

WHAT SATISFIES THE BADGE? JOB SATISFACTION AND DISSATISFACTION
AMONG CANADIAN PATROL OFFICERS

A Thesis Submitted to the College of Graduate and Postdoctoral Studies
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Education in the
Department of Educational Psychology and Special Education
University of Saskatchewan
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Abstract

Within police work, there are many factors that contribute to the job satisfaction or dissatisfaction that an officer may experience. However, the proper instrument needed to measure such factors within this unique occupation does not yet exist. The purpose of this research was to investigate sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction experienced by Canadian patrol officers in order to provide a foundation for future measure development. A qualitative research method was employed, while also using Herzberg's (1959) motivation-hygiene theory as a theoretical framework. Fifteen semi-structured interviews with Canadian patrol officers was carried out and all data was thematically analyzed. The findings from this study indicate that in addition to several general facets of job satisfaction (achievement, recognition, work itself, possibility of growth, advancement), unique sources of job satisfaction exist for Canadian patrol officers, including the peer camaraderie between officers and a sense of pride about the work. Alternatively, general factors of hygiene were confirmed to exist (company policy, interpersonal relations, physical working conditions, salary, job security), alongside of unique hygiene factors: reward system, effects on personal life, media relations, public relations, painful and traumatic experiences, and judicial system practices. Aspects of supervision and partnership quality served as both intrinsic and extrinsic conditions of the job. Given the importance of having effective policing within our communities, monitoring the job satisfaction of patrol officers can serve to mitigate the negative consequences of dissatisfaction, while also upholding motivation within the force.

Keywords: Patrol officer; Police job satisfaction, Canadian police; Survey development

Acknowledgments

I would like to express my deep appreciation for my supervisor, Dr. Laurie Hellsten, who has been an important professional and personal mentor. Her guidance and support have no doubt greatly contributed to my success as a graduate student. Additionally, I thank my research committee for offering their thoughts, revisions, and support throughout this process.

Justin Hendry, my husband and soulmate, has provided the endless emotional support and encouragement throughout all of my academic endeavours. I thank him for his genuine interest and support for my research. I also wholeheartedly thank him for his service to our community as being a police officer. Justin, this is for us.

To my brother, Michael. I thank him for always encouraging me to be better and strive for greatness in my education. He has always been my rock in life.

I also thank my paternal grandfather, Dr. Brian Lowry, who has instilled in me the spirit of Higher Education and emphasized the importance of pursuing knowledge. I hope to one day reach his level of success in life.

Last but not least, thank you to all of the officers across Canada who participated in this research. Their thoughtfulness, experiences, and insights remain vital to this research. I thank them for everything that they have graciously shared with me.

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my parents, Shon and Susan Marsh, who courageously walked the thin blue line for the safety of our community. Throughout their careers, I have witnessed both the triumph and turmoil that goes with being in the police profession. Despite the challenges, they have handled this difficult career with great perseverance and assertion. Mom and Dad, I am truly indebted to you for the inspiration, support, and immeasurable love you have offered me (even throughout the “crazy” years). I have always marched to the beat of my own drum – so thank you for always letting me march on.

Table of Contents

Permission to Use.....	i
Abstract.....	ii
Acknowledgments.....	iii
Dedication.....	iv
Table of Contents.....	v
List of Tables.....	x
List of Figures.....	xi
List of Abbreviations.....	xii
Chapter One: Introduction.....	1
1.1. Importance of Psychological Measurement.....	1
1.2. Importance of Survey Development.....	2
1.3. Research Related to Policing.....	3
1.4. Purpose of the Proposed Study.....	4
1.5. Overview of Chapters.....	4
1.6. Definitions.....	6
Chapter Two: Review of the Relevant Literature.....	9
2.1. Context and the Importance of Police.....	9
2.2. Importance of Job Satisfaction.....	10
2.2.1. Consequences of job dissatisfaction and stress.....	11
2.2.2. Police and job satisfaction.....	12
2.3. Current Job Satisfaction Measures.....	13
2.3.1. Further cautions of using measures already in use.....	14
2.3.1.1. Choosing between general and specific measures.....	15
2.4. Police-Tailored Psychological Measures.....	17
2.4.1. Measures specifically developed for police.....	17
2.4.2. Police job satisfaction measures.....	17
2.5. Other Research on Police Job Satisfaction.....	19
2.5.1. Study of stress in policing by Toch (2002).....	20
2.5.2. Job satisfaction in the Regina Police Department.....	23
2.5.3. Similarities found between studies.....	25

