

UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

THE DAILY FLOGGINGS WILL CONTINUE UNTIL MORALE IMPROVES:
AN EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG ORGANIZATIONAL
JUSTICE, JOB SATISFACTION, ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND
INTENTION TO TURNOVER

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

By

NEAL S. MCNABB

Norman, Oklahoma

2009

THE DAILY FLOGGINGS WILL CONTINUE UNTIL MORALE IMPROVES:
AN EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG ORGANIZATIONAL
JUSTICE, JOB SATISFACTION, ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND
INTENTION TO TURNOVER

A DISSERTATION APPROVED FOR THE
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY

BY

Dr. Kelly Damphousse, Chair

Dr. Susan Sharp

Dr. Trina Hope

Dr. B. Mitchell Peck

Dr. Shane Connelly

© Copyright by NEAL S. MCNABB 2009
All Rights Reserved.

Acknowledgements

I want to thank my family for their continued support and encouragement throughout my time spent in college. I would like to especially thank my mother for instilling in me the value of education and supporting my decisions to continue it. I would also like to thank my wife, Jennifer, for her support and understanding during my years of school when I was not as available as I should have been.

Thanks also go to Dr. Kelly Damphousse, my dissertation advisor, and the members of my committee. You have opened my eyes to perspectives I was previously unaware of and given me new ways to view the world. I want to especially thank Dr. Damphousse and Dr. Susan Sharp. Without your help, I would have never had this opportunity.

Table of Contents

Acknowledgements.....	iv
List of Tables	vi
Abstract.....	vii
Chapter 1.....	1
Chapter 2.....	5
Chapter 3.....	35
Chapter 4.....	61
Chapter 5.....	110
Chapter 6.....	128
References.....	138

List of Tables

Table 1 Comparison of Demographics between Sample and Population.....	38
Table 2 Demographic Characteristics of Sample.....	111
Table 3 Correlations for Job Satisfaction Validation (N=402).....	114
Table 4 Descriptive Statistics for Job Satisfaction Variables (N=402)	116
Table 5 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Study Variables (N=433).....	118
Table 6 OLS Regression of Intention to Turnover on Job Satisfaction (Overall), Controlling For Demographics (N=448)	120
Table 7 OLS Regression of Intention to Turnover on Job Satisfaction (Supervisor Subscale), Controlling for Demographics (N=435)	123
Table 8 OLS Regression of Intention to Turnover on Organizational Commitment, Controlling for Demographics (N=448)	124
Table 9 OLS Regression of Intention to Turnover on Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment, Controlling for Demographics (N=448)	126

Abstract

Although the relationships among organizational justice, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment have been studied frequently in recent decades, researchers continue to produce inconsistent findings. Questions regarding the causal order and relative impact of these variables on each other still remain. That said, findings regarding these variables and their relationship to turnover intentions (voluntarily quitting an organization) are consistent, with high job satisfaction and organizational commitment resulting in lower intentions to turnover. This study examines the strength and direction of these relationships, using a combination of qualitative and quantitative data, within a mid-size southwestern police department. The results suggest that organizational justice is positively associated with job satisfaction and organizational commitment. This research paid particular attention to how each dimension of organizational justice affects different facets of job satisfaction. In addition, both satisfaction and commitment are shown to be negatively associated with turnover intentions. While most studies of job satisfaction and organizational commitment have examined demographic characteristics as control variables, this study also assessed the moderating effects that level of education and rank had on the relationships between job satisfaction/organizational commitment and turnover intentions. The results show that demographic characteristics have relatively little impact, either as antecedents or in moderating these relationships. These

findings contribute to the literature of organizational justice, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions.

Chapter 1

Introduction

“This department's new motto should be changed to: The daily floggings will continue until morale improves.”

– Anonymous respondent

How important is perceived fairness in determining one's level of job satisfaction and commitment to the organization where he/she works? Furthermore, how much influence do job satisfaction and commitment exert on one's intentions to leave an organization and find new employment? Organizational justice is essentially the perception that employees or members of an organization are being treated fairly. It can take several forms, ranging from the perceptions of fairness of policies and procedures to how the distribution of rewards and punishments are viewed and finally to simply being treated with courtesy and respect. It has been shown to influence other work-related outcomes, including job satisfaction and organizational commitment, thus making it an issue that deserves further attention.

Job satisfaction and organizational commitment (often thought of in terms of loyalty or dependability) have been shown to be related concepts and research has consistently indicated that both have an influence on withdrawal behaviors, such as intention to turnover (voluntarily quit an organization) and find new employment. That said, why do we care about employees' perceptions

of satisfaction, commitment and justice in the workplace? Satisfaction and commitment have been shown to affect issues that are important to the efficiency of organizations, such as performance and productivity, absenteeism, deviant activity (such as theft), and withdrawal behaviors. The investment that an organization makes in training employees, as well as the experience of employees with longer tenures, is lost when they are not working to their potential or when they decide to move on. Being able to retain employees in an organization reduces these costs, both in training and in hiring new employees. This would be the case in any organization. The current study assesses the attitudes of police officers, a profession that has an interest in having experienced and motivated employees who are entrusted with enforcing the law and serving the needs of the community. This study is an examination of the relationships between organizational justice, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. It is also an assessment of the influence these variables have on intentions to turnover. These relationships are tested using a sample collected from a mid-size southwestern police department.

In the remaining chapters, I will discuss empirical research on organizational justice, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions, as well as discuss the methods used for collecting and analyzing the data in this study. The results are divided into two distinct sections. First, I will draw conceptual links between the dimensions of organizational justice and the facets of job satisfaction using qualitative responses from the data. Next, I will

quantitatively show the relationships among job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intentions, paying particular attention to the possible moderating effects of rank and formal level of education. Finally, I will discuss the results and the potential policy implications.

Chapter 2 is a review of the literature regarding organizational justice, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. The conceptual basis of each of these variables is discussed, as are the reasons for studying them and other variables that have been shown to correlate with them. I also review instruments that are often used to measure job satisfaction, along with empirical studies that used the measures. Since there are numerous surveys that have been used in the past to gauge job satisfaction, an overview of the effectiveness of competing instruments is also included. Relatively few studies have been conducted that have specifically focused on police officers, and a review of this literature is included. Finally, two research questions and several related hypotheses are described based on the literature review regarding the influences of organizational justice on job satisfaction and organizational commitment, as well as how these two variables affect turnover intentions.

Chapter 3 describes the methodology for the current study. Included in this section are detailed descriptions of both the study sample and the population from which it is drawn, a description of the survey instrument used to collect these data, and a description of the collection procedure. Finally, I discuss the

limitations of previous studies and an explanation as to what sets these data apart from previous studies and makes this study unique and beneficial.

Chapter 4 summarizes the survey responses and compares the study sample and population to show representativeness. An analysis of the open-ended responses follows, and links between the three dimensions of organizational justice are drawn with the other study variables.

Chapter 5 is an analysis of the quantitative data. The reliability and validity of the study variables is included, as well as an analysis of the data showing the relationships between the study variables.

Chapter 6 contains a discussion of the findings, limitations of the current study, suggestions for future research, and potential policy implications.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

This chapter is a review of the relevant literature regarding organizational justice, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. Each of these concepts is discussed both separately and in relationship to one another. I also include a discussion of the research that has been conducted using samples collected from law enforcement agencies and conclude with two research questions and three hypotheses.

1. Organizational Justice

Organizational justice (French 1964) is a term used to discuss rules used to manage the distribution of outcomes (e.g., raises or promotions), the procedures used to make those decisions, and how employees (or members) are treated during the process. A number of studies (Greenberg 1986; Folger and Konovsky 1989; Greenberg 1987; Brett 1986; Nacoste 1987) have shown that the perceived fairness of outcomes resulting from contributions to an organization (referred to as distributive justice) and the fairness of the processes used to arrive at these decisions (referred to as procedural justice) can influence the work-related behaviors of employees, including performance and productivity, stress, withdrawal behaviors, trust in supervisors, organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

It should be noted that the concept of justice is a socially constructed one that is subjective in nature. That is, depending on differences in social norms, what is “fair” or “unfair” could be defined very differently. These subjective differences could be viewed on a macro scale (comparing the normal standards of behavior among entire societies) or at a much smaller scale, possibly within an occupational field or perhaps even a single organization. For example, what is viewed as “fair” treatment in China may be viewed as “unfair” in Australia, just as “fair” treatment in a law enforcement department may be viewed as “unfair” in a university setting.

Previous studies of organizational fairness have shown that distributive justice is more influential on employees’ evaluations of individual-level outcomes, such as pay satisfaction or promotions (Tremblay et al. 2000), while procedural justice is more influential on organizational-level evaluations like organizational commitment (Folger and Konovsky 1989; Sweeney and McFarlin 1993; Tyler 1990). The measurement of distributive justice and procedural justice and their relationship to other organizational factors has become known as the “two-factor approach” since each of these two dimensions is considered related but distinct.

1a. Distributive Justice

Researchers began studying fairness in organizations in the early 1960s. This research began with the study of the fairness of outcomes within an

organization and eventually became known as distributive justice (Homans 1961; Adams 1965). The term “distributive justice” was coined by Homans (1961) as part of his exchange theory of social behavior. Distributive justice, in the organizational sense, refers to the perception by individuals within an organization about the relative fairness of a particular outcome. More specifically, distributive justice addresses an individual’s evaluation of whether or not rewards (e.g., pay raises) are allocated fairly to employees based on their contributions to the organization. This is sometimes referred to as the “equity rule” (Deutsch 1975; Leventhal 1976), as it hinges on whether or not individuals believe they are being rewarded equitably for the amount of work they do. Adams’ (1965) theory of inequity refers to these contributions as “inputs” and notes that, for an individual to feel he/she has been treated fairly, he/she must perceive that his/her inputs and outcomes are equitable. If the perceived ratio of inputs and outcomes (not only for the individual, but for with whom the individual makes comparisons) are unequal, this can create feelings of tension.

For example, individuals within an organization may feel that pay raises are distributed unequally to different employees based upon how much work each individual performed or accomplished, leading to feelings of resentment toward the organization, those responsible for determining pay raise levels (typically supervisors or those occupying positions in management), or toward those individuals in the other group that are perceived to having benefitted undeservingly. In order for employees to feel that the pay raise process is being

conducted fairly, they must perceive that employees who have been less productive or who occupy less demanding positions are not receiving more of a pay raise than those employees who have been more productive or occupy positions with higher levels of responsibility.

If an outcome is perceived as unfair (i.e., if an individual receives more or less reward than it is perceived that he/she deserves based on his/her contribution to the organization), feelings of anger and aggression or, less often, guilt, are likely to occur. Homans (1961) notes that anger is the emotional response most often felt by an individual who perceives that he/she has not been rewarded fairly for his/her contributions in comparison with other like individuals. Perceived distributive injustice has been empirically linked to lower productivity (Greenberg 1987; Pfeffer and Langton 1993), withdrawal behaviors (Pfeffer and Davis-Blake 1992; Schwarzwald et al. 1992), reduced quality of work (Cowherd and Levine 1992) and stress (Zohar 1995).

1b. Procedural Justice

Unlike distributive justice, in which individuals make determinations about the perceived fairness of job-related outcomes, procedural justice concerns the processes in place within the organization and the fairness of these processes in arriving at specific outcomes. Whereas distributive justice is concerned with the fairness of actual outcomes of a situation, procedural justice is concerned with the fairness of the procedure used to make the determination about how

rewards are to be allocated. Using the previous example of pay raises, one studying procedural justice would be concerned with how decision makers determine how much of a pay raise to give to each employee (e.g., employee evaluations) as opposed to whether or not the employees felt that the amount of the pay raises were equitable. One can understand how an employee could be content with his/her annual pay raise, yet discontent with the associated performance rating.

Procedural justice became a primary focus in organizational justice research in the 1970s and 1980s (Thibaut and Walker 1975; Leventhal 1980). Procedural justice can be attained through both process control (i.e., having a “voice” during the procedure) and decision control (i.e., having the ability to influence an outcome), as well as through other related rules that are attributed to fairness. These rules include consistency, neutrality, accuracy of information, representation of all parties, correctability, and ethicality (Leventhal 1980). The consistency rule concerns procedures being applied consistently over time and from person to person, while the neutrality rule (sometimes referred to as bias suppression) says that decision-makers should not favor one individual over another. The accuracy rule notes that accurate and timely information should be used in the decision-making process. The correctability rule concerns the ability to appeal and correct wrongful decisions, while the representativeness rule, which is strongly related to the concept of process control, notes that all involved parties should be represented. Finally, the ethicality rule notes that

decision-makers should behave (and make decisions) in a way that is morally and ethically sound. If these factors are perceived as being met during the process, individuals will likely perceive the entire process as fair, even if they do not receive the anticipated outcome. However, if any of these standards are perceived as not being met, the fairness of the procedure may be called into question.

When this occurs and a procedure is viewed as “unfair,” employees have been shown to display lower levels of organizational commitment and helpful citizenship behaviors, as well as a lack of trust in managers and an increase in withdrawal behaviors, such as looking for a new job (Barling and Phillips 1993; Cropanzano and Greenberg 1997; Tyler and Smith 1998).

1c. Interactional Justice

Bies and Moag (1986) argued that using the two-factor approach (distributive justice and procedural justice) was insufficient in the study of organizational justice and suggested that a third type, interactional justice, be implemented. This type of organizational justice involves not the fairness of outcomes or procedures but instead the manner in which an employee perceives he/she is treated during interactions with supervisors or others involved in the decision-making process within the organization. Interactional justice consists of four criteria: 1) justification, 2) truthfulness, 3) respect, and 4) propriety. Greenberg (1993) noted that these criteria should be further separated into the

two categories of *interpersonal justice* and *informational justice*. The first category, informational justice, includes both justification and truthfulness. Justification involves thorough explanations for decisions that are made, while truthfulness is comprised of truthful and non-deception behavior. The second category, interpersonal justice, includes respect and propriety. Respect is generally being treated in a polite manner, while propriety involves not using inappropriate behavior or language in interactions. Bies (1986) identified several factors indicative of an absence of interactional justice. These factors included derogatory judgments, deception, invasion of privacy, inconsiderate or abusive actions, public criticism, and coercive behavior.

There has been some debate over the years as to whether or not interactional justice is conceptually distinct from procedural justice (Colquitt 2001). While procedural justice concerns the actual processes used to determine outcomes in an organization, interactional justice is certainly related in the sense that it involves how individuals are treated while these processes are being enacted. For example, one could argue that treating an individual in a polite and respectful manner while determining and subsequently explaining that individual's pay raise is inherently part of the process of deciding how pay raises will be allocated.

The interaction between parties, however, involves more than an objective determination of fair versus unfair or right versus wrong. Let us assume that the process of determining pay raises is viewed as fair by the

employee, but that the actual interaction between supervisor and employee is handled in two distinctly different ways. In this first scenario, the supervisor is friendly, thoroughly explains the process of deciding pay raises, and effectively communicates this process to the employee. The employee is likely to view the interaction as positive. In the second scenario, the supervisor is unfriendly, fails to explain the pay raise process, or is condescending towards the employee. It is easy to see that, regardless of whether or not the employee perceives the system used to determine pay raises is fair and equitable, he/she could come away from this interaction feeling that he/she was treated poorly or unfairly. Colquitt (2001) confirmed that three distinct categories of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional) are appropriate and, although correlated, do not significantly overlap when operationalized properly. He argued that to collapse interactional measures into procedural would mask important differences.

2. Job Satisfaction

Although there have been many ideas about what factors job satisfaction encompasses and what the term is actually referring to, there is little true consensus about how to measure job satisfaction. Some researchers believe that job satisfaction can be studied globally using the same questions across different types of occupations (Jayaratne 1993), while others feel that occupations vary enough that each needs a more specific set of questions to tap into the concept

(Dantzker 1994), with the latter of these two approaches used in the current study.

One of the reasons that the concept of job satisfaction is so complicated to define and measure is because of the high number of factors that can contribute to one being “satisfied” in his/her work. As a result, there are many competing theories about what variables influence job satisfaction, each using different measurement instruments. The following is an explanation of some of the different views of what job satisfaction encompasses and the varying ways of measuring this concept.

2a. What is Job Satisfaction?

According to Spector (1997:2), job satisfaction is defined as “how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs.” While on the surface it may sound relatively straight-forward, job satisfaction is actually a very complex idea with a number of aspects that must be addressed. One of the major obstacles of studying job satisfaction is that there is disagreement about what the term really means or what aspects it truly encompasses.

Generally speaking, the term “job satisfaction” can be conceptualized as a combination of job characteristics, work environment, and personal traits and attitudes. To complicate matters, all of these elements are dynamic and can change quickly based upon organizational structure, changes in co-workers and supervisors, as well as any other number of things that can happen in one’s life

away from work that affects his/her mood, attitude, behavior, or life circumstances. One's job does not occur in a vacuum and, thus, other environmental factors can affect it.

2b. Why Do We Study Job Satisfaction?

As previously noted, job satisfaction can encompass many concepts and, as a result, is also related to a number of behaviors. Job satisfaction has been correlated with overall life satisfaction (Quinn et al. 1973; Spector 1997), low self-esteem (Quinn et al. 1973) and stress (Lester et al. 1981), physical and mental illness (Quinn et al. 1973; French and Caplan 1972; Spector 1997), productivity and performance issues (Hackman and Oldham 1975; Dantzer 1993; Spector 1997); absenteeism and turnover (Hackman and Oldham 1975; Dantzer 1993; Spector 1997), and even counterproductive behavior (Mangione and Quinn 1973), such as theft. It should be stressed at this point that these are correlates with job dissatisfaction rather than an argument that job dissatisfaction is causal in the relationships. Nonetheless, job satisfaction plays an important role in many of the things that are important to us, not only as individuals, but as a society. The importance of being satisfied with one's work, which plays a strong role in defining one's identity and position within our society, should not be underestimated.

2c. How Do We Measure Job Satisfaction?

Employers (specifically supervisors or managers) might simply assume that objective factors, such as salary or retirement plans, are the only important factors that contribute to whether or not individuals are satisfied with their jobs. This assumption could lead employers to believe that since their employees are paid a fair wage that is standard in that field of work or a particular geographic region of the country that employees should therefore be satisfied with their jobs (in leaner economic times where unemployment rates are above average, this argument could devolve into believing that employees should be satisfied to simply *have* a job). Even when these objective standards are met, assuming that a factor like salary is indeed the main contributing factor in job satisfaction, if employees *perceive* that they are not being paid fairly for their work this could certainly affect their feelings of satisfaction.

This highlights the importance of objective versus subjective measurements. Seashore and Taber (1975) note that studies where both types of measurements are used typically show that there is a higher correlation with subjective measures of the workplace and job satisfaction than with objective measures, such as salary. This gives further credibility to the old adage that “perception is reality.” The theory, known as the Thomas theorem, was popularized by the sociologist W.I. Thomas who stated that, “If men define situations as real, they are real in their consequences” (Thomas and Thomas 1928:572). The Thomas theorem undoubtedly provides support for the

usefulness of surveying populations in an effort to measure and understand their feelings toward the different aspects of their occupations, as well as to help determine their levels of job satisfaction and what issues contribute to one being satisfied or dissatisfied with his/her work. While some objective measurement such as comparison of salaries in an organization with the standard in the field could certainly yield data with which some broad generalizations about satisfaction could be made, it is less useful than a more detailed study of the feelings of employees about the job that they experience daily.

Seashore and Taber (1975), in their study of job satisfaction, argued that data can be collected in basic ways to measure the concept: facet-free and facet-specific. Facet-free primary data are collected when respondents are asked to report global measures of job satisfaction, with no specification about individual areas that could contribute to that level of satisfaction. Facet-specific primary data are obtained when the researcher instead asks respondents to report their levels of satisfaction with certain aspects of their job. While using facet-free data can help to glean a “big-picture” idea about respondents’ views on job satisfaction, it does not indicate what specific factors contribute to job satisfaction. Conversely, facet-specific approaches methodically plot what factors indicate job satisfaction. This allows not only a greater understanding of the concept of job satisfaction, but also more comparability among respondents (i.e., males and females may be equally satisfied with their jobs, but for very different reasons). While facet-free data would provide a measure of one’s level

of satisfaction, a facet-specific approach allows researchers to parse through the particular aspects of a job and determine *why* workers are satisfied or dissatisfied.

Occupations have different types of duties, responsibilities, structures, and strains. Therefore, one could assume that the concept of job satisfaction could be defined in different ways by different people occupying various types of occupations. This is an argument for the use of facet-specific methods that attempt to measure individual aspects of a given occupation rather than methods that focus more on global measures. While there are several sets of global indicators that could be used to measure the somewhat abstract concept of job satisfaction, what would be gained by using them? In other words, there could be situations where merely having an “overall job satisfaction score” could be useful (especially if the researcher has limited space or time), but if there are means to determine what actually *causes* satisfaction or dissatisfaction, should those not be used? Unfortunately, to determine causative relationships it is important to collect longitudinal data that repeatedly measure the same concepts over a period of time, allowing researchers to account for changes in satisfaction based on changes introduced into the work environment (e.g., a survey given to employees twice per year over a two-year period during a period where organizational structure is being changed and new management styles are adopted). However, using cross-sectional data does allow researchers to show correlations between variables (in this case, between job satisfaction and

turnover intentions), which may provide insight into how an organization is viewed by its employees or what the organization might be able to do to change the ways its employees relate to their work.

