable answers are scored 3, all unfavorable answers are scored 0, all omissions or "?" are scored 1.
V-27 Present Pay	61,62	Enter total score for this section of the JDI.
V-28 Opportunity for Promotion	63,64	Enter total score for this section of the JDI.
V-29 Supervision on Job	65,66	Enter total score for this section of the JDI.
V-30 People on Job	67,68	Enter total score for this section of the JDI.
V-31 Promote on Ability	69,70	Enter appropriate code for response to this question on JDI: 01: Yes 02: No 03: Cannot Decide
V-32 Unfair Pro- motion Policy	71,72	Enter appropriate code for response to this question on JDI: 01: Yes 02: No 03: Cannot Decide
v-33 Respected	73,74	Enter appropriate code for response to this question on JDI: 01: Yes 02: No 03: Cannot Decide

<u>Reference **List** and **Bibliography**</u>

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