2.5.3.1. Peer support and camaraderie.....	25
2.5.3.2. Sense of pride.....	26
2.5.3.3. Politics and the reward system.....	26
2.5.3.4. Nature of the job.....	26
2.5.3.5. Effects on personal life.....	26
2.5.3.6. Public relations and media criticism.....	27
2.5.3.7. Job safety and danger.....	27
2.6. The Need for a Police-Tailored Job Satisfaction Measure.....	27
2.7. Developing a New Job Satisfaction Measure: Psychometrics to Consider.....	28
2.7.1. Validity.....	28
2.7.1.1. Types of validity.....	29
2.7.1.2. Focus on content validity.....	30
2.7.1.3. Threats to content validity.....	30
2.7.1.3.1. Construct-irrelevant content.....	30
2.7.1.3.2. Construct underrepresentation.....	30
2.7.1.3.3. The issue of face validity.....	31
2.8. Developing a New Job Satisfaction Measure: Theoretical Considerations.....	31
2.8.1. Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene theory.....	32
2.8.1.1. Motivators.....	32
2.8.1.1.1. Achievement.....	33
2.8.1.1.2. Recognition.....	33
2.8.1.1.3. The work itself.....	33
2.8.1.1.4. Possibility of growth.....	33
2.8.1.1.5. Advancement.....	33
2.8.1.1.6. Responsibility.....	33
2.8.1.2. Hygiene factors.....	34
2.8.1.2.1. Company policy and administrative practices.....	34
2.8.1.2.2. Interpersonal relations.....	35
2.8.1.2.3. Physical working conditions.....	35
2.8.1.2.4. Salary.....	35
2.8.1.2.5. Job security.....	35

2.8.1.2.6. Supervision.....	35
2.8.1.3. Possible workplace scenarios.....	35
2.8.1.4. Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene theory and police organizations.....	36
2.9. Significance of the Research.....	37
2.10. The Current Study Purpose and Objectives.....	38
2.11. Research Questions.....	40
Chapter Three: Methodology.....	40
3.1. Research Design.....	40
3.2. Participants.....	40
3.2.1. Inclusion criteria.....	42
3.2.2. Exclusion criteria.....	42
3.3. Materials.....	42
3.3.1 Demographics questionnaire.....	42
3.3.2. Semi-structured interview.....	42
3.4. Procedure.....	43
3.5. Data Analysis.....	44
3.6 Evaluation criteria.....	45
3.6.1. Credibility.....	45
3.6.1.1. Triangulation.....	45
3.6.1.2. Sincerity.....	46
3.6.1.2.1. Self-reflexivity.....	46
3.6.1.2.2. Transparency.....	46
3.7. Ethical Considerations.....	47
3.8. Chapter Summary.....	48
Chapter Four: Results.....	50
4.1. Motivating Factors of Patrol Work Related to Herzberg’s Original Classification.....	50
4.1.1. Achievement.....	50
4.1.2. Recognition.....	51
4.1.3. The work itself.....	52
4.1.4. Possibility of growth.....	53
4.1.5. Possibility for advancement.....	53

4.2. Unique Motivators of Patrol Work.....	54
4.2.1. Peer camaraderie.....	54
4.2.2. Sense of pride.....	55
4.3. Hygiene Factors of Patrol Work Related to Herzberg’s Original Classification.....	55
4.3.1. Company policy and administrative practices.....	56
4.3.1.1. Policy issues.....	56
4.3.1.2. Excessive paperwork.....	58
4.3.1.3. Civilian decision-making.....	59
4.3.2. Interpersonal relations with co-workers.....	59
4.3.3. Physical working conditions.....	60
4.3.3.1. Cars.....	60
4.3.3.2. Inadequate protective equipment.....	61
4.3.3.3. Use-of-force equipment.....	62
4.3.4. Salary.....	62
4.3.5. Job security.....	63
4.4. Unique Hygiene Factors of Patrol Work.....	63
4.4.1. Reward system.....	64
4.4.1.1. Perceived favouritism.....	64
4.4.1.2. Promotion by accommodation.....	65
4.4.1.3. Defective promotional process.....	65
4.4.2. Effects on personal life.....	66
4.4.2.1. Negative impacts on family.....	66
4.4.2.2. Financial penalties.....	67
4.4.2.3. Difficulty maintaining or forming new relationships.....	67
4.4.3. Media relations.....	67
4.4.3.1. Negative media coverage.....	67
4.4.3.1.1. Media focus on sensationalism.....	68
4.4.3.2. Reporting false accounts.....	68
4.4.4. Public relations.....	69
4.4.4.1. Public scrutiny.....	69
4.4.4.2. Racial tensions.....	69

4.4.5. Painful and traumatic experiences.....	70
4.4.5.1. Specific traumatic events.....	70
4.4.5.2. Lack of organizational support.....	70
4.4.5.3. Forced professionalism.....	71
4.4.6. Judicial system practices.....	71
4.4.6.1. Criminals escaping punishment.....	71
4.4.6.2. Officer on trial.....	72
4.4.6.3. Court scheduling.....	72
4.5. Dual Factors: Elements of Patrol Work.....	73
4.5.1. Supervision.....	73
4.5.1.1. Satisfaction with supervision.....	73
4.5.1.2. Dissatisfaction with supervision.....	74
4.5.2. Partnerships.....	75
4.5.2.1. Satisfaction with partnerships.....	75
4.5.2.2. Dissatisfaction with partnerships.....	76
4.6 Chapter Summary.....	76
Chapter Five: Discussion.....	77
5.1. Evaluation of the Research Questions.....	77
5.1.1. Evaluation of research question #1.....	77
5.1.2. Evaluation of research question #2.....	78
5.1.3. Evaluation of research question #3.....	78
5.1.4. Evaluation of research question #4.....	79
5.2. Strengths of the Current Study.....	82
5.3. Limitations and Future Directions.....	83
5.4. Implications.....	85
5.4.1. Police departments.....	85
5.4.2. Police educators.....	85
5.4.3. Police research.....	86
5.5. Chapter Summary.....	86
REFERENCES.....	87
APPENDIX A: INTERVIEW PROTOCOL.....	97