The use of a facet-specific approach has its drawbacks. Asking respondents to share their views on every possible source of satisfaction in their occupation has the potential to be time-consuming, tedious, and expensive. Additionally, the researcher may not be able to obtain enough pertinent information about a particular occupation to create a facet-specific instrument that covers every factor or the individual facets may be too difficult to measure. A goal of job satisfaction research should be to continue to develop facet-free approaches that have greater predictability.

While it may be feasible to develop a global measure of job satisfaction that spans across occupations (to compare dissimilar jobs), it is reasonable to believe that a facet-specific measure *within an occupation* could be more useful, depending on the goals of the particular research. Seashore and Taber (1975) suggest a “nested set of instruments” comprised of both facet-free and facet-specific questions that could be used in varying combinations depending on environmental circumstances. For example, it would be reasonable to assume that individuals occupying like professions might have similar situations that regularly occur in that occupation that would not (or be less likely to) occur in other occupations. If this is the case, then it might also be reasonable to assume that these individuals could have similar scenarios that they are faced with as

members of that type of organization that contribute to their happiness, unhappiness, motivation, morale, etc.

They further contended that factors from a number of different categories could potentially contribute to one's level of satisfaction. These factors range from individual differences such as personality, expectations, intelligence, values, emotional stability, and demographics to environmental factors such as type of job, job environment, structure, prestige, opportunity, pay, and political climate. Although this is not an all-inclusive list of work-related issues that could impact one's level of satisfaction, it serves the purpose of illustrating that job satisfaction could be affected by countless factors that it would be highly unlikely, if not completely impossible, to completely understand and explain every contributing aspect of job satisfaction.

3. Organizational Commitment

Work commitment has been characterized in a number of ways, from valuing one's career or specific job tasks to a more overarching commitment to hard work that an individual uses as a guide in all work-related endeavors (such as the Protestant Work Ethic). In this study, the focus is on organizational commitment, which is defined as commitment to an organization the individual is employed by or is a member of. A more common term to refer to this concept might be loyalty (wanting to remain a member or employee of a specific organization).

Mathieu and Zajac (1990) were interested in the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment. They identified several variables from each of the categories that have been shown to relate with organizational commitment. They found personal characteristics such as age, sex, education level, tenure within the organization and marital status were antecedents to organizational commitment, while variables like job satisfaction, motivation, stress, and union commitment were correlates of commitment, but causal order could not necessarily be established. Organizational commitment, not unlike the concepts of job satisfaction or stress, is a reaction to one's work environment. Finally, they found that the variables of job performance, perceived alternatives, intention to search and leave, attendance, lateness, and turnover were consequences of organizational commitment.

Personal characteristics generally had relatively small correlations with organizational commitment. Age was moderately positively correlated with organizational commitment, while education level had a small negative correlation with organizational commitment and organizational tenure had a small positive correlation with organizational commitment. Not surprisingly, job satisfaction and organizational commitment are commonly found to be strongly correlated concepts, though there is a lack of consensus in the literature about the causal order of this relationship. The debate about the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment is wide-ranging, with some studies (Bluedorn 1982; Koch and Steers 1978; Williams and Hazer 1986)

showing that job satisfaction causes organizational commitment, while others (Bateman and Strasser 1984; Farkas and Tetrick 1989) arguing that organizational commitment causes job satisfaction. Further still, there is at least one study (Currivan 1999) that argues that there is no significant relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment due to the fact that they are usually influenced by the same or similar antecedent variables. Finally, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found a small negative relationship between organizational commitment and actual turnover, although the relationships between organizational commitment and turnover intentions were large and positive.

Numerous studies (Meyer and Allen 1991; Meyer et al. 2002) have demonstrated the relationship between organizational commitment and intended and actual turnover behaviors, with organizational commitment consistently showing negative associations with turnover. However, job satisfaction, which may be the most commonly studied predictor of turnover (Hom and Kinicki 2001), is also highly negatively correlated with both turnover intentions and actual turnover (Griffeth et al. 2000).

4. Organizational Justice, Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

While there have been numerous studies about the relationships between perceptions of organizational justice, work-related attitudes, and behaviors, there

seems to be little consensus about how these factors of organizational justice actually relate to job satisfaction and organizational commitment. There are two primary theories about how organizational justice relates to job satisfaction: the personal outcomes model and the group-value model.

The personal outcomes model (McFarlin and Sweeney 1992) asserts that distributive justice is a stronger predictor of job satisfaction, while the group-value model (Alexander and Ruderman 1987; Clay-Warner et al. 2005) argues that procedural justice is more indicative of job satisfaction. A meta-analysis by Cohen-Charish and Spector (2001) found that distributive justice was more important in job satisfaction than procedural justice (personal outcomes model), while Colquitt et al. (2001) found support for the opposite model (the group-value model).

Cobb and Frey (1996) reported finding that procedural justice was positively related to both satisfaction and commitment, while Tang and Sarsfield-Baldwin (1996) found that both distributive and procedural justice were significantly related to several types of job satisfaction and to organizational commitment. Lowe and Vodanovich (1995), in their study of non-faculty administrative and support personnel, found that distributive justice measures accounted for more variance in both satisfaction and commitment than did procedural justice. A study by Barling and Phillips (1993) indicated that procedural justice was a strong predictor of organizational commitment and withdrawal behaviors, while distributive justice was not. As a result, theoretical

models of organizational justice, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment are highly varied and inconsistent. What is consistent in the study of organizational justice, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment is the lack of consistency of findings from different studies.

5. Turnover/Turnover Intentions

Turnover is when an individual ceases to work or be a member of an organization. Research on turnover has customarily been focused on voluntary (as opposed to involuntary) turnover of employees and the antecedents that lead to or influence this behavior. Hom and Griffeth (1995) note that voluntary turnover of members of an organization can reduce the effectiveness of that organization (i.e., the ability for that organization to achieve specified goals). It has been assumed that if the causes of voluntary turnover can be identified within an organization that those responsible for overseeing its effectiveness could take action to rectify those causes. As a result, the number of voluntary “quits” would be reduced.

One topic of interest, especially to sociologists, is that of the proposed effect of demographic variables on turnover intentions. There is some evidence that demographic variables do not specifically affect turnover intentions, but rather serve as control variables for other antecedents of turnover intentions, such as organizational commitment (Price 1995). Rarely have demographic characteristics been used in any capacity other than as control variables.

Carrell et al. (1992) noted that job satisfaction and organizational commitment were the two primary variables that determined intention to leave employment with an organization, a proposition that was confirmed by Tang et al. (2000). Further evidence was provided by Labatmediene et al. (2007), who found a strong negative relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions, while Udechukwu (2007), in a study of turnover intentions of correctional officers, found job satisfaction as a significant predictor of intentions to leave the organization. In that study, job satisfaction was parceled out to specifically look at intrinsic and extrinsic determinants of job satisfaction as opposed to using a global measure to look at overall satisfaction with the job. While both intrinsic and extrinsic factors were significantly related to turnover intentions, intrinsic factors were more significant than were extrinsic factors. Some examples of intrinsic job factors might include amount of independence (autonomy), variety of tasks, authority, or status, while extrinsic factors might include pay, benefits, type of supervision, policies, etc.

6. Empirical Studies of Organizational Justice in a Criminal Justice Setting

Empirical research regarding organizational justice and its impact on work outcome variables (such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment) in a criminal justice setting is not only inconsistent, but is also sparse. That said, several studies have been conducted with a sample of workers at correctional institutions. Griffin and Hepburn (2005) found that distributive

justice had no significant effect on organizational commitment, while Lambert (2004) found that while both distributive justice and procedural justice significantly impacted job satisfaction, only procedural justice influenced organizational commitment. In a more recent study, Lambert et al. (2007) found that both distributive and procedural justice influenced organizational commitment among correctional workers. Farmer et al. (2003) looked specifically at police officers' perceptions of the fairness on becoming undercover officers and found that distributive justice had more of an impact on job satisfaction than did procedural justice, but that there was no significant difference between procedural justice and distributive justice and organizational commitment.

Most studies dealing with police and organizational justice focus on police officer interactions with citizens and how different types of interactions influence the public perception of law enforcement. Only one study (Frost 2006) was found that looked specifically at how organizational justice factors influence job-specific outcomes (such as satisfaction and commitment) within police organizations. In addition, this study included no measure (in fact, no mention) of interactional justice, as is the case with many of studies of the topic. This constitutes a gap in the literature that this dissertation will address.

7. Demographic Factors

Prior to the 1960s, policing was a profession almost exclusively occupied by white males. As cities have changed and minorities have increased to become large percentages of the population, police departments have recognized the need and value of having a more diverse workforce, though white males still dominate policing. The rationale behind increasing the diversity of police officers lies in the notion that officers with different backgrounds, varying from higher levels of education to various ethnic backgrounds, should be able to communicate more effectively and understand the citizens they serve to a greater extent, thereby increasing public trust and confidence, as well as the level of service provided to the community.

As a result of an increasingly diversified police force, many researchers have focused on these differences in an attempt to explain not only differences in job performance, but also in officer perceptions of the job and the department in which they work. This has led to studies of how officers, based on the factors that set them apart from each other, experience stress, job satisfaction, and withdrawal behaviors, among others. However, the results of these studies have failed to produce the expected relationships. Several studies (Carlan 2007; Ducharme and Martin 2000) have found demographic variables to have little value in explaining job satisfaction. Labatmediene et al. (2007) and Koslowsky (1990) both found no relationship between demographic characteristics and organizational commitment, while Zhao et al. (1999) found that ethnicity,

gender and level of education were statistically insignificant and that demographic variables explained only 6 percent of job satisfaction in a sample of police officers. These studies tell us that demographic characteristics, while still important, are only a piece of the puzzle used to explain worker attitudes and behaviors.

7a. Education

Of all the factors that could have an influence on law enforcement officers, formal education is focused on most often. Carter and Sapp (1990) noted that officer education is on the rise across the United States as departments continue the process of professionalization. Police officers' level of education, especially differentiating between those with a college degree and those without, has been shown to correlate with level of stress (Case 2002) and promotion potential (Hynes 2007), as well as communication, decision-making, and critical thinking skills (Worden 1990; Carter and Sapp 1990), and job satisfaction and turnover (Buzawa 1984; Buzawa et al.1994; Lefkowitz 1974; Halsted 1985; Burke and Deszca 1987, 1988; Martelli et al. 1989; Regoli et al. 1989; Dantzker 1992, 1993).

Although a number of studies have been conducted using level of formal education as the independent variable and job satisfaction as the dependent variable, there is a lack of consensus regarding how education correlates with satisfaction or withdrawal behaviors. Dantzker (1992) found that level of

education was related to job satisfaction, with more highly educated officers also reporting higher levels of satisfaction, and these results were confirmed in a more recent study by Krimmel and Gormley (2003). The finding that formal education impacts job satisfaction, however, has failed to reach significance in other studies (Dantzker 1994). Some studies have found opposite results, with level of education having a negative relationship with satisfaction (Lofkowitz 1974). Finally, there have been numerous studies that have found no significant effect between level of education and job satisfaction (Griffin et al. 1978; Buzawa 1984; Winfree et al. 1997; Jones et al. 2005).

Iverson and Buttigieg (1999) found educational level to be negatively associated with organizational commitment and Parasuraman and Futrell (1983) found a strong negative relationship between level of education and intention to turnover among pharmaceutical salesmen. This issue is especially relevant with the recent trend to professionalize police agencies across the country. This dissertation assesses how educational level influences the relationships between job satisfaction and organizational commitment with intentions to turnover as both a control variable and as a moderating variable. The decision to examine level of formal education as a moderating variable was made because departments around the country have been increasing their educational requirements for new recruits. This change has the potential to change the landscape of policing if education has an effect on the way officers respond to the situations they find themselves in, especially in terms of performance and

turnover. Even though past research has been inconclusive regarding the influence of formal education, it is reasonable to assume that officers with high levels of formal education might find it easier to change jobs (or even careers) because having a college degree increases their potential opportunities in the labor market.

7b. Rank

The results regarding rank and satisfaction have also been somewhat mixed. While Dantzker (1994) found that sergeants were the least satisfied of all ranks in his sample, most studies report finding that satisfaction is higher among lower ranks (Sheley and Nock 1979; Hunt and McCadden 1985; Zhao et al. 1999; Burke and Deszca 1989) and that those occupying higher ranks tend to be more cynical than their lower-ranked counterparts (Gaines 1993). Several studies of police organizations have found rank to be negatively associated with both job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Brunetto and Farr Wharton 2003; McElroy et al. 1999), though there have been several studies that have concluded that rank is positively associated with satisfaction (Hoath et al. 1998; Winfree et al. 1997; Forsyth and Copes 1994). Metcalfe and Dick (2000), in their study of a police force in England, found that organizational commitment increased with rank, while other studies have found the opposite effects (Van Maanen 1975; Beck and Wilson 2000). Part of this dissertation focuses on how rank moderates the relationships between satisfaction and

intention to turnover and commitment and intention to turnover. Officers who occupy lower ranks might be more inclined to turnover because they are less invested in the department and in their jobs, whereas officers in higher ranks might be less able to change jobs regardless of their level of satisfaction or commitment due simply to an inability to move into a job with similar pay, benefits, or status.

7c. Gender and Race

The literature regarding job satisfaction and organizational commitment has commonly included both gender and race as control variables, with a focus on how these groups could experience their jobs differently due to discrimination. One might consider this focus particularly relevant when studying law enforcement, a profession traditionally dominated by white males. Wexler and Logan (1983) found that a vast majority of female officers (80 percent) reported high levels of stress associated with negative perceptions of male co-workers, and Morash and Haarr (1995) found that females were not as integrated into the police organization as were men.

Dantzker (1994) found female officers to have higher levels of job satisfaction than males. Both Love and Singer (1988) and Dantzker and Kubin (1998) found gender to be an insignificant predictor of job satisfaction, with both men and women reporting approximately equal levels of satisfaction. While some studies of job satisfaction in policing have found women to be less

satisfied than their male counterparts (Buzawa 1984; Buzawa et al.1994), others have found mixed results using different samples (Hunt and McCadden 1985). Several studies using non-police samples looked at the effects of gender on organizational commitment and also found mixed results. Singh et al. (2004) and Savery and Syme (1996) both found the men reported being more committed to their organization than women, while Marchiori and Henkin (2004) and Dixon et al. (2005) found the opposite.

Although there has been some evidence to show that minorities report higher levels of satisfaction than whites (Dantzker 1994), the overwhelming majority of studies that report significant differences based on race show that minorities report lower levels of satisfaction (Buzawa 1984; Buzawa et al. 1994). Most researchers tend to agree that race as an independent variable has shown little significance in job satisfaction, organizational commitment or turnover intentions (Felkenes and Lasley 1992). Both gender and race are included as control variables in this research, though further analysis is beyond the scope of this dissertation.

While many researchers have agreed that several demographic characteristics may have some influence on work-related outcomes such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover, these relationships are unclear. Inconsistent results regarding these characteristics and work-related outcomes are the one constant through the last three or more decades of organizational research. What may be more interesting, though, is how these

variables have been used in the research, most often serving as independent or control variables. One of the goals of the present study will be to examine how two of these variables, level of education and rank, moderate the relationships between 1) job satisfaction and turnover intentions, and 2) organizational commitment and turnover intentions (i.e. do these relationships change based on level of education or rank?).

Research Questions

Based on a review of the literature, this dissertation will address two research questions and three hypotheses regarding the relationships among organizational justice, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to turnover.

RQ1: How does organizational justice influence perceptions of job satisfaction and organizational commitment?

H1: Officers who report higher levels of organizational justice should report higher levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Furthermore:

A: Procedural justice has more influence on job satisfaction and organizational commitment than distributive justice (Alexander and Ruderman 1987).

B: Distributive justice has more influence on individual-level concerns than procedural justice (Tremblay et al. 2000).

C: Interactional justice is positively related to both job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Colquitt 2001).

RQ2: How do job satisfaction and organizational commitment influence intentions to turnover?

H2: There is a negative relationship between job satisfaction and intention to turnover (Carrell et al. 1992; Tang et al. 2000). Officers who have lower job satisfaction should report higher levels of intention to turnover. In addition:

A: Officers' rank moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and intention to turnover. The relationship between job satisfaction and intention to turnover will be weakened for senior officers.

B: Officers' formal level of educational attainment moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and intention to turnover. The relationship between job satisfaction and intention to turnover is stronger for officers with a college degree (B.A. or higher).

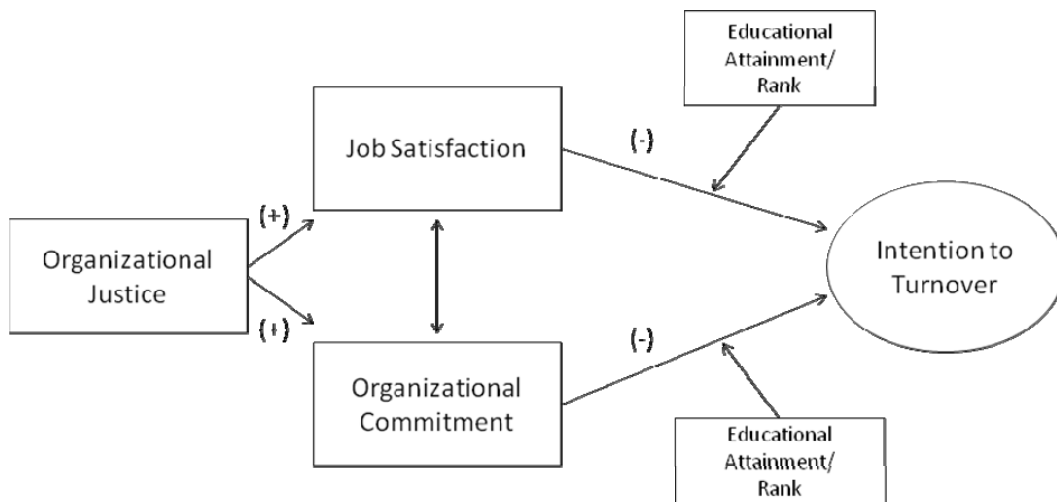
H3: Officers who have lower organizational commitment will report higher levels of intention to turnover (Carrell et al. 1992; Tang et al. 2000). In addition:

A: Officers' rank moderates the relationship between organizational commitment and intention to turnover. The relationship between organizational commitment and intention to turnover will be weakened for senior officers.

B: Officers' formal level of educational attainment moderates the relationship between organizational commitment and intention to turnover. The relationship between organizational commitment and intention to turnover will be stronger for officers with a college degree (B.A. or higher).

Figure 1.

Conceptual Model



Chapter 3

Data and Methods

1. Data

Potential respondents for this study were approached via the local lodge of the Fraternal Order of Police (FOP), the collective bargaining unit of a mid-size southwestern police department. Due to disagreement with the administration whether or not a study of job satisfaction should be conducted on the population, the FOP ultimately decided to contract a local university to complete this research study. Unlike most studies conducted on law enforcement officers, management was initially unsupportive of a study of its officers. This lack of support from the police department was expected to make the task of collecting responses more difficult, as officers would be asked to voluntarily participate in the study on their own time, as opposed to being allowed to participate in the survey while at work or from city computers. As a result, I expected a lower than normal response rate.

I attended a monthly general meeting of FOP members to inform those in attendance of the availability of the survey and its purpose. However, the effectiveness of this informational session is questionable since less than an estimated ten percent of the FOP membership attends these meetings on a regular basis. Approximately two weeks after the FOP membership meeting, all active members of the FOP were approached via a recruitment letter on

university letterhead included in a monthly FOP newsletter mailing. This letter briefly stated that a survey of job satisfaction of FOP membership was being conducted by the university at the request of the local FOP lodge and encouraged members to visit the website of the local FOP lodge to find a web link that would allow them to participate in the survey.

Within two to three days of receiving the recruitment letter, the FOP president was contacted by the Chief of Police, who stated that he felt that the survey could be useful. The Chief offered to send out an electronic mail to all officers stating that they would be allowed to take the survey while “on the clock” and from city computers, which was accepted. This almost certainly increased the response rate for this study, though it is unknown to what extent. Further recruitment efforts included a second electronic mail from the Chief and a note in the following month’s newsletter to FOP members, both to serve as a reminder that the survey was available and encouraging participation. The survey was available for approximately six weeks, at which time it was closed and no more responses were allowed.

1a. Population and Sample

Although the demographics were somewhat limited, I was able to gather enough comparable information between the data provided by the FOP and the data collected from the survey sample to determine if the sample appeared

representative of the population being studied. Comparison of demographic categories such as gender, race/ethnicity, rank, age and level of education provide face validity that the sample is representative of the population as a whole (see Table 1).

Additionally, the entire population of the department is 998 sworn officers (including officers from all ranks except Chief of Police). Five hundred thirty respondents began the online survey, while 460 respondents completed every question. The resulting sample is over 50 percent of the population of the department, which is a strong return. The only question with a forced answer was the agreement to participate included in the informed consent at the beginning of the survey. With this exception, participants could pick and choose which questions they wanted to answer and those they preferred to skip.