List of Tables

- Table 2-1. Psychometric values reported by Can et al. (2016) for the POJSS evaluation, and benchmark criteria used to determine psychometric acceptability
- Table 3-1. Selected participant demographics
- Table 3-2. Number of participants recruited from different provincial regions
- Table 5-1. A Comparison of motivating factors found between Herzberg and the current study
- Table 5-2. A comparison of hygiene factors found between Herzberg and the current study

List of Figures

- Figure 2-1. Visual representation of Herzberg's (1959) motivation-hygiene theory
- Figure 4-1. Visual summary of the hygiene factors found that relate to the original classification of hygiene factors in Herzberg's (1959) motivation-hygiene theory
- Figure 4-2. Visual summary of the unique hygiene factors of patrol work found in the current study

List of Abbreviations

CBC	Canadian Broadcast Corporation
GRE	Graduate Record Examination
JDI	Job Descriptive Index
LEOSS	Law Enforcement Officer Stress Survey
POJSS	Patrol Officer Job Satisfaction Scale
PSI	Police Stress Inventory
PSS	Police Stress Survey
PSQ	Police Stress Questionnaire
REB	Research Ethics Board

Chapter One: Introduction

Chapter one will begin by explaining the importance of the proposed research in relation to psychological measurement, survey development, and policing. Then, the primary purpose of the current research, as well as the potential research impact will be discussed. Finally, an overview of subsequent chapters will be provided, followed by relevant definitions related to the current research.

Importance of Psychological Measurement

Psychological measurement encompasses a process in which we use numbers in an attempt to quantify mental attributes, or *latent variables*, such as intelligence, attitudes, personality, and learning (Furr & Bacharach, 2014). These psychological attributes are a myriad of human behaviours that are collected with carefully developed tests, surveys, and batteries. Psychological measurement is essential to society in that it allows us to systematically collect data to follow trends, compare inter- and intra-individual differences, and ultimately understand facets of human behaviour. Psychological constructs cannot be measured directly in the same way physical attributes can, such as using a scale to measure an individual's weight. Therefore, we must rely on psychological instrumentation to tap into the theoretically related constructs of the phenomenon we wish to observe. However, relying on measurement tools to inform us of psychological experiences have proven to be a difficult mission.

A common barrier to acquiring data with psychological testing is overcoming measurement error. *Measurement error* is the discrepancy between the actual value of the construct being measured, and the observed value (Furr & Bacharach, 2014). There are two types of error, which are primarily regarded as random error and systematic error. *Random error* is caused by factors that may affect the measurement variables at random. These types of errors cannot be predicted or consistently replicated. For example, a certain mood may affect a participant's performance on a test. A depressed mood may artificially deflate scores of participants who take a math test, as they may lack the motivation to do their best. Fortunately, random error tends not to affect the average performance for a dataset, as there may be as many negative errors as there are positive ones (Furr & Bacharach, 2014). In contrast, *systematic error* occurs by factors that may systematically affect the measurement of variables. These types of errors tend to be consistent in the ways they affect data, such as by using a scale that is

incorrectly calibrated; you will consistently acquire wrong measurements. While random error cannot be accounted for, scientists attempt to reduce systematic errors through sound research methods and environmental control. Due to the presence of measurement error, it is important to understand when instruments allow for measurements that are meaningful and trustworthy (Furr & Bacharach, 2014).

To ensure that we are using meaningful and trustworthy instruments, the principle of psychometrics remains necessary. *Psychometrics* is the science of evaluating the attributes of psychological instruments (Furr & Bacharach, 2014). The three main criteria of any psychological instrument that warrants psychometric evaluation include the type of information (scores) generated by the tool, the reliability of data, and the validity of the data obtained from such instruments (Furr & Bacharach, 2014). Further, no matter the specific application of the assessment, it is fundamental to ensure that a tool is standardized and free from bias (Rust & Golombok, 2009). The term *reliability* refers to the consistency and predictability of scores that can be derived from an instrument (DeVellis, 2017; Furr & Bacharach, 2014). A reliable tool suggests that the score produced by the tool should not change unless there is a change in the variable the tool is measuring (DeVellis, 2017). Similarly, the term *validity* is generally understood to mean that an instrument measures the mental processes that it, theoretically, should be measuring (Furr & Bacharach, 2014). These remain only broad definitions of reliability and validity, as there are many different types of psychometric principles and each may require a unique approach to evaluation. The reliability and validity of measures are typically evaluated by using a variety of statistical techniques that allow us to observe the strength of relationships between scores and variables. While psychometric assessment remains an important area in psychological science, careful development of an instrument is required before such an evaluation can take place.

Importance of Survey Development

One way to obtain facts about psychological behaviour can be acquired by asking a sample of people about themselves or their experiences (Fowler, 2014). Administering a survey is one approach to obtaining these facts. A *survey* is used to produce statistics about certain aspects of a sample population by asking people questions and using their answers as data to inform us of a particular topic or population (Fowler, 2014). Surveys remain a standard way to obtain information from a sample and can be administered in many different forms, such as face-

to-face meetings, over the phone, through the mail, or through online platforms (Cowles & Nelson, 2015). A properly constructed survey may meet needs for data that are not available through other research avenues. For example, a standardized survey or questionnaire would be beneficial if the researcher wished to compare responses across a large number of participants. Nonetheless, in order to obtain the proper information that informs research, it is important to use surveys that are carefully constructed.

Three features essential to a good survey include proper sampling, question design, and modes of data collection (Fowler, 2014). These features are pertinent to address in order to accomplish total survey design. *Total survey design* is the implementation of high-quality procedures in the aforementioned three areas of survey development (Fowler, 2014). Thus, survey development and design involve decisions made by the researcher to optimize the efficacy of the survey and should, therefore, enhance all components of a survey (Fowler, 2014). If these components are not carefully designed, any major weakness of the survey may provide unreliable and invalid data about the particular population or phenomenon. Therefore, it is crucial to carefully evaluate the quality of sampling, question design, and method of data collection in order for practitioners to be confident in their interpretations and applications of survey research.

Research Related to Policing

Over the past several decades, there has been considerable attention paid to police and law enforcement research. In a recent review of policing literature, Mazeika et al. (2010) have identified that main research categories related to policing include: organization of police, police attitudes and behaviours, accountability and misconduct, police strategies, citizen satisfaction, and psychological measurement in policing (e.g., well-being, morale, burnout). While much research to date has been carried out, there still remains a considerable gap in the literature for both measurement and job satisfaction in policing.

It should be noted, that although there are technical differences between the terms “law enforcement” and “police”, these terms will be used synonymously in the current research. Similarly, the terms “law enforcement agencies” and “police services” will also be used interchangeably. However, for the sake of understanding, each concept will be discussed briefly.

The term *law enforcement* refers to the adherence and enforcement of rules and procedures. That is, there is great emphasis on the duties carried by an officer when enforcing

the law, such as issuing citations or making arrests (Roufa, 2017). In contrast, the concept of *policing* encompasses a more holistic, community-based approach to serve the people and involves working together with stakeholders. Roufa (2017) distinguishes the difference as “law enforcement implies compulsory compliance, policing suggests voluntary adherence... law enforcement is but one component of policing” (p. 1). It is imperative as a society to ensure the successful functioning of law enforcement agencies, as we so heavily depend on them to preserve law and order in our communities. A more detailed description of the duties and importance of police in our society will be discussed in Chapter Two.

Purpose of the Proposed Study

There is a gap in the literature regarding psychometrically sound job satisfaction measures for patrol officers in Canada. Many currently used measures of job satisfaction are not appropriate to apply in a law enforcement context, as they underrepresent dimensions of job satisfaction unique to patrol officers. The primary purpose of the proposed study is to investigate the components of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction experienced by patrol officers in Canada. The results of this research have the potential to become the foundation of a new psychological instrument to measure job satisfaction among Canadian patrol officers.

Overview of Chapters

Chapter Two will begin by discussing the context and importance of police and patrol work in our society. Then, relevant literature pertaining to job satisfaction, including the consequences of the inability to maintain job satisfaction in an organization, will be discussed in detail. While there is a lack of patrol officer job satisfaction measures, other current job satisfaction measures will be discussed to highlight the importance of developing a new survey specific to patrol officers. Another fundamental piece of this chapter pertains to other current research on police job satisfaction. More specifically, key research articles that demonstrate evidence for unique sources of job satisfaction for police/patrol officers will be discussed in detail, along with their relevant methodologies. After reiterating the importance of developing a new measure upon the previously discussed evidence, psychometric and theoretical considerations for use in the current research will be presented. Lastly, an overview of the research questions will be provided.

Chapter Three will begin by providing the reader with an overview of the research design. The current research employs a qualitative method of data collection, where semi-

structured, in-depth interviews were conducted with key informants to obtain a deeper understanding regarding the sources of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction experienced by Canadian patrol officers. The inclusion and exclusion criteria will be discussed for participant recruitment. Finally, the materials used, procedure, and data analysis will be provided.

Chapter Four will discuss the various satisfying and dissatisfying elements identified by Patrol officers in Canada. In particular, these satisfying and dissatisfying factors found will be compared with Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory to evaluate the overall fit and efficacy of using this theoretical framework within police job satisfaction research. Last, a unique contribution of the current research will be considered, where the inclusion of "dual factors" will be proposed, which include aspects of the work that contributed to both the satisfaction and dissatisfaction in an officer's work.