Table 1
Comparison of Demographics between Sample and Population

		Sample	Population
Gender	Male	91.6	88.5
	Female	8.4	11.5
Race/Ethnicity	White	86.8	84.8
	Black	3.9	7.6
	American Indian	5.4	2.2
	Asian	0.4	0.8
	Hispanic	3.5	4.4
	White Non-White	86.8 13.2	84.8 14.2
Rank	Officer	12.0	19.0
	Sergeant	67.2	63.2
	Lieutenant	15.0	13.3
	Captain	3.7	3.1
	Above Captain	2.2	1.4
Education	No College Degree	32.8	47.9
	Associate	22.7	15.8
	Bachelor	39.6	31.0
	Advanced	5.0	5.3
Age	Under 25	0.7	4.1
	25-35	26.7	27.7
	36-45	45.1	40.9
	Over 45	27.5	27.4
Tenure	Less than 1 year	0.4	3.3
	1-5 years	10.6	19.4
	6-10 years	23.1	20.9
	11-15 years	14.5	9.3
	Over 15 years	51.4	47.1

2. Online Surveys

The use of online surveys is a relatively new methodological advancement considering that the technology to access the Internet has been widely available only since the late 1990s. Van Selm and Jankowski (2006) noted that even though the use of online surveys may not be suitable for all populations, especially those without access to computers and the Internet or the technical knowledge to access an online survey, it would not be unreasonable to conduct a study using an online survey to collect data from a population with access to these resources. It was made clear by the FOP executive board that the FOP membership in this study has such access, either at home or by participating in the survey from the FOP lodge. Based on these assurances, I assumed that potential respondents had the means with which to participate in the survey in an online format (though I was unable to ascertain the technical abilities of all officers) and I decided that the use of an Internet-based survey instrument was appropriate to reach this population.

There were several reasons for this decision. First, at the beginning of the project when I was contacted by the FOP in regards to conducting a survey of their membership, there was an apparent lack of interest by the department for such a study. As such, the membership would not be allowed to participate in an FOP funded study while “on the clock” (i.e. at work for the department). This unexpected hurdle made reaching the population more difficult, as only a fraction of the membership regularly attends monthly FOP meetings (no more

than 10 percent). This reduced the available options for reaching the population to whatever contact could be made by the representatives of the local FOP. As a result, administering a paper survey, either in person at shift line-ups or by leaving the survey at the department for interested participants to fill out and return, were not feasible options. Secondly, the local FOP had limited funds for this project. Copy and mail costs alone for a population of nearly 1,000 potential respondents would have exceeded the budget for this project. These issues led me to contemplate the use of a web-based survey tool (in this case www.surveymonkey.com) to collect data, which could be utilized for a nominal fee. I originally intended to send emails to all members of the local FOP in an effort to direct them to a hyperlink to the online survey if they were interested in participating, but personal email addresses were unavailable (department email addresses were accessible, but not appropriate given the considerations above). The decision was made to create a hyperlink to the online survey on the local FOP website and to direct potential respondents to this website/hyperlink through the monthly local FOP newsletter mailing which contained a brief letter stating the purpose and location of the survey on university letterhead. Thirdly, I felt that the use of an online survey would help ease any possible concerns over identification of respondents. Had surveys been mailed to potential respondents with the requirement that they be returned via mail, anonymity might have been compromised.

Several advantages to the use of online surveys have been identified in the literature (Mehta and Sivadas 1995; Smith 1997; Medlin et al. 1999; Brennan et al. 1999), including the removal of interviewer bias, potential coding errors inherent with hand-coding surveys into a digital format, and the notion that online surveys may be more convenient for potential respondents, thereby increasing the response rate.

Medlin et al. (1999) categorized samples obtained via the Internet into three groups: recruited samples, unrestricted samples, and screened samples. Recruited samples are picked from a specific, defined group and must use a password to enter an Internet-based survey. Unrestricted samples refer to those collected using an online survey that is not password protected and that anyone who finds the survey may participate in. Finally, screened sampling involves screening out a specific group based upon their responses to the survey. Although researchers would have preferred to use a recruited sample for this study, it was decided that requiring a password to enter the survey with a population that has not been shown to be technologically proficient could increase the difficulty of completing the survey and possibly pose further selection bias in the sample, as well as reduce the number of responses.

One of the strengths of the online survey methodology may be in the collection of qualitative responses. Sheehan and McMillan (1999) found that respondents using online surveys that included open-ended questions were more likely to answer them than they were in the more traditional paper-and-pencil

surveys. This methodology should not be overlooked when the circumstances permit the use of online surveys in qualitative studies, especially in situations might prefer to not be identified (e.g., a study of deviant behavior). This is supported by the number of open-ended responses collected using these types of questions (1,065). Couper et al. (2001) found that the use of a progress indicator and radio buttons in the online survey resulted in less missing data and a higher likelihood that respondents would complete more of the survey. A progress indicator was used to show respondents how much of the questionnaire they had completed, as well as how much still remained. A vast majority of respondents answered every question.

Online survey methodology is not without its weaknesses. Self-selection is certainly an issue with this type of study (Wright 2005; Stanton 1998; Thompson et al. 2003; Wittmer et al. 1993). Potential respondents who are more technologically savvy (including younger respondents) may be much more likely to participate in an online survey, especially if they are comfortable with navigating the Internet. These data do not seem to indicate an over-representation of younger respondents, signifying that this concern may not have been an issue in this study. However, it is unknown how the decision to use an online survey influenced potential respondents. Due to the aforementioned limitations imposed by a lack of cooperation from the department, I was unable to administer surveys using different methods (online in conjunction with paper and pencil) to compare response rates.

3. Measurement

3a. Job Satisfaction

Hackman and Oldham (1975) developed one of the leading instruments for measuring job satisfaction called the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS). It was created to measure the characteristics of job motivation to aid in the development of a plan to redesign the structure of jobs in an era of job enrichment and later to assess the redesign and how employee motivation changed. However, while the JDS has remained a consistently popular method used to measure job satisfaction, it is actually more of a measure of motivation, a concept that may be defined differently than satisfaction. Hackman and Oldham (1975) argue that five core job dimensions (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback) should be measured and compiled to formulate a motivating potential score (MPS) of a job. The theory is that these core job dimensions significantly contribute to three psychological states that are highly correlated to positive work-related outcomes. These three psychological states are (1) experienced meaningfulness of work, (2) experienced responsibility for the outcomes of work, and (3) knowledge of results of work activities.

According to the JDS, the aforementioned psychological states are correlated with work-related outcomes such as internal motivation, work satisfaction, performance, absenteeism, and turnover (Hackman and Oldman

1975). Although this tool has remained popular in the study of job satisfaction, Harvey and Billings (1985) argued that previous studies failed to use this technique when testing the instrument. They concluded that, while the JDS is a useful instrument, it may need to be reconfigured because the factors are highly inter-correlated and may be tapping the same concepts.

Considerable thought was given to the use of the JDS in the current study, but ultimately I decided that it was not the best instrument to use with a population of law enforcement personnel. This is due in no small part to an inability to measure some important outcomes that I did not have access to (such as performance). However, if these data were available in a department that had recently made a switch in policing style (from traditional to community-oriented policing, for example), additional consideration should be given to the use of JDS, as it was developed specifically to measure how attitudes differed after structural changes were made in an organization (referred to as work redesign).

The Job Descriptive Index (Smith et al. 1969) is another commonly used instrument for measuring job satisfaction. It uses 72 questions to measure five dimensions of job satisfaction (work, pay, promotion, supervision, and co-workers). All questions must be answered with “Yes,” “No,” or “Uncertain.” A number of studies have used the JDI to assess job satisfaction which has resulted in a considerable amount of data and repeated tests of reliability and validity. Although this specific instrument was not used in this study, partially due to the

decision to keep the survey below one hundred questions, the five dimensions that the JDI is comprised of are present in a more generalized form.

Spector (1985) developed the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) to gauge employee satisfaction. It consists of nine job-related factors that are calculated by summing the scores of the four questions for each factor. The result is nine possible facet scores and one overall job satisfaction score (calculated by summing all factors). The JSS has shown strong internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha = .91 for the overall scale), though the reliability of some subscales was considerably lower. The validity of the JSS has been confirmed through comparisons with JDS and JDI, as the questions used in the JSS closely resemble those of both the JDS and JDI.

3b. Summary of a meta-analysis of job satisfaction measures

Van Saane et al. (2003) conducted a review of thirty-five of the most popular survey instruments used to measure job satisfaction since the mid-1970s. They focused primarily on the internal consistency, construct validity, and responsiveness (performance over time) of each instrument. Reliability was tested by measuring internal consistency (using Cronbach's alpha and Pearson correlation), while validity was measured by using convergent, discriminant, and content validity. Cronbach's alpha was considered adequate with a coefficient of .80 or higher, while the test-retest reliability was examined using the Pearson

correlation coefficient and was considered adequate at the .70 level or higher. The convergent validity of the instruments was also used to assess their usefulness, with an acceptable minimum level of at least .50. Convergent validity is a comparison of how different instruments measure the same (or very similar) concept. Discriminant validity, or the degree to which instruments measure related but different concepts, was also assessed, with a correlation between instruments a maximum of .50. Finally, the researchers assessed content validity of each instrument by comparing it with the existing literature to determine if the concepts included were being measured with the instrument. In addition, the authors also conducted a content analysis of the job satisfaction literature to identify the most popular factors measured in the study of job satisfaction. They identified eleven “domains” (work content, autonomy, growth development, financial rewards, promotion, supervision, communication, co-workers, meaningfulness, workload, and work demands) and concluded that these eleven areas encompassed the concept of job satisfaction.

Their conclusion was that only seven of the thirty-five most popular and frequently used job satisfaction instruments met their minimum standards for validity and reliability. They suggest that the Measure of Job Satisfaction (MJS) was the most reliable survey instrument to measure job satisfaction.

Surprisingly, the JDI did not meet these standards, even though it has been among the most often used survey instrument to gauge job satisfaction (Van Saane et al. 2003). However, none of the instruments used in this analysis were

developed for use with a law enforcement department (some of the instruments were designed specifically for a particular organization or with a specific occupation in mind). Dantzker's (1993) law enforcement satisfaction survey, the instrument that was used as a model for this study, was not analyzed.

Although there are many competing theories about what factors job satisfaction encompasses and how to measure these concepts, it should be noted that a global measure of job satisfaction across occupations is not without its potential problems. Occupations are structured and carried out very differently, with varying levels of supervision, autonomy, and authority. As noted by Buffum and Konick (1982), depending on the instrument used to assess job satisfaction, not all of the included items may necessarily apply to different types of employees or occupations. For this reason, the focus will now shift to a discussion of instruments used to assess job satisfaction within the occupation of law enforcement.

Law enforcement officers, it could be argued, occupy positions that could be hard to compare to other jobs that are not inherently dangerous or exist to preserve the public order. As a result, the use of an instrument to gauge job-specific factors may make a more valuable contribution to understanding satisfaction among police officers than would a more general set of questions. One of the goals of the current research is to build upon an existing measure of job satisfaction in policing, while also examining several hypotheses about how

job satisfaction relates to both organizational justice and intentions to leave an organization (voluntary turnover).

Several studies have focused on law enforcement and job satisfaction (Love and Singer 1988; Greene 1989; Pelfrey 2007; Lester et al. 1981; Zhao et al. 1999) using the JDS or JDI (or a combination of the two) as a model for their survey instrument or an original instrument (Buzawa 1984; Buzawa et al. 1994; Holden 1980; Johlke and Duham 2000; Brunetto and Farr Wharton 2003; Grant et al. 1990).

While many competing job satisfaction methods have been used through the years, several of which have been used and tested extensively, few of those instruments were designed to capture the attitudes and feelings of police officers specifically. Mueller and McClosky (1990) noted that occupation-specific measurements can better tap the factors most relevant within a particular field of work, primarily due to having items that specify issues and facets of individual jobs that make them different or unique.

Buzawa (1984) developed her own survey instrument after reviewing the literature on police job satisfaction and finding a lack of consensus as to what factors should be used to best gauge peace officer motivation and satisfaction. This instrument contains numerous questions to measure the factors of compensation and benefits, prestige, supervision and leadership, job-related stress, family life, and self-fulfillment. She compiled a scale of job satisfaction

by asking six questions regarding satisfaction with the organization and the work itself. The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .79, which is a reasonably reliable measure of the concept.

Dantzker (1993) noted that although there are a number of validated measures to assess job satisfaction, there may be professions where these measures are inadequate due to the nature of the work. He argued that law enforcement (specifically policing) was one such profession and, due to the inherent differences between policing and other professions, there should be an instrument designed to capture the unique aspects related to policing. As a result, Dantzker (1993) developed a quantitative survey instrument specifically for use within law enforcement to gauge job satisfaction (as well as the specific factors that contribute to it). This survey consisted of a twenty-three item multi-faceted scale of factors that most commonly appear in job satisfaction literature with specific regard to law enforcement officers. The decision to develop this new instrument was in response to previously used surveys lacking items that tap into police work, an occupation where employees are routinely placed in different types of situations than might be typical in factories or offices. In addition to the facet-specific scales, a three-item scale was also used to measure global job satisfaction. Thus far, this instrument has been used in fourteen different police agencies of varying sizes and from varying geographical areas, and has shown high levels of reliability and consistency (Dantzker 1993, 1994, 1997).

Although there are a number of measures of job satisfaction (Hackman and Oldham 1975; Reiss 1967; Smith et al. 1969), few (Buzawa 1984; Buzawa et al. 1994; Lester et al. 1981; Burke 1989; Regoli et al. 1989) apply specifically to law enforcement (Dantzker 1993). For this reason, Dantzker (1993) designed a survey instrument to gauge job satisfaction among police officers. I elected to use a modified version of this survey instrument for the current study in order to capture factors that related specifically to policing. This instrument consists of 23 items related to the profession of law enforcement and asks respondents to indicate their level of satisfaction (How satisfied are you with...) with each item using 5-point Likert-style format (Very Dissatisfied to Very Satisfied). It should be noted that several minor modifications were made to fit the language and structure of department being studied. “Administrators” was changed to “Command Staff,” “Appeal/Grievance” was changed to “Grievance Procedures,” “Promotion System” to “Promotional Procedures,” “Report System” to “Report-Making System,” and three questions referring to supervisor support, assistance, and availability were specified to indicate the respondent’s immediate supervisor (as opposed to the more ambiguous title of “supervisor” which could mean any supervisor). This was specified because lieutenants are first-line supervisors and are commonly referred to as “supervisors” by the rank-and-file officers and sergeants. I chose to use the term “immediate supervisor” in place of the more general “supervisor” to reduce the likelihood that respondents would rate lieutenants (assuming, of course, that their supervisor

was not a lieutenant). These items were then combined to create a measure of job satisfaction specific to policing (Dantzker 1993).

Although modeled after this survey instrument by Dantzker, there were a number of changes made as a departure from the original survey. First, the subscales that were created using the 23 items in the instrument were modified. Dantzker (1993) created four distinct job-specific facet subscales out of the instrument (General Administration, Extras, Job, and Equipment). However, I felt that these items should be separated into different subscales to provide more distinction between conceptually different categories. As a result, I created five facet-specific categories (as opposed to Dantzker's four). These categories are Supervisors, Equipment, Job/Task, Pay/Benefits, and Policy/Administration. Each item and each scale are weighted equally. The subscale Supervisors consists of the three supervisor-related questions (supervisor support, availability and assistance) and has a Cronbach's alpha of .97. The second subscale, Equipment, is identical to Dantzker's conceptualization, which asks about satisfaction with equipment availability and quality. The Cronbach's alpha for this subscale was .88. The third subscale, Job/Task, consists of two items (current assignment and general duties) and has a Cronbach's alpha of .72. The fourth subscale, Pay/Benefits, consists of six items (insurance, pay, benefits, retirement, educational incentives, and overtime compensation). The Cronbach's alpha for this subscale is .80. Finally, the Policy/Administration subscale consists of ten items (interdepartmental transfer procedures,

educational requirements, off-duty job policy, grievance procedures, promotional procedures, efficient evaluations, command staff, in-service training, community relations, and report-making system). This subscale has a Cronbach's alpha of .71. This decision to change the facet-specific subscales resulted in all of the alpha scores reaching a reliability coefficient greater than .70 (using Dantzker's method, two of the four subscales did not meet this standard). This signifies that the items within each scale are measuring conceptually distinct facets of job satisfaction. The Cronbach's alpha for the overall job satisfaction scale (all 23 items combined) is .86.

3c. Organizational Justice

Organizational justice was measured using a very different approach. At the conclusion of several pages of the survey (which consisted mainly of Likert-style questions), respondents were given an opportunity to respond in any of nine separate sections titled "Additional comments (optional)." Respondents could enter any information they chose (or forego these questions entirely), from a few words to several paragraphs, in these sections. Respondents often used this opportunity to expand upon or explain their responses to the Likert-style questions. Having these open-ended sections as a part of the survey allowed respondents to be more specific about their answers and resulted in a far richer dataset (1,065 individual responses were collected).

As a result of having these detailed open-ended responses, I was able to discern very specific information about the respondents' perceptions of the three types of organizational justice: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice, as well as showing the relationships between organizational justice and other work-related outcomes.

3d. Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment has been operationalized and measured in a variety of ways. Over time, measurements of organizational commitment have been reduced to two major types of commitment: attitudinal and calculated.

Attitudinal commitment refers to:

The relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization. Conceptually, it can be characterized by at least three factors: a) a strong belief in an acceptance of the organization's goals and values; b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization. (Mowday et al. 1982:27)

Calculated commitment, on the other hand, refers not to believing in the goals or purposes of an organization but instead to being invested in an

organization to such an extent that it would be difficult for the individual to leave and seek employment elsewhere. An example of calculated commitment might be a retirement plan in which benefits cannot be realized until the employee has met a certain number of years with the organization or achieved a position within a particular organization such that the individual would find it either difficult or impossible move to another organization and have a similar level of pay or status.

Mathieu and Zajac (1990) point out that these types of commitment can be strongly linked, depending on the individual situation, though they are often measured separately. In the current study, organizational commitment is conceptualized in its broadest sense, encompassing aspects of both attitudinal commitment and calculated commitment. They conducted a meta-analysis of articles since the 1970s that included measurements of organizational commitment. Organizational commitment was measured with two items, 1) Would you advise a friend or family member to join this department, and 2) I am proud to say that I work for the [name of department]. The first question allowed respondents to answer either “yes” or “no,” while the second question was a Likert-style question that ranged from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” In order to combine these items into a scale measuring the concept of organizational commitment, the second question was transformed into a dichotomous variable by condensing the responses into “agree” or “do not agree.” Those respondents who answered “agree” or “strongly agree” were

transformed into “agree” while all other answers (strongly disagree, disagree, and neutral) were transformed into “do not agree.” When combined into a scale of organizational commitment, the Cronbach’s alpha resulted in .71. As with the other scales used in this survey, all items were weighted equally.

3e. Turnover Intentions

To gauge respondents’ intention to turnover, a scale was created using two general questions regarding leaving their current job. Respondents were asked, “If I could change agencies without losing seniority, pay or benefits, I would,” and “If I received an acceptable offer outside of policing, I would accept it.” Although these questions are similar to those Dantzker (1993) used, they were modified in an attempt to make them more specific and useful, as well as to measure a different concept (Dantzker used these questions in an attempt to measure overall job satisfaction). The possible responses to this question ranged from “Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree.” The Cronbach’s alpha of this two-item scale is .68, a fair measure of the concept.

3f. Demographics

Respondents were asked to voluntarily report a number of common demographic variables, including gender, marital status, level of education,

race/ethnicity, and age, as well as the police-specific variables of years of service and rank. Level of education and age were divided into categories which asked the respondents to report which range they fell into. This was done at the request of the FOP executive board in order to protect the identity of respondents. Respondents were also asked to list their race or ethnicity. Finally, rank was divided into several categories (officer; sergeant; lieutenant; captain; above captain). The decision not to differentiate between categories above captain was made due to the fact that there are relatively few personnel occupying major (10) and deputy chief (4) positions. Due to concerns that these individuals could be identified by their responses, these positions were collapsed into a broader category to preserve anonymity and protect respondents.

The study sample obtained is representative of the larger population in several categories (refer to Table 1 for a comparison). The population is predominantly white and male, and approximately half of the officers have a college degree (a high school diploma is the minimum educational requirement for the department).

Respondents were asked to provide their current level of educational attainment with the question, "Which of the following best describes your current level of education?" Possible responses were "High school/GED," "Some college (no degree)," "Associates degree," "Bachelors degree," "Some graduate school," and "Graduate degree" (note that a category encompassing "less than high school diploma" was not included, as individuals without a high

school education would not meet the minimum qualifications of employment with the department). This item was transformed into a dichotomous variable to differentiate between those respondents who hold a bachelors degree or higher and those that do not hold at least a bachelors degree.

Respondents were also asked to provide their current rank with the question, “Which of the following describes your current rank?” Possible responses were “Officer,” “Sergeant,” “Lieutenant,” “Captain,” and “above Captain” (the decision not to include the rank categories of “Major” or “Deputy Chief” was made due to the limited number of these higher level positions that exist; both of these categories are instead included under the category of “above Captain” to limit the possible identification of respondents). For the purposes of this study, this item was transformed into a dichotomous variable to differentiate between “Junior officers” (officers and sergeants) and “Senior officers” (lieutenant and above). This decision was made because, unlike many departments where the rank of sergeant is a supervisory position, sergeants do not have supervisory authority (they are viewed as more seasoned officers who have been on the job longer than officers). Lieutenants are the first-level supervisors and are often viewed as “management” or “administration” rather than line officers.

4. What Sets These Data Apart?

Job satisfaction surveys conducted on police officers have typically focused on field officers (Buzawa 1984; Buzawa et al.1994; Dantzker 1993; Greene 1989; Zhao et al. 1999; Brunetto and Farr-Wharton 2003). Though data collected only on certain ranks does not give a complete picture of forces at work within a department, it is nonetheless understandable why it has often been done this way. Patrol officers make up the majority of any police force and have considerably more encounters with the public, often while performing in a law enforcement capacity and in high tension situations, while those in the upper ranks are typically “behind the scenes” and handle more administrative and management functions as opposed to law enforcement functions. Although it is useful to understand the attitudes and perceptions of line officers and how they view their jobs, it is just as important to understand those in the administration who are ultimately responsible for enacting and enforcing rules and regulations. By collecting data from all ranks, researchers can better understand the context of situations and, therefore, have a better understanding of responses and the social dynamics in a department. For example, line officers may perceive a breakdown in communication between themselves and the administration. If only patrol officers were surveyed, then the conclusion would be that officers are unhappy with their communication with administration. If data are also collected on members of the administration and show that they do not perceive any problems in communication between themselves and the line staff, then

there is a new layer of complexity added to the issue, with one side perceiving problems with communication and the other side perceiving no problems.

Having this additional information could be helpful in understanding not only what different groups perceive as problematic issues but also to aid police agencies identify specific areas that need attention.

The use of online surveys has become a more popular data collection method in recent years that would not have been possible just 15 years ago. With the widespread availability of personal computers and increasingly widespread access to the Internet, researchers are now able to tap into some populations in a new way. Considering that this is a burgeoning methodology, there is still much research left to be done on the potential positives and negatives of online sampling. Some work has been done in this area to compare factors such as sampling bias (Medlin et al. 1999) and response rates (Cobanoglu et al. 2001) to more traditional methods of data collection (mailings, face-to-face interviews, etc.). I was unable to find any literature where online surveys were used to collect data from a sample of police officers.

Although there have been a number of job satisfaction/morale surveys conducted on police officers (Buzawa 1984; Buzawa et al. 1994; Dantzker 1993; Greene 1989; Zhao et al. 1999), I found none that allowed respondents to answer open-ended questions. The current survey instrument, modeled after Dantzker's police job satisfaction survey (1993), was modified to allow participants to respond to a combination of both Likert-type questions and then

have the option to voluntarily enter comments. These comments varied, consisting primarily of complaints, suggestions for change, and follow-up explanations and qualifications of answers to the Likert-style questions.

The fact that this survey was conducted for the local FOP lodge is unique and sets these data apart from other studies. Most previous studies of police job satisfaction (Dantzker 1993; Dantzker 1994; Dantzker 1997; Buzawa 1984; Buzawa et al. 1994) have been conducted with the approval, consent, and cooperation of the department in question. One might draw the conclusion that these agencies were interested in assessing the attitudes of their workforce (or were at least open enough to allow researchers to conduct research on this topic within their department). The current study was conducted for the local FOP lodge, a collective bargaining organization whose membership consists solely of sworn officers (of all ranks except Chief) of the department in question. The purpose of contracting this study was to use the results to aid in future collective bargaining negotiations with the department. The executive board of the local FOP lodge felt that, if they could have an objective study conducted by representatives of a legitimate and credible institution, they would be able to not only understand better the attitudes of their membership but be more prepared to bargain for their interests.

Chapter 4

Research Question 1

This chapter is an examination of the relationships between organizational justice and job satisfaction, organizational commitment and intention to turnover using selected qualitative comments from respondents. Due to the nature of data, these relationships are not tested in this dissertation. I decided not to quantify these responses to assess the amount of influence these variables had on each other and instead elected to explore these potential relationships in a qualitative fashion so the richness of the responses would not be lost.

Research Question 1

How does organizational justice influence perceptions of job satisfaction and organizational commitment?

Open-ended responses were selected from all available data to serve two distinct purposes: 1) to inform the quantitative data collected on specific job satisfaction facets and organizational commitment and, 2) to form a conceptual link between the facets of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and the three types of organizational justice (distributive, procedural and interactional). As stated previously, job satisfaction was divided into five separate subscales for

the purpose gaining a more in-depth understanding of what specific factors influence job satisfaction, as well as to determine to what extent each factor influenced job satisfaction. These subscales (Supervisors, Equipment, Job/Task, Pay/Benefits, and Policy/Administration) are presented below. Additionally, linkages are made between each facet and organizational justice (where appropriate). Due primarily to the lack of having a measurable construct of organizational justice, this is simply a qualitative exploration of these relationships.

1. Organizational Justice and Job Satisfaction

Organizational justice essentially refers to how members of an organization perceive they are being treated in terms of fairness (in this case, police officers' views of the department they work for). As previously noted, organizational justice is typically divided into distributive, procedural, and interactional justice in an effort to assess the effects of fairness in different areas. This is not to say that each type of organizational justice is completely separate from the others. In fact, distributive, procedural, and interactional justice have all been shown to be strongly related with each other. For this reason, some of the responses regarding job satisfaction and organizational commitment might seem to contain aspects of multiple types of justice. An effort was made to categorize responses in the best possible place to show

associations among concepts, with a realization that this process may appear to be somewhat subjective at times.

This section is organized as follows: each facet of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and finally turnover intentions will be taken in turn. Items included in each scale will be identified and, when appropriate, there will be a sub-heading that attempts to show the intersection between the variable in question and organizational justice. Finally, it should be noted that responses have been edited to correct some grammar and spelling, as well as to remove names and places. This editing was minimal and done only in order to improve the readability (without sacrificing emotional content) and to preserve anonymity of the respondents, the department, and the city.

2. Pay/Benefits

The first job satisfaction subscale, Pay/Benefits, consists of insurance, educational incentives, pay, benefits, overtime compensation, and retirement program. Although the items in this scale are more inclusive of simply “pay” or the more general “benefits,” the scale was constructed to encompass a wider range of items related to compensation as an employee of the department (the tangible reward for work in its different forms). For example, this sergeant noted that:

Pay and benefits - satisfied, but I would always take more!

Another sergeant commented on pay in relation to why he is more satisfied than when he first started:

Our pay has greatly increased...

Finally, a lieutenant commented that:

We are paid very well. Benefits are good even though there are some things that could be better. This is a great place to work.

Other respondents went on to explain that, although they have some complaints about other areas of their jobs, items included in Pay/Benefits are generally positive. This sergeant noted that pay and benefits are good, though he would like to see some changes in the command staff:

I love my job and this department. Yes, there are things that could be better, but for the most part we are very lucky due to the fact we are paid well for the cost of living in [city name – deleted], and we have a good relationship with our citizens. We could have more support from our command staff in some situations, but in every situation we only get half of the story on why some things are handled the way they were.

In another example, this time from a lieutenant, the comment is favorable towards the pay and benefits available to employees, and the respondent elects instead to express his/her discontent with the promotional system:

While not happy with the promotional system and my current rank level, I find the pay and the benefits are better than I could have imagined. It is still a very stable career.

Finally, though few respondents from higher ranks commented on items from the Pay/Benefits scale, those who did were complimentary. These two respondents (a captain and a major or above, respectively) noted that:

The opportunities have increased and I have taken advantage of them. The benefits and pay are outstanding.

Overall, it's a great career with good pay and benefits.

Some respondents were unhappy with various aspects of the items included in the Pay/Benefits scale. One female sergeant hinted that benefits (specifically insurance coverage) are not what she anticipated they would be, implying that perhaps officers have been misled regarding what types of benefits would be offered to employees:

Less benefits than promised...costs of insurance.

And this sergeant echoed the belief that insurance benefits could be better:

Our benefits (health,dental,vision) need major improvements.

While this lieutenant expressed dissatisfaction with the retirement system, preferring to have more control of how his funds are invested:

I feel our retirement system is an old, outdated system with little control by the employee. There are better options such as 401K retirement systems that give more control to the employee.

These respondents, both officers, expressed dissatisfaction with the cost and coverage of medical insurance premiums and overtime compensation. Note that the comments

regarding overtime are not actually about the level of compensation but the procedures that supervisors follow when approving overtime:

I will start with insurance (benefits). Currently I pay over \$340 a month for a family of three for just medical insurance. This does not include dental or vision. My wife had the same insurance with her job and it was only \$180 a month for the family. Smaller company, better insurance. Why do we pay \$350 a month for insurance? Overtime compensation - Many times calls for service run late and officers are required to work past end of shift time. When overtime or comp time cards are put in for less than one hour they are denied. Supervisors will not approve any comp/overtime unless the officer pushes the issue.

To begin with I have to pay over \$300 dollars a month for healthcare, when my spouse got the same coverage from the same insurance company at her job for all of our family members for less than \$150 a month, working for a company smaller than this department. EDUCATIONAL INCENTIVES - Currently a Bachelors Degree gets \$150.00, which is less than my student loans cost me every month. I am currently interested in getting my Masters Degree, but the incentive does not cover the cost of getting the degree. OVERTIME COMPENSATION - When overtime is worked or we are required to work later on a call, it is very hard to get an overtime card authorized. Supervisors push Comp Time vs. Overtime, but when Comp Time is requested for time off it is denied 90% of the time due to officer shortages (shift minimums). Supervisors will not authorize comp time or overtime unless you are more than one

hour over. So when we get caught on a call for 30 minutes past the shift ending, we are expected to work for free for that 30 minutes.

Another sergeant expressed dissatisfaction with the change in city policy regarding both insurance and retirement benefits:

Hired on with the promise of career healthcare paid. City changed rules. Retirees should not get penalized for retiring and should maintain the current rate for insurance that current employees maintain.

2a. The Intersection of Pay/Benefits and Distributive Justice

Although overall there were relatively few comments regarding the items included in the Pay/Benefits scale, there seems to be a moderate link between Pay/Benefits and distributive justice in these data. This finding is not surprising, considering that individual-level concerns are characteristic of this category. In fact, one cannot help but to notice that some of the previous comments have elicited feelings of anger and/or aggression that Homans (1974) predicted individuals might feel if they perceived their rewards for work were inappropriate given their contribution to the organization. It appears that, though some respondents were unhappy with specific benefits, the overall perception is that items included in Pay/Benefits are satisfactory and fair.

3. Administration/Policy

Overwhelmingly, respondents chose to expand upon their positions regarding the administration and policies of the department more so than in any other area. This scale consists of ten items (interdepartmental transfer procedures, educational requirements for new recruits, off-duty job policy, grievance procedures, promotional procedures, efficient evaluations, command staff, in-service training, community relations, and report-making system). This scale is the largest of the five facet-specific job satisfaction subscales and encompasses various departmental policies as well as those responsible for deciding how these policies will be carried out. These responses are wide-ranging (due in no small part to the number of variables included in this category), but some common themes were identified. Areas that seemed particularly relevant were command staff, promotional and disciplinary procedures, and manpower.

No single issue drew more criticism than the command staff. In this police department, the command staff consists of the Chief of Police, appointed by the mayor, and four Deputy Chiefs in a corporate structure (with each Deputy Chief serving the role of divisional Vice President and the Chief of Police serving the role of CEO). Respondents repeatedly expressed frustration about how policing as a profession has changed throughout the years and has become more restrictive (in terms of how law enforcement is performed and what behaviors are allowed in the field). This frustration was manifested in the comments, not only in regret that police procedure is not what it used to be due to changes in the law and in policing management styles, but with animosity directed toward the department's command staff, who are seen as the ones

responsible for developing and/or implementing these changes. One sergeant explains in detail about how some officers worry about not having the support of the command staff if they are involved in an incident:

I cannot complain about the pay/benefits/insurance I receive for working for the [department name – deleted]. My complaints are about how this department could be so much better. Command has instituted several policies that demoralize and essentially discourage officers from being proactive in enforcement...it seems as though the Chief enjoys sitting over us and using any possible chance he gets to make us squirm. I don't know if he does this for some kind of power trip or shortcoming of his but he uses his position of power to lord it over all of us. I used to worry about getting killed in the line of duty but with this Chief I worry about the city abandoning me or sacrificing me just so they don't have to fight for me if I should have a situation where I have to use force or take a life. I feel as though I have zero support from Command and that they are "out to get us lowly street cops" just to prove some kind of point. It makes some officers not want to do anything proactive on the streets. The mentality used to be to get out on the streets, fight crime, kick ass when you need to, throw the bad guys in jail then go out and do it again. Now it's go out, sit still, stay out of trouble, don't get into anything and cover your ass. The less an officer does the less chance he has of getting into trouble. Why risk getting in trouble when you feel like Command is just waiting for you to make the smallest mistake... I am so disappointed and frustrated because while the pay is good the department could be so much better than it is. Morale is low because of these failures of Command and there isn't really any hope for that to change in the near future. If they would just get off our backs or

maybe even support us we could really make a change for the better in our districts but I feel as though we have been made ineffective.

And this officer, who describes how his feelings for the department have changed, primarily due to changes in police procedure nationwide and the implementation of those policies by the command staff:

I know that the upper Command did some shady stuff back when they were on the street, which was very minimum for most of them as they sucked up and moved up. These are the guys that use to shoot at fleeing felons and beat the shit out of people for talking back. Now if we so much put a hand on their shoulder to escort them or anything outside of routine handcuffing the shit hits the fan and they think the world is coming to an end. Well, let me explain something to them: The streets haven't gotten any easier and the bad guys have maybe even gotten worse, but yet we have so many restrictions on us that an officer is going to end up getting hurt. As sad as it is that this could happen, I don't think the Command really cares. As long as they look good that's all that matters. These are also the guys that never managed a single patrol division and most were motor jocks or worked as traffic units and weren't even real police officers that I know of. I use to have a lot of respect for this police department and those that are in charge and basically run this place. As time goes on I lose more and more respect for this department and those in charge, as I have seen or heard of the stuff they have done and gotten away with because of who they are.

Both of these comments indicate that morale of the department is affected by what officers see as stifling policies and hint that their commitment to the organization is less than it could be. Respondents mentioned that they feel handcuffed by policies

instituted by the command staff (who did things differently when they were on the street that officers are now punished for, which makes these officers perceive the command staff as hypocritical). These feelings are echoed by this sergeant, who feels that officers cannot rely on the command staff to support them if the need arises, and that they are only interested in looking out for themselves:

It is my belief that our Command Staff does not look out for the patrolman and the issues that affect their subordinates. At one time I believed that the department Command Staff would take care of officers and ensure that we have the equipment we need, the personnel we need on the streets, and the protection against frivolous accusations. Unfortunately, instead what I have found is that our Command Staff looks out for their own well being, their own paycheck, and their own futures...there is the appearance that Command Staff is held to a different (lower) disciplinary standard than others.

Micro-management is an issue that was mentioned repeatedly in the comments. Respondents expressed frustration that decisions are only being made at the highest levels, even for minor personnel issues. Furthermore, if command staff allowed these decisions to be handled by lower-level supervisors who are more familiar with the employees they supervise the organization would run smoother. This sergeant also mentioned how this can affect morale:

Low morale is the biggest thing hurting this department. Command goes out of their way to cater to people who they know are making a ridiculous complaint. We need an I.A. [Internal Affairs Division]. Investigating anonymous complaints is a waste of

time and is one of the big problems with morale. The radio/mdc are eventually going to get an officer killed, but the millions of dollars spent on this junk is far more important than the officers life to Command.

This sergeant compares the department to the ill-fated *Titanic*, noting that the command staff is intentionally ignoring problems that may have devastating long-term consequences:

...the department is compartmentalized and specialized to the point that communication suffers. In addition, the department has developed the majority of their responses to be politically correct and stave off liability at the expense of taking care of their officers. I made the statement a few years ago when I transferred to investigations after a lengthy street career that our department has become the *Titanic*. We have hit the iceberg and are taking on water. The working folks in steerage and between decks know there is a problem while the Command on the third floor is still dancing to the orchestra in the ballroom and don't have a clue.

This is a interesting comment as the respondent, perhaps unknowingly, describes some of the negative consequences of the bureaucratization of an organization (specifically, the division of labor into specialized positions and the impersonal nature of the those in the upper ranks, showing a lack of compassion for those under them in the hierarchical structure).

There were also numerous comments regarding the procedures in place for promotional and disciplinary policies, as well as those that expressed dissatisfaction regarding manpower and staffing levels. This sergeant noted that officers are treated differently depending on rank:

Police personnel do not receive support in improving performance. They are ridiculed, and often poor performance goes unchecked as supervisors have made statements [like], "I don't want to know, I may have to do something". Disciplinary actions are not equal and are handed down inequitably.

This sergeant commented on hiring practices of the department and how manpower issues can result not having the minimum number of officers on a shift in a given area, thus creating situations where there are officer safety concerns:

Currently the [department – name deleted] has more officers retiring than they are hiring. We have a massive shortage on the street and in investigations. Currently we are below shift minimums almost every weekend. If more than two people request off, have military leave, a school, etc. we are below requirements. Vacation and comp time is denied often. Officer shortage [has] reached such a low it has become an officer safety issue. I was dispatched a call and my nearest backup was at least 15-20 min out because we are below shift minimums. When the question is raised about offering overtime to assist officer shortages, supervisors say that is not an option and will not even offer comp time to assist in shortages.

This respondent, also a sergeant, suggests that officers are being misused:

Through all divisions, I feel like officers could be better used for police law enforcement rather than I.T. [Information Technology], and other areas that could be handled by civilian employees.

This sergeant further explains that manpower issues exist not only with sworn police officers, but also for civilian support positions:

Civilian employees, especially in the records division, are extremely short -handed and need to be supplemented. The current staffing level of sworn employees is not sufficient to handle the amount of calls responded to, or to the level of public service expected by our citizens. Police handle many calls that can be routed to other city divisions and resources.

In summary, respondents expressed frustration with the administration, as well as many of the policies those in administration have instituted. The general feeling among respondents seems to be that the command staff has exhibited poor leadership and have not inspired confidence in the rank and file of the department. Furthermore, officers are so worried that they will not be backed up for doing their jobs that they are afraid to even make contact with citizens for fear of a complaint that will be punished arbitrarily.

3a. The Intersection of Administration/Policies and Procedural Justice

According to Thibaut and Walker (1975), one of the main tenets of procedural justice has to do with having a “voice” or, in other words, having an element of control (or at least perceived control) in organizational processes. A recurring theme in this section is the sense that command staff personnel make decisions that they feel are appropriate without including the majority of the force in the decision-making process, leading to the perception that decisions are made arbitrarily and without the best

interest of the force in mind. These sergeants both expressed concern that command staff personnel are not open to comments or suggestions from field officers:

Morale is at its lowest. Officers' opinions aren't valued and Command doesn't seem interested in anyone below the rank of lieutenant.

As a new officer, one's viewpoint is often dictated by dreams and/or career goals, while later in one's career, your viewpoints are dictated by your actual experiences.

Experience has taught me that progressive points of view and ideas are often ignored in favor of "not rocking the boat." That reality leads one to be less satisfied with their job.

One sergeant even refers to an incident that has become a lawsuit, possibly due to punishment for sharing an opinion:

There's current litigation that is a result of saying what you think...It is understood department-wide that making a mistake will still subject you to the possibility of termination, and at the least, strict discipline. Unfortunately the natural process of "learning from mistakes" is not really allowed to operate within the police department.

From these comments, one might surmise that this department, like so many other police agencies across the country, is still run from a perspective of traditional management as opposed to more progressive management styles that have emerged in recent years (specifically, the gradual change to more community-oriented approaches

where officers are encouraged to think creatively to develop solutions to the problems they face in the field).

Decision control is the ability to influence the outcome of a process (Thibaut and Walker, 1975). Respondents expressed concern about the performance evaluation system and seem to feel as though they have no ability to influence how they are evaluated in yearly performance appraisals. In fact, several respondents specifically referred to performance evaluations as a “joke” implying that they are not used as they are intended to be and have little to no bearing on how an individual officer is rated. This sergeant stated that performance evaluations are meaningless:

Performance evaluations are a joke and no clear indication of ability or job performance. They are done piecemeal and some are just rubberstamps from previous evaluations. They mean nothing and are treated as such.

These feelings were reiterated by a lieutenant, who serves in a supervisory role rating his subordinate field officers:

Performance evaluations are a joke. Chief [name deleted] has publicly commented that he places no merit in them.

This respondent, a captain, mentions that the promotional system should be modified to be more inclusive of performance-related factors:

Our promotional system is tiring and frustrating. The Chief should accept more latitude in his promotional selections (rule of three for lieutenant and choice of anyone on the list for captain). The system should take more into account the applicant's assignment background and quality of work.

Decision control, or having an influence in organizational processes that affect an individual's outcome (such as promotions or pay), would seem to be absent, assuming the issues these respondents bring up are valid. As a result, one can see how officers could have the perception that these processes are unfair.