Chapter Five will provide a brief overview of the findings highlighted in Chapter Four. Additionally, these findings will also be discussed in relation with other police-related job satisfaction literature and theory. Further, the research questions of this investigation will be revisited and evaluated in relation to the findings. Last, a brief discussion on the strengths, weaknesses, and implications of the current research will be offered.

Definitions

Bandwidth-fidelity dilemma. A complex issue that debates the use of general or specific measures in research. Essentially, it is the problem of applying too broad, or too narrow, measures in psychological research (Cronbach & Gleser, 1965).

Burnout. Spector (1997) defined burnout as emotional exhaustion accompanied by low work motivation.

Construct underrepresentation. The inadequate number of items that appropriately grasp the range of content necessary to derive information from the resulting scores (DeVellis, 2017).

Construct validity. “The degree to which test scores can be interpreted as reflecting a particular psychological construct” (Furr & Bacharach, 2014; p. 201).

Construct-irrelevant Content. DeVellis (2017) describes construct-irrelevant content as the questions or items (i.e., the content) that are extraneous or “irrelevant to the construct for which the test is to be interpreted” (p. 204).

Content validity. The degree to what content is included on a measure is a reflection of the content that should be on the test, which will include important aspects of the construct attempting to be measured (DeVellis, 2017).

Criterion-related validity. How a measure is able to predict outcomes of performance or behaviour (Mills & Gay, 2016).

Data saturation. An indicator of participant sufficiency, where the researcher begins to see redundant perspectives, thoughts, and responses (Mills & Gay, 2016).

Face validity. Furr and Bacharach (2014) offer a concrete definition of face validity as “the degree to which a measure appears to be related to a specific construct, in the judgment of non-experts, such as test takers” (p. 205).

Facet scale. A measure intended to tap into specific, principal areas, within the larger overall domain of interest. Each principal area is thought to be a separate construct but is usually correlated with the other constructs included in the measure (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989).

Global scale. A measure that aims to combine many aspects of the phenomenon into single, integrated, open responses (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989).

Hygiene factors. As stated by Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory (Herzberg et al., 1959), hygiene factors lead to job dissatisfaction and are extrinsic to the job itself. These factors include company policy and administrative practices, interpersonal relations, physical working conditions, salary, job security, and supervision.

Job satisfaction. For the current study, the widely-used definition of job satisfaction that will be employed is offered by Spector (1997) and defined as "how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs" (p. 2).

Latent variable. Variables that are inferred from data, as opposed to being directly observed. Examples of latent variables include intelligence, attitudes, personality, and learning (Furr & Bacharach, 2014).

Law enforcement. A component of policing which refers to the adherence and enforcement of rules and procedures with emphasis on the duties carried when enforcing the law, such as issuing citations or making arrests (Roufa, 2017).

Measurement error. The discrepancy between the actual value of the construct being measured, and the observed value (Furr & Bacharach, 2014).

Motivators. As stated by Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory (Herzberg et al., 1959), motivators (or motivating factors) relate to what a worker does, and relate to fulfilling the needs of achievement, recognition, the work itself, growth or advancement, and responsibility.

Norm data. A database of scores already collected in order to compare and rank, which provides easier score interpretation (Furr & Bacharach, 2014).

Occupational stress. As stated by Beehr and Newman (1978), occupational stress is defined as "A situation wherein job-related factors interact with a worker to change (i.e., disrupt or enhance) his or her psychological or physiological condition such that the person (i.e., mind-body) is forced to deviate from normal functioning" (pp. 669-670).

Policing. A community-based approach to serve the people and involves working together with stakeholders (Roufa, 2017).

Predictive validity. A component of criterion-related validity, which is related to the degree to which a test is able to predict how well an individual will perform in a future situation (Mills & Gay, 2016).

Psychometrics. The science of evaluating the attributes of psychological instruments (Furr & Bacharach, 2014).

Purposive sampling. A sampling procedure where the sample that is selected will be contingent upon the researcher's knowledge and requires clear criteria for participation (Mills & Gay, 2016).

Random error. A primary type of error caused by factors that may affect the measurement variables at random (Furr & Bacharach, 2014).

Reliability. The consistency and predictability of scores that can be derived from an instrument (DeVellis, 2017).

Snowball sampling. Where participants identify and nominate other additional participants who may wish to partake in the research query (Mills & Gay, 2016).

Survey. A method used to produce statistics about certain aspects of a sample population by asking people questions and using their answers as data to inform us of a particular topic or population (Fowler, 2014).

Systematic error. Occurs by factors that may systematically affect the measurement of variables and tend to be consistent in the ways they affect the data (Furr & Bacharach, 2014). Reducing systematic errors occur through sound research methods and environmental control.

Theoretical saturation. Occurs during the analytic process, whereby the researcher stops recruiting participants once there is substantial repetition of coding themes and categories (Trainor, 2013).

Total survey design. The implementation of high-quality procedures relating to proper sampling, question design, and modes of data collection during survey development (Fowler, 2014).