Though the original conception of procedural justice involved only these two control-oriented processes (process and decision), Leventhal et al. (1980) expanded on this notion by arguing that some general rules could be used to test the fairness of procedures. They found that the perceived fairness of procedures could be determined by asking respondents if those procedures were enforced consistently, neutrally, and ethically (among others). The following sections represent areas where respondents commented on how procedures are conducted in reference to these rules.

One rule used to test for fairness within processes is to look at how consistently the process is applied, not only to how the process is applied to an individual but also to how it is applied to other individuals who can be used as references. In this case, respondents overwhelmingly expressed concern that rules were applied differently depending on rank, with supervisors (lieutenant and above) being treated more leniently than officers and sergeants (who primarily work in the field as opposed to the office). For example, this sergeant stated that he thought disciplinary actions are handled differently based on rank:

Discipline handed down is decidedly unfair. An officer or sergeant will be placed on administrative leave for something while a lieutenant or above will be merely

transferred for a very similar incident. Officers and sergeants are routinely threatened with their jobs, while lieutenants and above are safe from the same treatment.

Another sergeant noted the lack of consistency in discipline among ranks:

...I know of three lieutenants who work downtown who embezzled time and were not punished and street officers would be fired for the same thing if they did it. Another lieutenant lied about a use of force and was slapped on the wrist and not fired like he should have been.

This sergeant added that not only is treatment based on rank, but that these unfair practices affect officer morale:

We just need things to be more fair, and if the upper Command doesn't like you or you make a mistake, you get treated like trash or they hold a grudge and save it for the right time to put it against you. We're all humans out here and work in a job where mistakes will be made, especially for a job that has more of a gray area and isn't always black and white. I do like that people are being held accountable more if they lie, but where the problem is, supervisors and above can lie and not get punished for it. The officers out here see that and say, "that's not fair." This is probably one of the main reasons morale is so low, in my opinion.

Additionally, there were comments regarding a lack of procedural consistency depending on the area of the department where the respondent works. These sergeants both commented on how the treatment of officers is tempered by the division where they work:

The performance evaluations are influenced by the activity the Command Staff deems to be important. Such as tickets. If you make felony arrest or solve crimes, such as burglaries, you are not as important as the field officer who writes 20 tickets a month.

It seems the detectives have been favored most of the time over the street officers in all interests.

The issue of neutrality (or lack thereof) in applying organizational processes, such as performance evaluations and promotions, was commonly mentioned in the open-ended responses. There appeared to be two main areas of perceived bias: individual bias based on a particular supervisor and structural bias based on how the process in question is used. Several respondents mentioned that they felt the performance evaluation system was unfair. This officer sarcastically noted that:

Performance evaluations simply mean that someone cut some trees down. Everyone knows that activity is not a major indicator of how things work on the department. It is who you know, or more importantly who your dad knows.

While this sergeant commented on how he believes evaluations are biased depending on the supervisor:

Many supervisors (not mine) let personal issues influence the evaluation.

Other respondents took issue with the fairness of the promotional process. These two sergeants commented on the promotional process and its unfairness:

Promotional system lacks in fairness especially after a written test is passed. We might want to consider getting rid of the written and do oral testing and boards with neutral people selecting the best candidates.

I think the promotion process needs improvement...they could be having a bad day, or not like the way you look. One assessor can contradict the other, etc...

The perception of unfair treatment in the promotional process was not limited to officers and sergeants. Two lieutenants noted that:

The Captain's promotional procedure is unfair and biased. It has become "the good ole' boy" system.

For career advancement above the rank of lieutenant, the command has to be pulling for you...its back to the good ole boy system again.

Other respondents felt that the lack of neutrality in processes was more of a result of the system itself, as opposed to unfair decisions made by individual supervisors. This lieutenant suggested that the promotional process is inherently flawed:

I am dissatisfied with the promotional process, which results in selection of unqualified candidates while at the same time excluding favorable candidates with no regard for job performance.

This sergeant not only shares his concern with the promotional process, but goes on to propose some changes that he feels could reduce bias, including standardizing performance evaluations:

The promotional process needs to be evaluated. I know it has been done in the past, and it has the possibility to be a very fair and balanced process, but there are some small things that cause some bias concerns. Everybody should have the same set of assessors...officers should be required to wear uniforms instead of civilian clothes. There should be a peer review section that amounts to a small percent (10%) of the grade. Also evaluations should be standardized and monitored and should have a weight in the process. Lieutenants need to be held accountable for providing an accurate and original document.

Finally, this sergeant also encourages the use of standardizing performance evaluations to increase their reliability, while also noting that the bias involved in evaluations is both structural and individual:

There is not a set of standardized guidelines for a performance evaluation. This is a process that is often left up to the interpretation of the individual supervisor and their bias or beliefs. I have had two different supervisors give drastically different evaluations.

There were several responses that dealt with unethical behavior, ranging from supervisor malfeasance to the Chief of Police making unethical decisions and/or

directing illegal behavior of his subordinates to achieve specific goals. This sergeant blatantly accuses the Chief of criminal wrongdoing:

...At least 12 people were fired by the Chief...all but one got their job back because there were no grounds for dismissal. Isn't the city manager concerned about a Chief that instructs his IA [Internal Affairs] detectives to fabricate evidence against officers?

Although this sergeant does not mention from which rank this supposed order came from, he also accuses “supervisors” (in this case, lieutenant or above) of instructing officers to lie to CALEA (Commission on Accreditation for Law Enforcement Agencies, Inc.) inspectors in order to hide potential activity that could jeopardize the department’s accreditation:

Officers keep their mouths shut about everything or face disciplinary action by supervisors. The CALEA inspection was a joke, as officers were told in lineups not to say anything bad to the inspectors or face retaliation.

Another officer comments on how criticism on departmental policies is considered unwelcome by supervisors (this comment could also be directly related to officers not having a “voice”):

Speaking out about problems is a good way to derail your career. Mistakes, innocent or not, are punished irrationally.

Finally, this sergeant questions the Chief’s integrity by accusing him of ignoring written rules and regulations and instead making arbitrary decisions in his own interest:

Interdepartmental transfer procedures might as well not exist. This Chief will not adhere to any policy as long as there is a clause in there somewhere that states "except

at the discretion of the Chief of police". The promotional system is tainted when the Chief has access to the list of applicant scores after they complete assessment and then he allocates a percentage of worth for each day of the assessment. Even if our Chief had integrity, that should raise a red flag.

The importance of procedural justice within an organization cannot be overstated. If employees feel that procedures that they have agreed to follow to obtain specific goals (maintaining employment, being promoted) are not being adhered to by administration they can develop a sense of being treated in an unjust manner, thereby reducing their trust and confidence in those above them (and to the organization as a whole). It has been proposed here that perceived injustice, in the form of process control, decision control, consistency, neutrality, and ethicality, has been experienced by members of this police department. Respondents commented on a range of procedures that they view as being applied unfairly (promotions, performance evaluations, transfer procedures, disciplinary actions), as well how they perceive these procedures to be unfair (bias from supervisors and the process itself, application of procedures differentially depending on rank, unethical and/or possibly criminal behavior from supervisors). Furthermore, respondents expressed a sense of frustration as a result of feeling powerless to influence their careers (decision control), as well as the perception that they do not have a "voice" and that their input or opinions do not matter. As a result, they have expressed discontent not only with procedures, but with those seen as responsible for carrying out those procedures (in this case the

administration and, especially, the command staff). This comment, also from a sergeant, broadly sums up the importance of procedural justice:

Morale is being adversely affected by the perception that our current Command makes sweeping decisions that affect everyone instead of applying the existing rules/policies to the specific incidents and/or offenders. Don't create more restrictive policies. Just fairly enforce the current rules/policies.

3b. The Intersection of Administration/Policy and Interactional Justice

Interpersonal justice refers to how an individual perceives he/she is treated, especially by a supervisor or someone in an authoritative position that enacts policy. More specifically, the interpersonal aspect of interactional justice often refers to being treated respectfully and candidly. In this study, these issues tend to be directed more towards the upper command. This sergeant complained that the command staff and others in supervisory positions treat their subordinates poorly:

Command Staff use their position to intimidate. No leadership skills. Lieutenants are not allowed to lead. Majors and Captains abuse their authority by treating employees like dirt. Forget about Chief and Deputy Chief. No faith!!

This officer specifically accuses the Chief with exhibiting disrespectful behavior, indicating that the way employees are treated directly affects their feelings toward the department:

There is no pride anymore. The Chief has hailed us all as liars, cheats, and morons.

He should look in the mirror.

This sergeant sardonically notes that those in supervisory positions do not know how to motivate their employees, instead relying on outdated management techniques that are ineffective:

This department's new motto should be changed to: "The daily floggings will continue until morale improves." How unfortunate.

Finally, this sergeant reflects on his past experience, both as a member of the military and as a supervisor in his own business, as he compares the way employees are treated in this department to how he feels is the proper way to motivate subordinates:

I learned many years ago about leadership while I was in the military. Today I own my own business outside of the police department. Both have shown me a lot about leadership and how to treat and deal with employees. I think our current administration could use a lesson in leadership as they clearly have none. You can't motivate an employee by beating them over the head with a policy manual. You can't motivate an employee by treating them worse than you treat the criminals we put in jail. You can... by being a supervisor who is approachable, charismatic, fair, honest, and reasonable.

Informational justice typically refers to justification for procedures enacted and truthfulness of authority figures responsible for these procedures. This officer relates how communication is ineffective in this department and how simple explanations

from those in supervisory positions could help employees understand why certain decisions are made:

Morale for patrol could easily be boosted if there were more officers on the street.

Also, I think there needs to be better communication between Command and the officers. During recent line-ups officers have questioned the lieutenants and captain for my shift why we are so shorthanded and if we were going to get any more people.

The Command's response appeared to be agitated. It appears that every question asked is followed with an, "I don't know...that's just what my superior (Captain, Major, Deputy Chief, Chief) says." If officers better understood why there are not enough officers on the street morale would probably be higher.

This sergeant notes that communication from the upper ranks is usually negative, as opposed to being helpful or instructive:

The only information ever passed down from upper Command is negative.

This officer criticized the lack of communication between command staff personnel and officers who are on administrative leave pending the outcome of an investigation into whether or not their actions (such as an officer-involved shooting) were appropriate:

I have seen the way the Command handles significant incidents with patrol officers and witnessed the torture of investigations and the officer not knowing if they did something wrong or not...just sitting there on administrative leave wondering what is going on.

The preceding comments provide some insight into the importance of not only enforcing policies fairly, but the significance of how employees are treated by supervisory personnel in the course of applying policies. One can see how these

respondents' attitudes were affected when they perceive they have been treated poorly apart from an evaluation of the fairness or justness of a particular policy. Officers expressed resentment and hostility at being berated by supervisors or what was perceived as poor leadership and/or management practices, as well as a sense that upper command does not feel that it is necessary to share information with those in the lower ranks, keeping them "in the loop", and instead communicate with officers only when chastising them for behavior that will not be tolerated in the field.

3c. The Intersection of Administration/Policy and Distributive Justice

Though the vast majority of responses regarding administration/policy seem linked to procedural justice, in one regard the issue of evaluations seemed more strongly tied to the concept of distributive justice. These sergeants both commented on the performance evaluation system and its relationship to individuals being rewarded based on their performance:

Evaluations seldom change regardless of your performance.

Most of my job evaluations have been generic in their make-up. I estimate 75% of my immediate supervisors make no effort beyond the minimum required to provide an evaluation of employees. It is my opinion that rarely is it worth the extra effort to perform at the best of one's ability, as it gets no more recognition than simply completing the minimum expected and no more.

4. Equipment

This job satisfaction subscale, Equipment, contained only two items: availability of equipment and quality of equipment. Respondents expressed a number of concerns over both equipment quality and availability in a variety of areas, ranging from uniforms and facilities to weapons and vehicles. The most incendiary topic involved the computers and radio systems that officers have been equipped with. Officers seemed especially apprehensive that these equipment issues could result in dangerous and potentially life-threatening situations in the field. These sergeants both mentioned the need for safety equipment (such as body armor):

In need of officer safety equipment for search warrant execution.

No raid vest or armor for detectives. No visible raid jackets available to detectives.

This respondent, an officer, expressed a desire for some flexibility in uniform choices:

The last time I checked it reached 100 plus degrees in the summer. Why aren't patrol officers allowed to wear Class C Shorts?

While this sergeant seemed satisfied with equipment, he went on to convey his displeasure with the buildings where the department is housed:

The quality of the equipment is not bad it's the facility I have been working in these past four years. It should be condemned and bulldozed and rebuilt.

These respondents, a captain and a sergeant, communicated their views regarding the way the department goes about deciding on and implementing new technology and equipment:

The Department's efforts to use new technology are dismal. It seems we always buy programs or equipment without proper evaluation - items that have usually failed in other agencies. All technology programs fall way behind the projected schedule, which shows poor research and planning.

The equipment upon being bid on, ordered, and installed is already out of date numerous years upon finishing the project.

Several respondents limited their comments regarding equipment to issues of not having access to Tasers or specialized firearms. These officers both referred to the Columbine school shooting and warned that the officers in the department may not be equipped to handle that type of situation:

Society is becoming excessively violent. Within a matter of time [city name – deleted] will face a Columbine type situation. The public as well as the Police Department cannot wait until the Tac-Team deploys. There presents an immediate need for rifles to be carried in patrol cars. Why do we outfit ourselves with all of this weapons of mass destruction gear but cannot get officers Tasers?

It is embarrassing comparing our department to much smaller ones that have superior equipment. Our command staff loves to brag about our training and this and that. It's sad when most of patrol does not have necessary equipment such as Tasers or long rifles to deal with an ever increasing violent society. Also, lack of rifles simply means that if [city name – deleted] has a Columbine situation, the citizens as well as police officers will suffer several casualties.

Other respondents, including this officer and sergeant, expressed dissatisfaction over police vehicles:

I wish that our equipment was in better condition. For example, the patrol vehicles that have paint chipping or peeling on the vehicle. A little paint goes a long way as far as looking professional and respectable among the general public.

Several cases of three detectives assigned to one vehicle.

Although responses were wide-ranging, the area of computers and radios drew the vast majority of comments (which were almost exclusively negative). This sergeant commented that availability of equipment is a problem in several areas:

We lack an appropriate amount of equipment in many venues. We are also way behind when it comes to equipment technology for investigations involving computers and digital optical media.

While this sergeant also remarked on the scarcity of needed equipment:

No equipment on officer safety issues exist for detectives, i.e.: raid jackets, bullet proof vests. The computer system is a cobbled mixture of systems that are slow and go down without warning. The detective cruisers have hardware installed that takes up trunk space and we have never been issued computers or know how to utilize them if they were issued.

Other respondents commented on various problems with both the in-car computer systems and radio systems. This sergeant hints that the “upgrades” were inefficient and essentially a waste of money:

Most of the time I do not use the computer in my car unless I have to. The computers are slow and I do not feel that there is really any progress seen by officers since they have been installed. The radio system I feel is not safe. The radio takes too long to boot up and the batteries do not last at all like the previous radios.

While this lieutenant contends that the new radio system is unsafe due to the many problems officers experience when attempting to use it:

The radio system, in my opinion, is a liability to our officers and is unreliable. There are so many issues with them that if officers were to document the everyday problems it would significantly impact their duties. The reporting system for radio and computer problems appears to have been deliberately set up to be inconvenient and cumbersome.

Other respondents (an officer and a sergeant, respectively) echoed these concerns:

While I have access to equipment, it typically doesn't function well/properly, creating an unsafe environment. I have no confidence in our current communications system and believe it is a safety hazard to officers. I only have reliable access to computers at briefing stations or HQ. I have no confidence in the in-car computer system.

The 800 MHz radio system has been nothing but an officer safety threat. Shoulder mike not working effectively and radio system cutting off radio transmissions. One officer not hearing another radio transmission but dispatch could. It's a piece of junk.

Finally, this respondent from the rank of major or above expresses bitterness towards those in administration who decided to implement the current radio system (who he clearly sees as responsible for making poor decisions without doing the proper research in advance):

The radio system and police technology package is a complete fiasco. If this multi-million dollar comedy of errors had taken place in a private corporation, no doubt high level individuals would have lost their jobs a long time ago. Project management has appeared like the "unwilling" being led by the "unknowing". It's been pretty shameful from the view of an ultimate end user.

4a. The Intersection of Equipment and Procedural and Interactional Justice

Although there were a number of responses related to equipment, few could be clearly linked to organizational justice. Some comments were quite obviously associated with both procedural and interaction justice. This respondent, a sergeant, plainly expressed his frustration with the lack of communication between ranks and not having a "voice" in choosing vehicles:

Sample cars were put out and we were asked to vote on what we liked. The current design is not what we voted for. If you are not going to go with our ideas, don't ask. Just do what you want to do.

Comments regarding the availability of the Internet to officers (especially in police vehicles) were most prevalent. This sergeant not only argues the need for Internet

access, but insinuated that officers have been lied to by supervisors about the limitations of some equipment:

We all need access to the internet...it's a very useful tool for assisting and education benefits...the B.S. about bandwidth is ridiculous...we are not stupid.

This respondent, also from the rank of sergeant, expressed animosity toward administration for their decision to restrict Internet access:

They took internet access away from the majority of the Police Officers like we were a bunch of little grade school kids and allow only "special" individuals have access.

This officer was clearly upset by what he perceived as a lack of concern from the command staff (due to their decision not to pass important information down to officers on the street):

While fighting for a gun the 800 megahertz radio failed when asked for back up, so no one knew I was fighting for my life. The command staff decided NOT to make other employees aware of the problem with the emergency button on the radio because they felt other employees would not trust the radio. This then put other officers in dangerous situations because they were unaware that their emergency button might not work.

5. Task/Job

The next job satisfaction subscale, Task/Job, consisted of only two items (general duties and current assignment). This was the highest of the five job satisfaction subscales and, unsurprisingly, there were relatively few remarks that were

associated directly with the two items in this subscale. This might lead one to assume that, regardless of other matters specifically related to the department that affect how they carry out their jobs on a daily basis, most respondents generally enjoy being police officers. Most of the comments regarding respondent's duties were more directed at underlying problems, such as dissatisfaction with decision making at a higher level or the perception that they work harder than their peers but that this "going above and beyond the call of duty" goes unrecognized. Invariably, comments related to job duties seem linked to the concept of distributive justice. This is also not a surprising finding, as one's daily work activity is an individual-level variable. One sergeant commented on job duties and made a suggestion about how this issue could be addressed:

Time spent on repetitive tasks takes away from proactive policing. Reporting procedures need to be streamlined.

5a. The Intersection of Task/Job and Distributive Justice

Although there were few comments that fell into this facet of job satisfaction, those that were made are almost exclusively linked to the concept of distributive justice. For example, several respondents discussed the issue of being rewarded based upon the amount of work they do (compared to others). This sergeant, a female with a graduate degree, noted that:

It seems as if the hard workers get rewarded with more work, while the lazy people are rewarded with not getting additional work (because they are behind). It also seems like

some get awards for ridiculous acts and others who have apprehended murderers barely get any acknowledgement.

This sergeant commented on that most officers do not put much effort into their jobs (implying that he does):

Most of my co-workers are lazy and sit in their cars all day reading the newspaper, never patrolling or engaging in proactive police work.

These two lieutenants commented that, based on their observations through the years, there is little incentive to work hard or be proactive in hopes of those efforts being rewarded or even recognized:

Bubble has been burst one too many times. I've lost trust in members of the department. I feel I carry more than my fair share of duties. Some of my counterparts do little to nothing while two or three take care of the daily operations. I have come to the conclusion I do a good job for my own satisfaction. It makes no difference if you excel at the job or do the minimum. All are treated by the department the same. Same pay, same benefits, same evaluations. There is no incentive to do a better job. You have to be extremely self-motivated, with an internal drive or need to excel. Most I feel lack this leaving the majority of work to those who will push forward.

There is no incentive for the officers that work and stand out above their peers and no repercussions for those officers that dodge calls and do little work. That is why you see many good officers turn into slugs after a few years. The attitude is, "why should I

bust my ass when the other guy is getting the same pay as me and doesn't do anything?"

These responses are directly in line with the concept of distributive justice, which describes the relationship between individual inputs and the resulting outcomes.

6. Supervisors

The final job satisfaction subscale, Supervisors, consisted of three items relating specifically to the respondent's immediate supervisor, regardless of rank. The items are designed to measure supervisor support, consultation, and assistance. Many of the comments regarding supervisors were not positive in nature. While few comments were to expand on the specific items from the scale, such as this response from an officer:

We get no supervisor support...80% of the time supervisors do not support hard work or actually going out to do your job. Officers who sit and do nothing and do everything they can to get out of doing work are the ones who are rewarded and praised. Leads proactive officers to stop working and become disgruntled officers due to poor supervisor support and assistance.

Most responses regarding immediate supervision were almost exclusively related to interactional justice.

6a. The Intersection of Supervisors and Interactional Justice

As the name would imply, interactional justice describes how fair people feel they are treated (especially while procedures are enacted). Several responses were in regards to a perceived lack of concern from immediate supervisors, as reflected in these comments (both from sergeants):

It is difficult to understand the lack of caring and indifference shown by first and second line supervisors.

...supervisors do not care and rarely leave the station.

The following sergeants also note that, in addition to a lack of concern, their immediate supervisors do not disseminate information down the chain of command.

Supervisor is not very informative. Does not show concern about my job.

...supervisors appear non-concerned about the welfare of subordinates. Most of the time, they sit in their office with their feet on their desks and watch television.

Subordinates appear to be a necessary burden of their position. There is no communication through the chain of command. Though systems are in place (e-mail and other electronic mediums) communications and information is guarded and not disseminated. New officers seem more concerned about their own personal outcomes rather than that of being a public servant to citizens of the city.

This sergeant expressed apprehension in dealing with supervisors, as well as anger about the actions of one particular supervisor:

We keep our mouths shut with supervisors to avoid a conflict [or] retaliation with them. Most of them think they're God. Lieutenant [name deleted] spends 10 hrs in the office watching TV or playing golf on his personal computer and won't even go out in the field to assist officers. He was recently reprimanded for buying a truck on duty and city time...so how do you think he is as a supervisor.

One might speculate that with the animosity seen within these comments about supervisors that this department has some serious issues that need to be addressed, either with who is being promoted into supervisory positions or as a result of training (or lack thereof) that is available for those in supervisory positions. However, considering that the mean satisfaction score of this subscale is fairly high and is the second highest of the five job satisfaction facets, it could be argued that the dissatisfaction lies primarily in the structure of the department rather than toward the lower ranking supervisors who are responsible for ensuring procedures from the highest ranks are carried out.

What may be the more interesting point to take away from this section is the validity of interactional justice as a distinct concept (rather than being subsumed under procedural justice, as has been the case until recently). Although it should be obvious at this point that officers in this department are unhappy with leadership and how policies and procedures are carried out in the organization, these comments further strengthen the idea that people can feel injustice when they are not treated with respect

in their interactions with supervisors, regardless of how they feel about the procedures or outcomes of those procedures.

7. Organizational Commitment

There were numerous comments that reflected the level of commitment respondents have to the department. These responses consistently refer to command staff (upper command) and the structure of the department. It should be noted that a number of respondents express pride in being a police officer, but shame in the department. These respondents (all sergeants) talk about the shame they feel as members of the department:

I will no longer tell anyone where I work unless it is unavoidable. I am ashamed of the double standard this department has. Can't wait for retirement!

I'm ashamed that I'm a/an [department name deleted] police officer and don't tell anyone I am one. I hide that fact.

This sergeant states that he tries to hide the fact that he is a police officer due to his feelings toward the department:

I try to avoid telling folks I'm a cop. I have told hundreds of young people to go to FBI or a federal job...my family and friends have been shocked when they hear what goes on...no, I hope I have kept lots of young people from becoming ensnared in this viper pit...

This sergeant serves as an example of an officer who enjoys the profession and his work but merely endures the department:

I love my job. I love the cops on my shift. I love this city. I love the people of this city.

I tolerate this police department.

While this sergeant justifies his feelings that, while he is unhappy with some aspects of the department, he actually works for the citizens that he serves:

I'm not ashamed to work for the department because in truth I work for the citizens, and for that I'm proud; it the administration and some officers that I am sometimes ashamed of.

This sergeant expresses frustration with the department, calling it “sinful” and implying that the department is to blame for low morale:

Morale sucks on this department. It's dog eat dog. There is no team work – it's a sinful organization.

This officer also expresses displeasure with the lack of leadership by the command staff and accuses them of making poor decisions:

I love being a police officer, but I am very dissatisfied with the weakness in our upper level Command Staff. Most were never in patrol long enough to understand what we face on a daily basis. It seems the upper Command Staff want to de-police us with every new policy that they create.

Finally, this sergeant reflected on an incident he was a part of where he disagreed with a supervisor's decision as an example of how the department has changed since he started and some of the negative effects of the changes:

When I started here in 1990, there was excellent morale and esprit de corps! I have watched that erode over the years, until it is at the point now that officers with less than five years on are burned out, disgruntled and frustrated with their career. I recently took action on a criminal act I had observed while driving home from work still wearing my police uniform. I responded to this act, and arrested an unregistered convicted sex offender who was a fugitive from justice. I was told by the on-duty supervisor that I should have let it go and called 911 when I got home! So...uniformed police officers are not expected to react to criminal conduct in progress and are now expected to call 911? Geez! I'm sure the citizens of our city expect that, too!

7a. The Intersection of Organizational Commitment and Interactional Justice

Although many of these responses are relatively vague, expressing displeasure or dissatisfaction with the department and/or command staff, several respondents more specifically detailed these feelings and related them to issues of fair treatment. These responses are all quite similar, relating interactional (especially interpersonal) justice to organizational commitment. This sergeant states that he loves being an officer, but is “miserable” due to the way the command staff has decided to run the department:

Being a police officer is all I ever wanted to be and I used to love the work and would have encouraged everyone to do it, but now that the Command slams you and is looking for a reason to fire officers, it makes this job miserable. My son wants to be a police officer, but I'm trying to encourage him to go federal or state.

This sergeant argues that the command does not care about them. This lack of concern is communicated to the field officers by not providing enough manpower:

The third floor castle Command Staff don't give a shit as long as the job is done...The morale of the department is the lowest I've ever seen in my 24 years as a police officer. Other departments care more about their officers than the [department name deleted]. I'm ashamed to be a [department name deleted] police officer and don't let anyone know I work for them. I surely don't ever recommend this department to anyone who wants to be an officer, either.

This officer noted that command does not deal with officers in a fair, respectful way, and displayed discontent with negative communication/policies that are perceived to make officers' jobs more difficult:

I used to love my job and was very proud to say that I'm an [department name deleted] police officer, but after what I have been put through and seen my co-workers put through I'm not as pleased with my career. I'm very disappointed in the top Command and the way they handle investigations on officers (or as I like to call them interrogations). If when [they] handle a case that we have generated the detectives would spend as much time as though as I.A. [Internal Affairs] spends on investigated an officer we might actually put some people away that need to go to prison. I'm tired of working short-handed and sometimes could really care less about going to work, only to see what new memo the Chief has put out telling us what we can't do now or what other bullshit their doing to an officer. I still like my job, but I don't LOVE my job

anymore and only hope that I can make it to retirement time or hope that a better offer comes along.

This sergeant expresses contempt for the department and its leadership. Furthermore, he blames the administration for problems he has seen in the department, especially the way they have handled discipline and a lack of honesty. He actually states that he learned during in-service training that one would be less likely to face discipline if he avoided contact with the public.

I've seen so much wrong done by our department and the good ole boy club and the lies. Most officers quit caring in three years and just do as little as possible...just get the money and only get a good life for yourself, there is no respect for Command and its only punishing officers. The Chiefs just get worse with each new one. Keep low and stay out of trouble which means "don't work" ...NC/NC...no contact, no complaint...learned that in in-service.

This sergeant feels that the command staff does not care about officers:

I have been a police officer for 24 years and can honestly say that I am ashamed to be a police officer with the [name of department deleted]. The [location deleted] Command Staff live in their castle and don't give a shit about the officers on this department.

This sergeant also notes that the low morale of the department is directly related to the way the command staff treats the officers:

In my opinion, morale is the lowest I've seen in my 15 years with the department, and I attribute it directly to the Chief's office and senior Command Staff. They foster an adversarial environment that did not exist before.

Another sergeant expresses frustration with the perceived lack of concern shown by the command staff and also attributes it as the cause of low morale:

The morale is the lowest I've ever seen on a police department by the officers and the Command don't give a shit as long as the job is done. The citizens are getting ripped off with the number of calls received and the number of officers on the street...we need more academies. I'm just ready to retire as soon as possible and get off this biased police department.

Another sergeant discussed how the perceived lack of concern/care by command staff and how that affects his work:

Still love doing this job, but frustrated that there is no incentive to work hard and try to help out the citizens that live in the poorer parts of the city. My perception is that the upper Command doesn't care what we do in our 10 hr shifts as long as the department doesn't look bad or get sued.

In a similar vein, this sergeant complains of poor treatment by command staff that has led to a lack of motivation about his job:

There is nothing compared to the excitement when you first get on the job. After a while [of] the Command of this department constantly encouraging officers not to work by nitpicking every decision they make gets old.

8. Turnover Intentions

There were relatively few comments that specifically mention thoughts of leaving the department. It is interesting to note that the comments regarding withdrawal behaviors and/or turnover all cite policy and command staff as the reason

they are unhappy. However, there were no comments regarding being dissatisfied with being a police officer. This sergeant expresses his dissatisfaction with the Chief of Police and implies that the Chief is the reason the department is such a poor place:

The police department is just at a sad, sorry place...I can't wait to leave...no one can stand the Chief...

This lieutenant notes that morale seems to be related to officer burnout and low productivity, notably because doing their job and working hard could potentially cause problems for them:

It is my experience that about 20% of the officers on any shift and assigned to patrol exhibit signs of poor morale on any given day. Burnout is more prevalent in officers with more time on, and these officers tend to have very low productivity. It causes less problems for them than actually doing something to mitigate crime. More officers are exhibiting burnout on the street in a very short time after they complete training.

This sergeant echoes previous comments regarding the perceived lack of concern shown by command for the officers of the department and relates this feeling to low morale:

It is agreed by many that morale is at a low not seen in years. I believe the only difference between the officer strike of the [decade deleted] and today, is that the pay, and house/car notes prohibit most officers from walking away.

"Blanket decisions" by the current administration have eroded the confidence of

officers that the department holds any genuine concern for their best interest and welfare.

Finally, this sergeant reflects on the issues that could influence officers to change careers away from policing, especially from this department. He cites a lack of professionalism and compensation, poor leadership, and education as some of the factors that could drive officers away:

My biggest complaint is the morale. Our facilities look unprofessional. Our equipment looks unprofessional. Our uniforms look unprofessional. Our Command has their hands tied because they are looking to get promoted and don't want to "create ripples." It's apparent that the problem will continue. With private occupation income increasing and the rewards advancing, the government sector, that of police officer specifically, will be viewed as less than average or less than respectable. Officers with an education have as much of a chance of advancing into supervisor positions as those without. In the private sector, that is not an option. I think you will see more and more qualified and educated officers leave the department for more rewarding and benefit-oriented jobs.

9. Hypotheses

H1: Officers who report lower levels of organizational justice should report lower levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

There seems to be a link between organizational justice and the work outcomes of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Many of the comments regarding organizational commitment and the individual job satisfaction facets also fit the criteria for the different types of organizational justice. That is, respondents consistently complained of unfairness within the organization in their explanations of issues that caused them concern. Additionally, all three types of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional) are fairly well represented in these data.

One area of concern with any study where a sample is used is that of self-selection. Most of the responses logged in these data were somewhat negative in nature. Taking this into consideration may lead one to conclude that there was a selection factor at work, drawing a higher percentage of dissatisfied officers to not only take the survey but to openly and anonymously share their feelings about the department. This could further lead to the conclusion that this department has some very serious justice issues that should be dealt with especially among the command staff and the direction they are taking the department. However, without knowing the attitudes of all of the members of the department, it would be dangerous to jump to such a conclusion. Due to error contained in the sample collected, it may be that the responses collected are not entirely representative of the reality of situation. Most of the open-ended responses collected were from those in the lower ranks (officers and sergeants). Far fewer comments were left by those occupying higher ranks, especially in the

command staff. Nonetheless, even taking these issues into account the data clearly shows that there are concerns (though possibly contained within certain ranks or other segments of the department) about several issues that the many in the workforce see as being handled unfairly.

H1A: Procedural justice has more influence on job satisfaction and organizational commitment than distributive justice.

The open-ended responses that were identified as containing elements of organizational justice and job satisfaction are heavily skewed toward procedural justice and interactional justice (as opposed to distributive justice). While issues of distributive justice were addressed (see below), the vast majority of perceptions of unfairness within this organization were found to fall into the category of procedural justice and interactional justice. One surprising finding was the lack of comments directly linking procedural justice with organizational commitment. Instead, respondents who discussed organizational commitment were considerably more likely to also discuss dissatisfaction with interactional justice.

H1B: Distributive justice has more influence on individual-level variables than procedural justice.

Although scattered throughout the data in several places, issues containing elements of distributive justice seemed to be more highly

concentrated within the Task/Job facet of job satisfaction. While there were several examples of distributive justice also found within the Administration/Policy facet, these responses were almost exclusively related to performance evaluations. These areas, performance evaluations and what officers are expected to do in their jobs on a daily basis, one could argue are both individual-level variables (as opposed to group-level variables), which is consistent with distributive justice.

H1C: Interactional justice is positively related to both job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Responses containing both types of interactional justice, interpersonal and informational, are found in these data. Most of these comments were directly linked to supervisors and the command staff and are distinct from procedural justice concerns. The interesting finding was how strongly interactional justice and organizational commitment were in these data.

Chapter 5

Research Question 2

This chapter shows the results of the quantitative data analysis. It begins with a re-statement of the research question, followed by a discussion of the findings for each related study hypothesis. Table 2 shows the demographic characteristics of the sample after the variables were recoded into a binary format. Even though the departmental education requirement is only a high school diploma, over 45 percent of the sample held at least a bachelor's degree. Nearly 80 percent of the respondents were categorized as "Junior Officers," which encompasses the ranks of officer and sergeant, while the vast majority of respondents were white males. Unfortunately, due to the way the data were collected, I was unable to perform statistical tests to determine if the means of the sample and population were significantly different. This is because the demographic characteristics were collected in categories. For example, respondents were asked to enter the age range as opposed to entering the exact age.

Table 2
Demographic Characteristics of Sample

	%	N
Education		463
less than B.A.	55.5%	257
B.A. or higher	45.5%	206
Rank		460
Junior Officer	79.1%	364
Senior Officer	20.9%	96
Gender		462
Male	91.6%	423
Female	8.4%	39
Race/Ethnicity		461
White	86.8%	400
Nonwhite	13.2%	61

Table 3 shows a correlation matrix of the 23-item police job satisfaction survey that was used in this study. Variables are ordered to show the individual facet scales. The first scale, Pay/Benefits, consists of insurance, educational incentives, retirement program, pay, benefits, and overtime compensation. The goal of this scale was to include items related to compensation as a result of being an employee, and relationships among these items are fairly strong. One notable exception is that of educational incentives, which does not correlate as strongly with the other items in the scale. However, it was decided that

educational incentives should nonetheless be included in this scale because the item does not seem to fit well into any other category, as evidenced by its correlations with other items. Additionally, it does not logically fit into another scale any better than with Pay/Benefits, as educational incentives refers to extra compensation based upon level of formal education completed.

The second scale, Administration/Policy, consists of transfer procedures, educational requirements, off-duty job policy, grievance and promotional procedures, evaluations, command staff, in-service training, community relations, and report-making system. The correlations among these items are noticeably weaker than the other scales. This is most likely to due to the fact that this scale is more widely varied and consists of items from a number of different areas. These items were included in this scale because of what they represent: procedures, policies, and those who are ultimately responsible for their implementation. However, considering the moderate to weak relationships among some of the variables, some consideration to changing job satisfaction items should be undertaken before this instrument is used to collect data in the future.

The third scale, Supervisors, consists of supervisor support, assistance, and consultation availability. This scale shows strong relationships among these items, as did the fourth scale (Equipment) and fifth scale (Task/Job). It is unsurprising that these final three facet scales showed strong relationships

among their items due to how closely tied the items of each scale are to each other.

Table 3
Correlations for Job Satisfaction Variables (N=402)

Var	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	
1	1																							
2	.360**	1																						
3	.406**	.397**	1																					
4	.375**	.334**	.489**	1																				
5	.561**	.340**	.541**	.701**	1																			
6	.381**	.304**	.435**	.533**	.584**	1																		
7	.079	.036	.119*	.123*	.144**	.189**	1																	
8	.082	.137**	.138**	.124*	.081	.145**	.057	1																
9	.260**	.284**	.307**	.296**	.338**	.286**	.160**	.224**	1															
10	.080	.150**	.144**	.226**	.167**	.241**	.231**	.135**	.227**	1														
11	.286**	.094	.219**	.173**	.193**	.172**	.296**	.067	.247**	.227**	1													
12	.145**	.040	.102*	.077	.099*	.158**	.250**	.101*	.105*	.231**	.202**	1												
13	.162**	.172**	.124*	.216**	.212**	.220**	.385**	.126*	.205**	.209**	.376**	.140**	1											
14	.083	.091	.122*	.101*	.163**	.216**	.209**	.242**	.206**	.152**	.277**	.176**	.327**	1										
15	.220**	.157**	.168**	.154**	.235**	.294**	.292**	.190**	.155**	.178**	.174**	.114*	.371**	.312**	1									
16	.172**	.104*	.076	.142**	.172**	.252**	.060	.146**	.125*	.053	.118*	.139**	.186**	.238**	.198**	1								
17	.173**	.123*	.108*	.076	.107*	.191**	.179**	.100*	.135**	.091	.127*	.216**	.273**	.129**	.160**	.233**	1							
18	.213**	.121*	.137**	.128*	.189**	.231**	.173**	.091	.161**	.100*	.134**	.224**	.241**	.136**	.169**	.238**	.870**	1						
19	.168**	.121*	.119*	.091	.148**	.217**	.224**	.091	.170**	.119*	.142**	.259**	.233**	.157**	.183**	.236**	.894**	.910**	1					
20	.199**	.167**	.181**	.241**	.231**	.219**	.168**	.126*	.201**	.095	.220**	.162**	.334**	.316**	.318**	.302**	.137**	.131**	.127*	1				
21	.216**	.174**	.210**	.281**	.237**	.259**	.185**	.112*	.185**	.079	.236**	.155**	.368**	.269**	.307**	.285**	.106*	.112*	.113*	.781**	1			
22	.068	.043	.107*	.230**	.210**	.222**	.249**	.039	.109**	.073	.087	.070	.154**	.083	.193**	.167**	.188**	.212**	.206**	.135**	.143**	1		
23	.185**	.184**	.232**	.275**	.268**	.338**	.257**	.014	.183**	.205**	.192**	.147**	.245**	.179**	.255**	.229**	.162**	.197**	.202**	.207**	.260**	.601**	1	

** p < .01 * p < .05

- | | | |
|--|--|-------------------------------|
| 1. INSURANCE | 11. PROMOTION PROCEDURES | 21. AVAILABILITY OF EQUIPMENT |
| 2. EDUCATIONAL INCENTIVES | 12. EFFICIENT EVALUATIONS | 22. CURRENT ASSIGNMENT |
| 3. RETIREMENT PROGRAM | 13. COMMAND STAFF | 23. GENERAL DUTIES |
| 4. PAY | 14. IN-SERVICE TRAINING | |
| 5. BENEFITS | 15. COMMUNITY RELATIONS | |
| 6. OVERTIME COMPENSATION | 16. REPORT-MAKING SYSTEM | |
| 7. INTERDEPARTMENTAL TRANSFER PROCEDURES | 17. SUPERVISOR SUPPORT | |
| 8. EDUCATIONAL REQUIREMENTS FOR RECRUITS | 18. SUPERVISOR CONSULTATION AVAILABILITY | |
| 9. OFF-DUTY JOB POLICY | 19. SUPERVISOR ASSISTANCE | |
| 10. GRIEVANCE PROCEDURES | 20. QUALITY OF EQUIPMENT | |

Table 4 shows the descriptive characteristics of the job satisfaction variables. Note that the scales were recoded after data collection in an effort to make the results easier to understand. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of satisfaction in each area from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 5 (very satisfied). These responses were then recoded from a range of -2 to 2 so that positive means indicate satisfaction, negative means indicate dissatisfaction, and a mean of zero indicates neutral (neither satisfied nor dissatisfied). Respondents reported the least amount of satisfaction with promotion procedures (-.55), command staff (-.42), and evaluations (-.26). Respondents were most satisfied with current assignment (1.16), general duties (.97), overtime compensation (.96), pay (.89), and supervisor consultation availability (.89).

Table 4
Descriptive Statistics for Job Satisfaction Variables (N=402)

	Mean	SD
1. INSURANCE	.05	1.15
2. EDUCATIONAL INCENTIVES	.55	1.00
3. RETIREMENT PROGRAM	.73	.97
4. PAY	.89	.93
5. BENEFITS	.68	1.00
6. OVERTIME COMPENSATION	.96	.94
7. INTERDEPARTMENTAL TRANSFER PROCEDURES	-.13	1.07
8. EDUCATIONAL REQUIREMENTS FOR RECRUITS	.61	.79
9. OFF-DUTY JOB POLICY	.67	.82
10. GRIEVANCE PROCEDURES	.16	.94
11. PROMOTION PROCEDURES	-.55	1.13
12. EFFICIENT EVALUATIONS	-.26	1.10
13. COMMAND STAFF	-.42	1.16
14. IN-SERVICE TRAINING	.02	1.11
15. COMMUNITY RELATIONS	.58	.91
16. REPORT-MAKING SYSTEM	-.04	1.14
17. SUPERVISOR SUPPORT	.75	1.22
18. SUPERVISOR CONSULTATION AVAILABILITY	.89	1.12
19. SUPERVISOR ASSISTANCE	.84	1.15
20. QUALITY OF EQUIPMENT	-.05	1.27
21. AVAILABILITY OF EQUIPMENT	-.16	1.25
22. CURRENT ASSIGNMENT	1.16	.90
23. GENERAL DUTIES	.97	.79

Mean represents a scale ranging from -2 (Very Dissatisfied) to 2 (Very Satisfied)

Table 5 shows a correlation matrix of the scales used in this study. Among demographic characteristics, rank was weakly correlated with several other items, while education, gender, and race showed very weak correlations with most of the other variables used in the study. Most of these relationships

were not statistically significant. Job satisfaction (overall) was significantly and positively correlated with all of the job satisfaction facets and organizational commitment. Turnover intentions were negatively and significantly associated with all job satisfaction facets and organizational commitment. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for each scale are also shown in Table 3.