Validity. Broadly defined, when an instrument measures the mental processes that it, theoretically, should be measuring (Furr & Bacharach, 2014).

Chapter Two: Review of the Relevant Literature

This chapter will first provide an overview of the context and importance of police, followed by a discussion of how job satisfaction is defined and why job satisfaction is important to monitor. The various measurement approaches to studying and examining job satisfaction will be reviewed, as well as a summary of a job satisfaction measure that is most frequently utilized in research today and the limitations of using this particular measure in the current research. Similarly, other police-specific measures will be discussed and critiqued which will highlight the importance of developing occupation-specific measures. Key studies will then be discussed in detail to support the notion of including additional facets of job satisfaction in measures used with patrol officers. Next, the rationale for a new patrol officer job satisfaction measure will be presented, as well as the psychometric and theoretical considerations that will need to be taken into account. Finally, the purpose, objectives, potential significance of the proposed research, and research questions will be outlined.

Context and the Importance of Police

“A nonviolent community without predators, street thugs, or family violence does not require law enforcement,” wrote criminologist Dennis J. Stevens (2017), but “that is not the social environment in which most of us live” (p. 168). This echoes the reality of the criminal activity that continues to penetrate our communities. In Canada, both the amount of police-reported crime and the severity of crime has been on the rise (Statistics Canada, 2015a). Police-reported Criminal Code incidents encompassed approximately 1.9 million events, with certain violent violations increasing from the previous year, such as: sexual violations against children, violations causing death other than homicide, aggravated sexual assault, assault with a weapon or causing bodily harm, and aggravated assault, to only name a few. Fortunately for citizens, the responsibility of handling criminal activity in our communities is delegated to the police force. Unfortunately, the rate of police strength and expenditure in Canada has been steadily declining (Statistics Canada, 2015b). With the increase in crime rates and fewer police officers available to respond, current officers are faced with an increased workload in managing the increasing crime level. Further, organizational initiatives and administrative tasks have been estimated to already occupy about a third of an officer’s time (Waterloo Regional Police Service, 2011).

Having an effective police force to deal with criminality remains a critical issue in many countries. Fortunately, Canadians have the ability to task certain individuals to effectively

manage these problems. Providing general assistance to the public, maintaining social order, and providing successful control of crime and deviance remains the primary duty of a patrol officer (Forcese, 1998). It is well-known that patrol officers deal with a wide variety of challenging and disturbing situations. Despite the troubling situations patrol officers may be exposed to, Vincent (1990) suggests that the most troubling aspects of law enforcement work are the working conditions, which include poor supervision, low pay, insufficient number of personnel, and faulty equipment. Moreover, Forcese (1998) describes other unfavourable aspects of patrol work, such as “the uncertainties of policing, the nature of shift work, the unpleasant encounters with the public, the threat and danger, and the prevailing daily experience of boring routine, isolate and stress the police officer” (p. 167). According to a report by the International Association of Chiefs of Police (2010), it is estimated that more police die by suicide than being killed in the line of duty. This suggests that patrol officers may encounter difficult experiences within their occupation and it is important to monitor job satisfaction in order to identify potential stressors.

Importance of Job Satisfaction

One area of research that employs survey use is worker or job satisfaction. *Job satisfaction* is loosely understood as a multilayered construct that encompasses an employee’s feelings about a variety of job elements (Howard & Frink, 1996). Similarly, other researchers have described job satisfaction as an “employee’s affective reactions to do a job based on comparing actual outcomes with desired outcomes” (Cranny, Smith, & Stone, 1992). Alternatively, a more widely used definition is simply “how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs” (Spector, 1997, p. 2). Spector (1997) identified typical facets of job satisfaction that are frequently assessed in the literature, which include: coworkers, fringe benefits, job conditions, nature of the work itself, appreciation, communication, organization’s policies and procedures, recognition, security, supervision, promotion opportunities, and personal growth. Of course, this is not an exhaustive list of all possible facets of job satisfaction, but they appear as the most popular facets included in current job satisfaction instruments. Although there are many job satisfaction measurement tools available for use, job satisfaction remains a complex construct and generally involves both individual and situational factors (Howard & Frink, 1996).

Within the industrial/organizational psychology literature to date, job satisfaction has remained a prominent area of study over the years. It is an important area of research because management and organizational leaders are often concerned with business effectiveness and employee attitudes (Spector, 1997). More specifically, Spector (1997) outlines two important reasons to be concerned with assessing employee job satisfaction. First, from a humanitarian point of view, with the assumption that people deserve to be respected and treated fairly, identifying job satisfaction can be one way to also measure good treatment of employees. Second, from a utilitarian perspective, organizations are concerned with overall organizational functioning which can be supported or hindered by employee behaviours and attitudes. Therefore, job satisfaction estimates should offer valuable information for organizations to manage their employees for the benefit of all parties involved.