Table 5
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Study Variables (N=433)

Variable	M	SD	α	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Education				.228**											
2. Rank				-.083	.031										
3. Gender				-.102*	.048										
4. Race/Ethnicity				.04	.204**										
5. Job Satisfaction	.38	.53	.86	.041	.186**	-.084	.007								
6. Pay/Benefits	.64	.74	.83	.032	.123*	.031	.013	.750**							
7. Administration/Policy	.06	.56	.71	.042	.116*	.080	.017	.842**	.446**						
8. Supervisor	.83	1.12	.96	.009	.218**	.018	-.011	.595**	.272**	.360**					
9. Equipment	-.11	1.19	.88	-.008	.218**	.120*	.006	.549**	.311**	.394**	.107*				
10. Task/Job	1.06	.76	.75	-.008	.026	.064	-.041	.490**	.316**	.321**	.208**	.207**			
11. OC	.7080	.40	.71	-.014	.115*	.069	-.029	.444**	.309**	.456**	.195**	.212**	.186**		
12. Intention to Turnover	-.2570	1.14	.68	-.050	-.161**	-.034	.017	-.478**	-.317**	-.486**	-.223**	-.200**	-.279**	-.569**	

** p < .01 * p < .05

Mean represents a scale ranging from -2 (Very Dissatisfied) to 2 (Very Satisfied)

Research Question 2

How do job satisfaction and organizational commitment influence intentions to turnover?

1. Hypotheses

H2: There is a negative relationship between job satisfaction and intention to turnover (officers who are lower in job satisfaction will report higher levels of intention to turnover).

Table 6 shows the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression of overall job satisfaction and intention to turnover. The results (Model 1) show that job satisfaction is significantly negatively associated with intention to turnover, with 23 percent of the variance in the dependent variable explained. The hypothesis that job satisfaction would be negatively related to intention to turnover is confirmed. Officers who reported higher levels of job satisfaction also reported lower levels of intention to turnover.

Each facet of job satisfaction was also regressed with the dependent variable turnover intentions. Perhaps not surprisingly, each facet was significantly and negatively correlated with intention to turnover. Explained variance ranged from 6.6 percent (Equipment) to 25.6 percent (Admin/Policy).

Table 6
OLS Regression of Intention to Turnover on Job Satisfaction (Overall), Controlling
For Demographics (N=448)

IV	Model 1 <i>β</i>	Model 2 <i>β</i>	Model 3 <i>β</i>	
JOB SATISFACTION (OVERALL)	-.480***	-.467***	-.532***	
<i>Demographics</i>				
EDUCATION		-.025	-.017	
RANK		-.064	-.065	
GENDER		.011	.013	
RACE		.049	.058	
<i>Interaction Effects</i>				
JS X EDUC			.132*	
JS X RANK			-.054	
	R ²	.230	.238	.245
	N=448			

*** p < .001 * p < .05

H2A: Officers' rank moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and intention to turnover. The relationship between job satisfaction and intention to turnover will be weakened for senior officers.

This finding is not confirmed. Rank has no significant moderating effect on the relationship between overall job satisfaction and intention to turnover.

However, when turnover intentions are regressed on job satisfaction facet scales

rank does have a significant moderating effect on the relationship between supervisor satisfaction and intention to turnover (senior officers less likely to report intention to turnover than junior officers).

H2B: Officers' formal level of educational attainment moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and intention to turnover. The relationship between job satisfaction and intention to turnover is stronger for officers with a college degree (B.A. or higher).

When demographic characteristics and interaction terms are factored into the equation in Table 6 (Models 2 and 3, respectively), the relationship between overall job satisfaction and intention to turnover only slightly varies and maintains statistical significance at the .001 level. Additionally, Model 3 shows that level of education does have a significant moderating effect between job satisfaction and intention to turnover. Officers who hold at least a four-year college degree are more likely to express turnover intentions when they report low levels of job satisfaction than officers who have not achieved this level of formal education. However, the addition of both control variables and interaction terms only raises the explanatory power of job satisfaction on intention to turnover by 1.5 percent, a negligible increase. This finding is confirmed.

Although regressions were conducted with all facets of job satisfaction, only one facet, Supervisors, had statistically significant results. Table 7 shows

intention to turnover regressed on supervisor satisfaction. The relationship, just like the other facets of job satisfaction, is significant and negative (Model 1). Demographic characteristics are added in Model 2, with rank the only control variable significantly related to turnover intentions. Finally, interaction terms are added in Model 3. Rank as a control variable continues to be significantly related to turnover intentions, and the interaction term also indicates a significant relationship (.01), with senior officers less likely to report intentions to turnover based on level of job satisfaction. The level of explained variance in the final model is 9 percent. No other regressions of individual facets of job satisfaction produced significant results.

Table 7
OLS Regression of Intention to Turnover on Job Satisfaction (Supervisor Subscale), Controlling for Demographics (N=435)

IV	Model 1 <i>β</i>	Model 2 <i>β</i>	Model 3 <i>β</i>	
SUPERVISOR SATISFACTION	-.232***	-.216***	-.22**	
<i>Demographics</i>				
EDUCATION		-.013	.002	
RANK		-.133**	-.124*	
GENDER		-.029	-.024	
RACE		.021	.030	
<i>Interaction Effects</i>				
SUPER X EDUC			.090	
SUPER X RANK			-.138**	
	R ²	.054	.073	.090
	N=435			

*** p < .001 ** p < .01 * p < .05

H3: Officers who are lower in organizational commitment should report higher levels of intention to turnover.

Table 8 illustrates the findings of a series of OLS regressions examining the effects of organizational commitment on turnover intentions. The direct effect of organizational commitment and intention to turnover is shown in Model 1. The relationship is significant (.001) and negative, indicating that respondents with higher levels of organizational commitment were less likely to

report intentions to turnover. The explained variance is a relatively high 32 percent, leading one to conclude that organizational commitment may be more indicative of turnover intentions than job satisfaction. Demographic characteristics were added in Model 2, and rank is the only control variable showing statistical significance (.01), with senior officers indicating less intention to turnover than their junior counterparts.

Table 8
OLS Regression of Intention to Turnover on
Organizational Commitment, Controlling for Demographics (N=448)

IV	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
	β	β	β
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT	-.566***	-.556***	-.588***
<i>Demographics</i>			
EDUCATION		-.044	-.102
RANK		-.087*	-.115
GENDER		.006	.004
RACE		.029	.034
<i>Interaction Effects</i>			
OC X EDUC			.072
OC X RANK			.028
	R^2	.321	.332
	N=448	.334	

*** p < .001 * p < .05

H3A: Rank moderates the relationship between organizational commitment and intention to turnover. The relationship between organizational commitment and intention to turnover is stronger for senior officers.

H3B: Officers' formal level of educational attainment moderates the relationship between organizational commitment and intention to turnover. The relationship between organizational commitment and intention to turnover is stronger for officers with a college degree (B.A. or higher).

Finally, interaction terms are added in Model 3, though neither level of education nor rank seem to have a significant moderating effect between organizational commitment and turnover intentions. Additionally, the level of explained variance only increases from Model 1 to Model 3 by 1.3 percent, once again suggesting that demographic variables are relatively unimportant in these relationships. The hypothesis that organizational commitment is negatively related to intentions to turnover is confirmed. Those reporting higher levels of organizational commitment also report lower levels of intention to turnover.

Table 9
OLS Regression of Intention to Turnover on Job Satisfaction and
Organizational Commitment, Controlling for Demographics (N=448)

IV	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	
	β	β	β	β	β	
JOB SATISFACTION (OVERALL)	-.280**	-.272**	-.300**	-.273**	-.290**	
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT	-.439**	-.438**	-.433**	-.464**	-.456**	
<i>Demographics</i>						
EDUCATION		-.038	-.033	-.066	-.028	
RANK		-.049	-.046	-.119	-.172	
GENDER		.024	.025	.023	.023	
RACE		.034	.039	.037	.043	
<i>Interaction Effects</i>						
JS X EDUC			.071			
JS X RANK			-.048			
OC X EDUC				0.34		
OC X RANK				.080		
JS X EDUC					0.75	
JS X RANK					-.083	
OC X EDUC					-.008	
OC X RANK					.153	
	R ²	.383	.389	.392	0.390	.395
	N=448					

** p < .001 * p < .05

Table 9 show the results of a series of OLS regressions using all study variables. Model 1 illustrates the direct effects of overall job satisfaction and organizational commitment on the dependent variable intention to turnover.

Both independent variables are significantly and negatively correlated with intention to turnover, with an explained variance of 38 percent. Model 2 shows the addition of demographic control variables, while Models 3 through 5 include a series of interaction terms to assess if level of education or rank moderate the relationships between job satisfaction and/or organizational commitment. The results show that these interaction terms have no significant moderating effects on these relationships in an all-inclusive model. In addition, explained variance between the main effects of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Model 1) and the all-inclusive model (Model 5) increases a meager 1.2 percent. This reveals that the demographic characteristics of respondents make little difference in their perceptions of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intentions to turnover.

In summary, the findings indicate the expected relationships among job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intentions to turnover. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment are both negatively correlated with turnover intentions, with respondents who report high levels of either job satisfaction or organizational commitment also reporting less intention to turnover. Demographic characteristics showed very little influence in moderating these relationships and even less influence on turnover intentions as antecedents.

Chapter 6

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships among several work-related variables. To accomplish this, the study was separated into two distinct sections: 1) a qualitative analysis of the relationships between both organizational justice and job satisfaction and organizational justice and organizational commitment and 2) a quantitative analysis of the relationships between job satisfaction and turnover intentions and between organizational commitment and turnover intentions.

In the first part of the study, the qualitative assessment of open-ended survey responses, the following research question was posed: How does organizational justice influence perceptions of job satisfaction and organizational commitment? Furthermore, several hypotheses were put forth regarding these relationships. Specifically, it was thought that these relationships would be positive in nature (i.e. those reporting higher levels of the three types of organizational justice would also report higher levels of satisfaction and commitment). The data do seem to confirm this proposition. Officers who chose to answer open-ended questions commonly made reference to concerns about fairness in their comments about specific facets of their jobs. Additionally, responses concerning procedural justice were more strongly tied to issues related to job satisfaction and commitment (though considerably less so

for the latter than expected) than did responses indicating distributive justice concerns. In fact, there relatively few responses containing references to distributive justice (as opposed to procedural and interactional), and these responses seemed confined primarily to a few areas that are more individual-level (pay and benefits, performance evaluations, and general job duties).

One surprising finding is the strength of relationships between interactional justice and both job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Due to the fact that interactional justice has only recently started to be measured as a distinctly different concept than procedural justice, I was confident only that it would indeed be positively related to these other variables. The findings indicate that interactional justice, at least in this sample, is incredibly important in influencing these officers' attitudes regarding satisfaction and commitment.

In the second part of the study, the focus shifted to a concentration on the relationships between satisfaction, commitment and turnover intentions. First, the direct effects of these variables were assessed using OLS regression. The results indicated that both job satisfaction and organizational commitment have strong negative relationships with turnover intentions. These relationships were not diminished upon addition of demographic control variables. In fact, demographic characteristics were of minimal impact, explaining negligible amounts of variance in the dependent variable.

Once the baseline direct effects of satisfaction and commitment were established, the second part of the analysis was to test the moderating effects of level of formal education and rank. Level of education was found to moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions, with the link being stronger for college educated officers. Additionally, when the interaction effects of education and rank for each individual facet of job satisfaction were assessed it is found that rank moderates the relationship between supervisor satisfaction and turnover intentions (this relationship is weakened for senior officers). No other interaction effects were found to be statistically significant.

The results of this study provide support for the link between different types of organizational justice and job satisfaction/commitment (especially among the facets of satisfaction). This could help managers understand the importance of the perception of fairness among employees and possibly spur them to reassess their management methods.

Supporting evidence for the relationships between job satisfaction/organizational commitment and turnover intentions was also provided. Although these relationships were expected, the method used to assess them was unique, including a re-conceptualized job satisfaction instrument specifically designed for police officers and assessing the relationships between the facets of satisfaction and turnover intentions. Furthermore, an assessment of the moderating effects of education and rank was undertaken, finding some evidence that both variables can change the

relationships between satisfaction facets and organizational commitment and the dependent variable turnover intentions.

What conclusions can be drawn about the importance of organizational justice, satisfaction, commitment, and turnover? Why is increasing perceptions of fairness in the best interest of an organization? This sergeant sums up some of the problems associated when employees feel they have been treated unjustly:

It is my experience that about 20% of the officers on any shift and assigned to patrol exhibit signs of poor morale on any given day. Burnout is more prevalent in officers with more time on, and these officers tend to have very low productivity. It causes less problems for them than actually doing something to mitigate crime. More officers are exhibiting burnout on the street in a very short time after they complete training.

Issues like decreased productivity and performance, burnout, absenteeism, and ultimately turnover are detrimental to the efficiency of any organization. Money invested in employees to improve their knowledge and skills is lost when they have to be replaced, not to mention their experience on the job, which cannot be replaced easily. These problems are compounded in a profession such as policing, where experience, training and motivation could mean the difference in safety compromised and lives lost.

Limitations

These data are not without their limitations. These data were collected from each respondent on only one occasion as opposed to collecting multiple waves of data from the same respondents over time. Therefore, these data will have the same limitations that are inherent in all cross-sectional data, namely the inability to confidently show causal relationships between variables that longitudinal data would be more likely to capture. These data are merely a “snapshot” of attitudes and perceptions at one point in time. Not only is this problematic when arguing that causal relationships exist, but it does not allow for measurement of changes in attitudes over time. It is possible that if there are changes in the department, such as the installation of a new Chief of Police, that the attitudes of the respondents could change as well. It is the hope of this researcher that future surveys will be allowed by the department which will permit not only comparison of attitudes over time but for further reliability tests of the survey instrument. Finally, the questions used in the survey were somewhat limited, as the FOP executive board was primarily concerned with job satisfaction and morale. As a result, my freedom to ask questions in other areas was restricted.

It is highly likely that sampling bias exists in these data. While steps can be taken to reduce sampling error in any study, eliminating it completely is unlikely. Although this sample has been shown to be very representative of the entire population, approximately one-half of the population did not respond to

the survey or share their attitudes or perceptions on factors that relate to job satisfaction. While researchers hope that the sample is truly representative, there is undoubtedly an unknown and unmeasurable amount of self-selection bias in the sample data. This could stem from a number of factors, including age, tenure, level of satisfaction, fear of identification or retribution, apathy, and technological proficiency.

Since I was unable to obtain electronic mail addresses of the local FOP membership, a recruitment letter sent with the FOP monthly newsletter was used to inform members about the survey and to encourage their participation by following a web link from the local FOP lodge website to the survey. This created several potential problems that specifically relate to the validity of the data obtained. First, the survey was open to anyone who wanted to take it. Although it is unlikely that non-members would take the survey, it is a possibility since no log-in or identifying information was required. Similarly, it is impossible to determine if each respondent only participated in the survey one time. Even though IP logging was enabled through the third-party survey website, respondents using the same IP address were not restricted to one log-on. The result is that individual respondents could have taken the survey multiple times. It was determined that there were a number of FOP members who were married or roommates, and researchers did not want to exclude potential respondents. Upon examining the data, it was found that many responses were completed from the same IP address (the police department uses

one IP address for all internal computers, as does the FOP lodge). Thirdly, FOP members that lack the confidence or technical ability required to participate in an online survey were almost certainly excluded from the sample. It is unknown to what extent potential respondents were excluded due to the use of an online survey.

The decision not to use identifying information was made in large part after numerous discussions with the FOP executive board. It was their overwhelming opinion that identifying information should not be asked for because it would reduce the response rate (due to the officers being apprehensive at being asked to identify themselves). It was for this reason that I elected to use ranges in several demographic fields, as opposed to more specific information that might make potential respondents uncomfortable to answer for fear of being identified, which was a recurring theme in conversations with various FOP members. Unfortunately, due to decision to not use identifying information, there is a question of validity in regards to the truthfulness of respondents. There is no way to determine how accurately respondents were with demographics or attitudes.

Suggestions for Future Research

Suggestions for research on organizational justice, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions are numerous. First, an

effort should be made to include validated and reliable measures for the study variables. While the open-ended responses resulted in very interesting and highly detailed assessments of these concepts, not everyone will view the relationships among the variables as credibly as if they were supplemented with quantitative data. That the majority of published research in the social sciences uses quantitative data/methods is confirmation of its popularity and standing. Similarly, more reliable measures should be used to measure turnover intentions and organizational commitment, in addition to an attempt to measure the different types of organizational commitment.

There are a number of variables that have been shown in previous research to contribute to the understanding of the relationships between organizational justice, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover. Due to the limitations in the data used for this study, I was unable to include many of those variables in the analysis. Future research should attempt to include these variables in their models to help provide a better understanding about how these they interact with one another. Variables that have been shown in previous studies to affect job satisfaction and/or organizational commitment are opportunity, kinship obligations, job involvement, positive/negative affectivity, autonomy, routinization, and job stress (Price 1990).

Policy Implications

In closing, I will now address some potential policy implications regarding the study of job satisfaction, organizational justice and commitment, and turnover. It has been established that these concepts are correlated, but what can be done to increase employees' feelings of fairness, satisfaction, and commitment? I would argue that by addressing organizational justice, improvements would be seen among the other variables, as well. For this sample, the first step has already been taken. The FOP that represents these officers has realized the value of asking how their members feel about a variety of issues related not only to their work but to the department they work for. In essence, by contracting this study, the FOP has made an attempt to open the lines of communication with its members, giving them a "voice" in matters that concern them. Although the FOP represents the officers of this department and can use the information obtained in the survey to bargain for changes, ultimately the administration of department will be responsible for addressing areas of concern and possibly making desired changes. It is apparent that there is a sense among these officers that the department has implemented policies that are perceived as unfair and that these feelings are related to dissatisfaction and reduced levels of commitment. Administrators should begin by addressing the dimensions of organizational justice. Respondents expressed frustration and feelings of unfairness at both supervisors/administrators and at departmental policies and procedures. Administrators should attempt to re-evaluate their

decision-making process, with an emphasis on soliciting opinions about how matters should be handled from the rank and file of the department. By giving the officers a “voice” in the process and opening lines of communication (flattening the organizational structure), administrators could come to more equitable decisions that both they and they officers are supportive of. For example, if equipment is an issue, administrators might attempt to include officers in the decision-making process before new equipment is purchased. In a similar vein, administrators should focus on specific procedures within the department that are viewed as unfair, such as the evaluation and promotional processes. If these procedures can be modified and applied consistently and without bias, officers are more likely to consider them fair. Finally, there were a number of responses related to how the officers feel they are treated by supervisors and administrators. Many of these comments revealed feelings that the command staff does not care about the safety and well-being of the rank and file. The administration should make an effort to change these perceptions and express to the officers how important they are.

References

- Adams, J. S. (1965). "Inequity in social exchange." In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 267-299). New York: Academic Press.
- Alexander, S. and Ruderman, Marian. (1987). "The role of procedural and distributive justice in organizational behavior." *Social Justice Research*, 1(2): 177-198.
- Barling, J. and Phillips, M. (1993). "Interactional, Formal, and Distributive Justice in the Workplace: An Exploratory Study." *Journal of Psychology*, 123(6): 641- 649.
- Bateman, T.S. and Strasser, S. (1984). "A Longitudinal Analysis of the Antecedents of Organizational Commitment." *Academy of Management Journal*, 27: 95-112.
- Beck, K. and Wilson, C. (2000). "Development of Affective Organizational Commitment: A Cross-Sequential Examination of Change with Tenure." *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 56(1):114-136.
- Bies, R. J., & Moag, J. F. (1986). "Interactional justice: Communication criteria of Fairness." In R. J. Lewicki, B. H. Sheppard, & M. H. Bazerman (Eds.), *Research on negotiations in organizations* (Vol. 1). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Bluedorn, A.C. (1982). "A Unified Model of Turnover from Organizations." *Human Relations*, 35:135-153.
- Brennan, N., Rae, N. and Parackal, M. (1999). "Survey-based experimental research via the web: Some observations." *Marketing Bulletin* 10:83-92. Retrieved October 1, 2008 from <http://marketing-bulletin.massey.ac.nz/article10/article9b.asp>.
- Brett, J. M. (1986). "Commentary of procedural justice papers." In R. J. Lewicki, B.H. Sheppard, & M. H. Bazerman (Eds.), *Research on negotiations in organizations* (Vol. 1). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Brunetto, Y. and Farr-Wharton, R. (2003). "The commitment and satisfaction of lower-ranked police officers: Lessons for management." *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 26(1):43-63.