Consequences of job dissatisfaction and stress. Many resulting variables have been studied in relation to the degree of job satisfaction that people experience in their work. A common assumption is that people will avoid a job that they dislike. Withdrawal behaviours of absenteeism, turnover, and intent to leave, are commonly studied in the job satisfaction literature (Agho, Mueller, & Price, 1993). It is important to limit unnecessary absenteeism, as it reduces organizational effectiveness and contributes to increasing costs of labour (Spector, 1997). Furthermore, researchers have been able to reveal negative correlations between level of job satisfaction and employee absence (Scott & Taylor, 1985; Tharenou, 1993). In regard to employee turnover, several studies have reported consistent negative relationships between job satisfaction and turnover rates (Duraisingam, Pidd, & Roche, 2009; Irvine & Evans, 1995; Price & Mueller, 1986). Similarly, other research has provided correlational support between low job satisfaction and intent to leave the job (Leider, Harper, Shon, Sellers, & Castrucci, 2016), as well as demonstrating the positive relationship between employee job satisfaction and job performance (George & Jones, 1997).

Other potential effects of job dissatisfaction can lead to burnout, counterproductive behaviour, low morale, and occupational stress. *Burnout* relates to the emotional exhaustion and low work motivation (Spector, 1997). Elements of job satisfaction, such as workload, have been shown to relate to burnout, which has then been associated with reduced job performance and withdrawal behaviours (Chen & Spector, 1992; Lee & Brotheridge, 2006; Maslach, Schaufeli, &

Leiter, 2001). Counterproductive behaviours at work, such as sabotage, theft, aggression, and hostility have also been associated with job dissatisfaction (Chen & Spector, 1992).

Police and job satisfaction. As policing has been considered one of the most stressful professions in modern times (Johnson et al., 2005), it is important to consider the impact of occupational stress on job satisfaction. *Occupational stress* is defined as “A situation wherein job-related factors interact with a worker to change (i.e., disrupt or enhance) his or her psychological or physiological condition such that the person (i.e., mind-body) is forced to deviate from normal functioning” (Beehr & Newman, 1978; pp. 669-670). Occupational stress has been found to relate to hypertension, gastrointestinal issues, strokes, migraines, and headaches (Blum, 2000). Although occupational stress and job satisfaction remain different constructs, occupational stress has been seen to consistently negatively affect job satisfaction (Cotton, Dollard, & de Jonge, 2002; Kula 2011; Kuo, 2015), as those who experience high occupational stress are generally less satisfied (Jayaratne, 1993). Violanti (1997) describes the notable repercussions to the exposure to stressors in law enforcement work, and unfortunately, research has revealed a negative relationship between job stress and job satisfaction among law enforcement, specifically (Blum, 2000).

Monitoring job satisfaction in policing remains important, as departments have been plagued with managing current issues in policing, such as citizen review of police discipline and ongoing media-driven scrutiny. Kirschman (1997) reflected about the officer stress she encountered in her professional practice as that “they think of themselves as constantly scrutinized, supervised, and reined in by their own department and by the community in ways that can be irritating, humiliating and sometimes irrelevant to their actual performance” (p. 55). Sheley and Nock (1979) argue that turnover and performance rates of police officers are particularly important in police work, as satisfaction with the work may mean the difference between a force that aims to make significant contributions to their communities, or merely aspires to meet the minimum department standards. More practically, Rogers (1991) and Suggs (2010) both describe the extensive cost of hiring patrol officers. Afterwards, additional costs of training continue to accumulate while the officer is in field training. Thus, as the monetary investments in training and employment of officers remains high (Forcese, 1998), it is imperative to prevent unnecessary expenditures related to adverse outcomes of job dissatisfaction and stress.

Current Job Satisfaction Measures

Research into organizational behaviour has been fruitful in regard to the measurement of job satisfaction. Although there have been many different approaches, the Job Descriptive Index (JDI; Smith, 1969) appears to dominate much of the measurement literature on job satisfaction. The JDI is a 72-item instrument that aims to measure five different dimensions of job satisfaction, including: pay, co-workers, supervision, work itself, and promotion. The JDI has demonstrated sufficient internal consistency (Lopes, Chambel, Castanheira, & Oliveira-Cruz, 2015) and significant convergent and discriminant validities with other widely used measures (Gillet & Schwab, 1975; Johnson, Smith, & Tucker, 1982). Moreover, a meta-analysis on the psychometric properties of the JDI has demonstrated acceptable internal consistency, test-retest reliability, as well as both convergent and discriminant validities (Kinicki, McKee-Ryan, Schriesheim, & Carson, 2002). The JDI has been successfully implemented using computer administration (Kantor, 1991) and has been successfully translated to other languages (Lopes et al., 2015).