- Buffum, W.E. and Konick, A. (1982). "Employees' job satisfaction, residents' functioning, and treatment progress in psychiatric institutions." *Health Soc Work* 7(4):320-327.
- Burke, R. and Deszca, G. (1987). "Changes in Career Orientations in Police Officers: An Exploratory Study." *Psychological Reports*, 61(2):515-526.
- (1988). "Career Orientation, Satisfaction and Health Among Police Officers: Some Consequences of Person-Job Misfit." *Psychological Reports*, 62(2):639-649.
- (1989). "Career Stages, Satisfaction, and Well-Being Among Police Officers." *Psychological Reports*, 65(1):3-12.
- Buzawa, E. (1984). "Determining Patrol Officer Job Satisfaction: The Role of Selected Demographic and Job-Specific Attitudes." *Criminology*, 22(1):61-81.
- Buzawa, E. Austin, T. and Bannon, J. (1994). "The Role of Selected Sociodemographic and Job Specific Variables in Predicting Patrol Officer Satisfaction: A Reexamination Ten Years Later." *American Journal of Police*, 13(2):51-75.
- Carlan, P. (2007). "The Search for Job Satisfaction: A Survey of Alabama Policing." *American Journal of Criminal Justice*, 32:74-86.
- Carrell, M., Kuzmits, F., and Elbert, N. (1992). *Personnel/Human Resource Management*. New York, NY: Macmillan Publishing Company.
- Carter, D. and Sapp, A. (1990). "The Evolution of Higher Education in Law Enforcement: Preliminary Findings from a National Study." *Journal of Criminal Justice Education*, 1(1):59-85.
- Case, J. (2002). *The Relationship between Education and Police Stress: Bachelor's Degree Versus High School*. Thesis from Marshall University.
- Clay-Warner, J., Reynolds, J. and Roman, P. (2005). "Organizational Justice and Job Satisfaction: A Test of Three Competing Models." *Social Justice Research*, 18(4):391-409.
- Cobanoglu, C., Warde, B., and Moreo, P. (2001). "A comparison of mail, fax, and web-based survey methods." *International Journal of Market Research*, 43(4):441-452.

- Cobb, A.T. and Frey, F.M. (1996). "The effects of leader fairness and pay outcomes on superior/subordinate relations." *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 26:1401-1426.
- Cohen-Charish, Y. and Spector, P.E. (2001). "The Role of Justice in Organizations: A Meta-Analysis." *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 86(2):278-321.
- Colquitt, J. A. (2001). "On the dimensionality of organizational justice: A construct validation of a measure." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86:386-400.
- Colquitt, J.A., Conlon, D.E., Wesson, M.J., Porter, C., and Ng, K.Y. (2001). "Justice at the millennium: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of organizational justice research." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(3):425-445.
- Couper, M.P., Traugott, M. and Lamias, M. (2001). "Web survey design and administration." *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 65:23-253.
- Cowherd, D. M., & Levine, D. I. (1992). "Product quality and pay equity between lower-level employees and top management: An investigation of distributive justice theory." *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 37:302-320.
- Cropanzano, R., & Greenberg, J. (1997). "Progress in organizational justice: Tunneling through the maze." In C. L. Cooper & I. T. Robertson (Eds.), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 317-372). New York: John Wiley.
- Currivan, D. (1999). "The Causal Order of Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment in Models of Employee Turnover." *Human Resource Management Review*, 9(4):495-524.
- Dantzker, M.L. (1992). "An Issue of Policing – Educational Level and Job Satisfaction: A Research Note." *American Journal of Police*, 12(2):101-118.
- (1993). "Designing a Measure of Job Satisfaction for Policing: A Research Note." *Journal of Crime & Justice*, 16(2):171-181.
- (1994). "Measuring Job Satisfaction in Police Departments and Policy

Implications: An Examination of a Mid-Size, Southern Police Department.” *American Journal of Police*, 13(2):77-101.

Dantzker, M.L. and Kubin, B. (1998). “Job satisfaction: The gender perspective among police officers.” *American Journal of Criminal Justice*, 23(1):19-31.

Deutsch, M. (1975). “Equity, equality, and need: What determines which value will be used as the basis for distributive justice?” *Journal of Social Issues*, 31:137-149.

Dixon, M.A., Cunningham, G.B., Sagas, M., Turner, B.A. and Kent, A. (2005). “Challenge is key: an investigation of affective e organizational commitment in undergraduate interns.” *Journal of Education for Business*, Jan/Feb:172-180.

Ducharme, L. and Martin, J. (2000). “Unrewarding Work, Coworker Support, and Job Satisfaction.” *Work and Occupations*, 27(2):223-243.

Farkas, A.J. and Tetrick, L.E. (1989). “A three-wave longitudinal analysis of the causal ordering of satisfaction and commitment on turnover decisions.” *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74:855-868.

Farmer, S., Beehr, T. and Love, K. (2003). “Becoming an undercover police officer: A note on fairness perceptions, behavior and attitudes.” *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24:373-387.

Felkenes, G. and Lasley, J. (1992). “Implications of hiring women police officers: Police administrator’s concerns may not be justified.” *Policing and Society*, 2:1-10.

Folger, R., & Konovsky, M.A. (1989). “Effects of procedural and distributive justice on reactions to pay raise decisions.” *Academy of Management Journal*, 32:115-130.

Forsyth, C.J. and Copes, J.H. (1994). “Determinants of job satisfaction among police officers.” *International Review of Modern Sociology*, 24(1):109-116.

French, W. (1964). *The Personnel Management Process: Human Resources Administration*. New York: Houghton Mifflin.

French, R.P. and Caplan, R.D. (1972). “Organizational stress and individual

- strain.” in Marrow, A.J. (Eds.) *The Failure of Success*, AMACOM, New York, NY.
- Frost, J.A. (2006). *Predictors of Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention in Police Organizations: A Procedural Approach*. Dissertation from the University of Illinois at Chicago.
- Gaines, L. (1993). “Coping with the Police Job: Stress in Police Work.” p. 338-50 in R. Dunham and G. Alpert (Eds.) *Critical Issues in Policing: Contemporary Readings*. Prospect Heights, IL: Waveland.
- Grant, N., Garrison, C., and McCormick, K. (1990). “Perceived Utilization, Job Satisfaction and Advancement of Police Women.” *Public Personnel Management*, 19(2):147-154.
- Greenberg, J. (1986). “Determinants of perceived fairness of performance evaluations.” *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71:340-342.
- (1987a). “A taxonomy of organizational justice theories.” *Academy of Management Review*, 18:9-22.
- (1987b). “Reactions to procedural injustice in payment distributions: Do the means justify the ends?” *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 72:55-61.
- (1993). The social side of fairness: Interpersonal and informational classes of organizational justice. In R. Cropanzano (Ed.). *Justice in the workplace: Approaching fairness in human resource management* (pp. 79-103). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Greene, J. (1989). “Police Officer Job Satisfaction and Community Perceptions: Implications for Community-Oriented Policing.” *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 26(2):168-183.
- Griffeth, R.W., Hom, P.W. and Gaertner, S. (2000). “A Meta-Analysis of Antecedents and Correlates of Employee Turnover: Update, Moderator Tests, and Research Implications for the Next Millennium.” *Journal of Management*, 26(3):463-488.
- Griffin, M., and Hepburn, J. (2005). “Side-bets and reciprocity as determinants of organizational commitment among correctional officers.” *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 33:611-625.
- Hackman, J. and Oldman, G. (1975). “Development of the Job Diagnostic Survey.” *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 60(2):159-170.

- Halsted, J. (1985). "Criminal Justice Education and the Humanities: A New Era?" *Educational and Psychological Research*, 5(3):149-164.
- Harvey, R. and Billings, R. (1985). "Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the Job Diagnostic Survey: Good News and Bad News." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 70(3):461-468.
- Hoath, D.R., Schneider, F.W. and Starr, M.W. (1998). "Police job satisfaction as a function of career orientation and position tenure: Implications for selection and community policing." *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 26(4):337-347.
- Hom, P.W. and Griffeth, R.W. (1995). *Employee Turnover*. Cincinnati, OH: Southwestern.
- Hom, P.W. and Kinicki, A.J. (2001). "Toward a Greater Understanding of How Dissatisfaction Drives Employee Turnover." *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(5):975-987.
- Homans, G. C. (1961). *Social behaviour: Its elementary forms*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Hunt, R.G. and McCadden, K.S. (1985). "Survey of Work Attitudes of Police Officers – Commitment and Satisfaction." *Police Studies*, 8(1):17-25.
- Hynes, J. (2007). *A Descriptive Study of the Impact of Higher Education: Perceptions of Police Officers*. A Dissertation from the University of Northern Arizona.
- Iverson, R.D. and Buttigieg, D.M. (1999). "Affective, Normative, and Continuance Commitment: Can the 'Right Kind' of Commitment be Managed?" *Journal of Management Studies*, 36(3):307-333.
- Jayarathne, S. (1993). "The Antecedents, Consequences, and Correlates of Job Satisfaction." Pp. 111-140 in *Handbook of Organizational Behavior*, edited by R.T. Golembiewski. New York:Decker.
- Johlke, M. and Duhan, D. (2000). "Supervisor Communication Practices and Service Employee Job Outcomes." *Journal of Service Research*, 3(2):154-165.
- Jones, D., Jones, L. and Prenzler, T. (2005). "Tertiary education, commitment, and turnover in police work." *Police Practice and Research*, 6(1):49-63.

- Koslowsky, M. (1990). "Staff/line distinctions in job and organizational commitment." *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63(2):167-173.
- Krimmel, J.T. and Gormley, P.E. (2003). "Tokenism and job satisfaction for policewomen." *American Journal of Criminal Justice*, 28(1):73-88.
- Koch, J.L. and Steers, R.M. (1978). "Job Attachment, Satisfaction, and Turnover among Public Sector Employees." *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 12(1):119-127.
- Labatmediene, L., Endriulaitiene, A., and Gustainiene, L. (2007). "Individual correlates of organizational commitment and intention to leave the organization." *Baltic Journal of Management*, 2(2):196-212.
- Lambert, E.G., Hogan, N.L. and Griffin, M.L. (2007). "The impact of distributive and procedural justice on correctional staff job stress, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment." *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 35:644-656.
- Lambert, E.G., Reynolds, M., Paoline, E. and Watkins, C. (2004). "The effects of occupational stressors on jail staff job satisfaction." *Journal of Crime and Justice*, 27:1-32.
- Lefkowitz, J. (1974). "Job Attitudes of Police: Overall Description and Overall Correlates." *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 5:221-230.
- Lester, D., Benkovich, C., Brady, J., Dietrich, M., and Solis, A. (1981). "Stress and Job Satisfaction in Police Officers." *An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 4(1):34-35.
- Leventhal, G. S. (1976). "The distribution of rewards and resources in groups and organizations." In L. Berkowitz & W. Walster (Eds.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 9, pp. 91-131). New York: Academic Press.
- (1980). What should be done with equity theory? New approaches to the study of fairness in social relationships. In K. Gergen, M. Greenberg, & R. Willis (Eds.), *Social exchange: Advances in theory and research* (pp. 27-55). New York: Plenum Press.
- Love, K. and Singer, M. (1988). "Self-Efficacy, Psychological Well-Being, Job Satisfaction, and Job Involvement: A Comparison of Male and Female Police Officers." *Police Studies*, 11(2):98-102.

- Lowe, R.H. and Vodanovich, S.J. (1995). "A field study of distributive and procedural justice as predictors of satisfaction and organizational commitment." *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 10:99-114.
- Mangione, T.W. and Quinn, R.P. (1973). *Job satisfaction, counter productive behavior, and self-narcotizing withdrawal from work*. Ann Arbor: Survey Research Center.
- Marchiori, D.M. and Henkin, A.B. (2004). "Organizational commitment of a health profession faculty: dimensions, correlated, and conditions." *Medical Teacher*, 26(4):353-358.
- Martelli, T., Waters, L. and Martelli, J. (1989). "The Police Stress Survey: Reliability and Relation to Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment." *Psychological Reports*, 64(1):267-273.
- Mathieu, J.E. and Zajac, D.M. (1990). "A Review and Meta-Analysis of the Antecedents, Correlates and Consequences of Organizational Commitment." *Psychological Bulletin* 108(2):171-194.
- McElroy, J., Morrow, P. and Wardlow, T. (1999). "A career analysis of police work commitment." *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 27(6).
- McFarlin, Dean B., and Sweeney, Paul D. (1992). "Distributive and Procedural Justice as Predictors of Satisfaction with Personal and Organizational Outcomes." *Academy of Management Journal*, 35: 626-637.
- Medlin, C., Roy, S. Ham Chai, T. (1999). "World Wide Web versus mail surveys: A comparison and report." Paper presented at ANZMAC99 Conference: Marketing in the Third Millennium. November 28 – December 1, Sydney, Australia. Retrieved October 1 from <http://www.singstat.gov.sg/conferences/ec/f112.pdf>.
- Mehta, R. and E. Sivadas. (1995). "Comparing Response Rates and Response Content in Mail Versus Electronic Surveys." *Journal of the Market Research Society*, 37(4): 429-440.
- Metcalfe, B. and Dick, G. (2000). "Is the force still with you? Measuring police commitment." *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 15(8):812-832.
- Meyer, J.P. and Allen, N.J. (1991). "A three-part conceptualization of organizational commitment." *Human Resource Management Review*, 1:61-89.

- Meyer, J.P., Stanley, D.J., Herscovitch, L. and Topolnytsky, L. (2002). "Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment to the Organization: A Meta-analysis of Antecedents, Correlates, and Consequences." *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 61(1):20-52.
- Mowday, R.T., Steers, R.M., and Porter, L.M. (1982). *Employee-Organization Linkage: The Psychology of Commitment, Absenteeism, and Turnover*. New York: Academic Press.
- Mueller, C.W. and McCloskey, J. (1990). "Nurses' Job Satisfaction: A Proposed Measure." *Nursing Research*, 39(2):67-126.
- Nacoste, R. W. (1987). "But do they care about fairness? The dynamics of preferential treatment and minority interest." *Basic and Applied Psychology*, 8:177-191.
- Parasuraman, A. and Futrell, C.M. (1983). "Demographics, job satisfaction, and propensity to leave of industrial salesmen." *Journal of Business Research*, 11(1):33-48.
- Pelfrey, W. (2007). "Style of policing adopted by rural police and deputies: An analysis of job satisfaction and community policing." *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 30(4): 620-636.
- Pfeffer, J., & Davis-Blake, A. (1992). "Salary dispersion, location in the salary distribution, and turnover among college administrators." *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, 45:753-763.
- Pfeffer, J., & Langton, N. (1993). "The effects of wage dispersion on satisfaction, productivity, and working collaboratively: Evidence from college and university faculty." *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 38:382-407.
- Price, J.L. (1995). "A role for demographic variables in the study of absenteeism and turnover." *The International Journal of Career Management*, 7:26-32.
- Quinn, R.P., Cammann, C.C., Gupta, N. and Beehr, T.A. (1973). "Effectiveness in work roles." Final Report to the Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor (April).
- Regoli, R., Crank, J. and Culbertson, R. (1989). "Police Cynicism, Job

- Satisfaction, and Work Relations of Police Chiefs: An Assessment of the Effects of Department Size.” *Sociological Focus*, 22(3):161-171.
- Reiss, A. (1967). “Career Orientation, Job Satisfaction, and the Assessment of Law Enforcement Problems by Police Officers.” *In Studies in Crime and Law Enforcement in Major Metropolitan Area, V2, Field Surveys III*. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Samad, S. (2006). “The Contribution of Demographic Variables: Job Characteristics and Job Satisfaction on Turnover Intentions.” *Journal of International Management Studies*, 1(1):1-12.
- Savery, L.K. and Syme, P.D. (1996). “Organizational commitment and hospital pharmacists.” *Journal of Management Development*, 15(1):14-22.
- Schaefer, D. and Dillman, D. (1998). “Development of a Standard E-Mail Methodology: Results of an Experiment.” *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 62:378-397.
- Schwarzwald, J., Koslowsky, M., & Shalit, B. (1992). “A field study of employees’ attitudes and behaviors after promotion decisions.” *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77:511-514.
- Seashore, S. and Taber, T. (1975). “Job Satisfaction Indicators and Their Correlates.” *American Behavioral Scientist*, 18(3):333-368.
- Sheehan, K.B. and McMillan, S.J. (1999). “Response variation in e-mail surveys: An exploration.” *Journal of Advertising Research*, 39(4):45-54.
- Sheley, J.F. and Nock, S.L. (1979). “Determinants of Police Job Satisfaction.” *Sociological Inquiry*, 49(1):49-55.
- Singh, P., Finn, D. and Goulet, L. (2004). “Gender and job attitudes: a re-examination and extension.” *Women in Management Review*, 19(7):345-355.
- Slocum, J. and Strawser, R. (1972). “Racial Differences in Job Attitudes.” *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 56(1):28-32.
- Smith, C.B. (1997). “Casting the Net: surveying an Internet population.” *Journal of Computer Mediated Communication*, 3(1). Retrieved October 4, 2008 from <http://www.ascusc.org/jcmc/vol3/issue1/smith.html>.
- Smith, P.C., Kendall, L.M., and Hulin, C.L. (1969). *The Measure of Satisfaction*

in Work Retirement. Chicago: Rand McNally.

- Spector, P.E. (1985). "Measurement of human service staff satisfaction: Development of the Job Satisfaction Survey." *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 13(6):693-713.
- (1997). *Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes, and consequences*. California: Sage Publications.
- Stanton, J.M. (1998). "An empirical assessment of data collection using the Internet." *Personnel Psychology*, 51(3):709-725.
- Sweeney, P. D., & McFarlin, D. B. (1993). "Workers' evaluations of the "ends" and the "means": An examination of four models of distributive and procedural justice." *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 55:23-40.
- Tang, T.L.P. and Sarsfield-Baldwin, L.J. (1996). "Distributive and Procedural Justice as Related to Satisfaction and Commitment." *SAM Advanced Management Journal*, 61(3):25-31.
- Tang, T.L.P., Kim, J.K. and Tang, S.D. (2000). "Does attitude toward money moderate the relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and voluntary turnover?" *Human Relations*, 53:213-245.
- Thibaut, J., & Walker, L. (1975). *Procedural justice: A psychological analysis*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Thomas, W.I. and Thomas, D.S. (1928). *The child in America: Behavior problems and programs*. New York:Knopf.
- Thompson, L.F., Surface, E.A., Martin, D.L. and Sanders, M.G. (2003). "From paper to pixels: Moving personnel surveys to the Web." *Personnel Psychology*, 56(1):197-227.
- Tremblay, M., Sire, B., & Balkin, D.B. (2000). "The Role of Organizational Justice in Pay and Employee Satisfaction, and its Effects on Work Attitudes." *Group & Organization Management*, 25(3):269-290.
- Tyler, T.R. (1990). *Why people obey the law: Procedural justice, legitimacy, and compliance*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Tyler, T. R., & Smith, H. J. (1998). Social justice and social movements. In D.

- T. Gilbert, S. T. Fiske, & G. Lindzey (Eds.), *The handbook of social psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 595-629). Boston: McGraw-Hill.
- Udechukwu, I. (2007). "The Influence of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Satisfaction on Organizational Exit (Voluntary Turnover): Evidence from a Correctional Setting." *Journal of Applied Management and Entrepreneurship*, 12(1):127-141.
- Van Maanen, J. (1975). "Police Socialization: A Longitudinal Examination of Job Attitudes in an Urban Police Department." *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 20(2):207-228.
- Van Saane, N., Sluiter, J.K., Verbeek, J.H.A.M., and Frings-Dresen, M.H.W. (2003). "Reliability and validity of instruments measuring job satisfaction – a systematic review." *Occupational Medicine*, 53(1):191-200.
- Van Selm, M. and Jankowski, N. (2006). "Conducting Online Surveys." *Quality & Quantity*, 40:435-456.
- Wexler, J.G. and Logan, D.D. (1983). "Sources of Stress Among Women Police Officers." *Journal of Police Science and Administration*, 11(1):46-53.
- Williams, A.J. and Hazer, J.T. (1986). "Antecedents and consequences of satisfaction and commitment in turnover models: a reanalysis using latent variable structural equation models." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71:219-231.
- Winfrey, L.T., Guiterman, D. and Mays, G.L. (1997). "Work assignments and police work: Exploring the work world of sworn officers in four New Mexico police departments." *Policing*, 20:419-441.
- Worden, R. (1990). "A Badge and a Baccalaureate: Policies, Hypotheses, and Further Evidence." *Justice Quarterly*, 7(3):565-592.
- Wright, K.B. (2005). "Researching Internet-Based Populations: Advantages and Disadvantages of Online Survey Research, Online Questionnaire Authoring Software Packages, and Web Survey Services." *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 10(3), article 11. Retrieved October 10, 2008 from <http://jcmc.indiana.edu/vol10/issue3/wright.html>.
- Zhao, J., Thurman, Q., and He., N. (1999). "Sources of Job Satisfaction among

Police Officers: A Test of Demographic and Work Environment Models." *Justice Quarterly*, 16(1):153-173.

Zohar, D. (1995). "The justice perspective of job stress." *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 16:487-495.