Although the JDI remains a popular instrument to assess job satisfaction, Spector (1997) outlines important considerations regarding the advantages and disadvantages of using an existing job satisfaction measure. The advantages to using a previously developed measure include: a) that many existing scales have already accumulated *norm data* (which refers to a database of scores already collected in order to compare and rank; Furr & Bacharach, 2014), therefore providing easier interpretation, b) that many existing scales have demonstrated evidence of reliability and validity, and therefore they *should* be sufficient for use in general research, and c) as developing new instruments remains a costly and time-consuming endeavor, existing scales save these resources for future research (Spector, 1997). However, there are also considerable disadvantages to using measures already in use. Existing measures are bound by the dimensions that they were developed for; therefore, researchers can only specifically assess only what is included in the measure (Spector, 1997). Further, certain measures may be copyrighted and there may be a fee associated with each use of the measure. As some organizations may have a considerable number of employees to assess, this could become a great financial burden (Spector, 1997). Last, Spector (1997) posits that the facets of most scales are general in nature, and therefore only applicable to certain organizations. Therefore, general

scales may not be appropriate for work forces that are highly specific in nature, such as the unique work that is carried out by patrol officers.

There appears to be a gap among Canadian patrol officers when applying the JDI to assess job satisfaction. However, investigations with related occupations and populations exist. The JDI has been used to assess job satisfaction of front line police supervisors from the United States (Carruthers, 1988), Portuguese military sergeants and officers (Lopes et al., 2015), Nigerian police officers (Dikas, 1997), and correctional officers from South Korea (Yang, Brown, & Moon, 2011). Although the JDI has demonstrated adequate reliability and validity estimates, other facets of job satisfaction may exist beyond what the JDI encompasses and this potential is deserving of further research.

Further cautions of using measures already in use. DeVellis (2017) reiterates a common problem many researchers have, which is an interest in some particular phenomenon, where one must find a way to quantify such phenomenon in order to reach overall research objectives. DeVellis (2017) notes that many researchers often opt to rely on existing measures, even though they may be unsuitable or inappropriate for the current research. This can occur because the development of a carefully constructed scale can be a costly and lengthy process (Spector, 1997). Nonetheless, adopting inappropriate measures poses the risk of yielding data that may not be accurate, and thus, the potential costs of making decisions based on untrustworthy results is also a dilemma. Alternatively, if researchers choose not to rely on existing measures, they may assemble their own measure or adapt a current measure without first carrying out a proper psychometric evaluation. Either situation can result in untrustworthy or uninterpretable conclusions.

Even if a measure demonstrates psychometric soundness, it is essential to ensure that the existing measure matches the phenomenon of interest (Hellsten & Mousavi, 2016). Further, Hellsten and Mousavi (2016) note that just because a measure is popular and commonly used to assess a particular domain, it does not mean that it is always the most appropriate choice. More specifically, the chosen measure needs to align with the proper specificity and population (Hellsten & Mousavi, 2016). Surveys may be able to assess the general phenomenon of interest; however, they may not be able to capture the ideal level of specificity across contexts. More precisely, a measure may not capture *specific* characteristics of the experience or provide a complete range of the phenomenon (Lent & Brown, 2006). For example, a measure of general

depression may need to tap into not only the emotional experiences of depression, but also physical experiences. Therefore, a systematic assessment of the particular measure of interest, including a qualitative review by target populations, may be necessary before accepting the measure in one's own research (Wooley, Bowen, & Bowen, 2004). In regard to population, the population the existing scale was developed for should match the population used in the researcher's current study (Hellsten & Mousavi, 2016). For example, a tool developed in a western population may not be appropriate to use in an eastern context, due to possible ethnic and cultural differences. Since the target population remains an important stakeholder in proper survey development, it is recommended to form a focus group of target individuals to discuss the issues in the proposed survey (Cowles & Nelson, 2015).

Choosing between general and specific measures. Much of the research conducted in regard to the measurement of job satisfaction has focused on using either facet or global scales. *Facet* scales intend to tap into specific, principal areas, within the larger overall domain of interest. Each principal area is thought to be a separate construct, however, is usually somewhat correlated with the other constructs included in the measure. Alternatively, *global* scales aim to combine many aspects of the phenomenon into single integrated, open responses. As expected, there are benefits and drawbacks to using each type of scale when measuring any sort of phenomenon. Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, and Paul (1989) provide a detailed summary of the importance and drawbacks of each type of scale. Some of the findings suggest that due to the specific nature of facet scales, they may include dimensions that are unimportant to certain people but require a participant to answer regardless. Moreover, as facet scales can be both evaluative and descriptive, they tend to not provide a full general reflection of individual characteristics. Combining facets may not achieve a total summary feeling of the overall experience, but only explain separate constructs of the experience. Alternatively, since global scales assume that respondents combine reactions in to one response, it provides an overall end product. Many of the aspects related to the question being asked will be processed by the individual for a single, overall evaluation (Ironson et al., 1989). For example, Ironson et al. (1989) posited that a single-item global measure of job satisfaction might be phrased as "All things considered, how do you feel about your job most of the time?" While using a general scale may allow for a broader evaluation, details regarding the specific aspects of the construct may be missed. Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller (2012) argue that choosing a global or facet

measure would highly depend on what questions and objectives the researcher wishes to assess (e.g., overall job commitment versus commitment to the supervisor). Both facet and global measures of job satisfaction are available for use in the current literature.

This complex global/facet issue in behavioural research is closely related to the *bandwidth-fidelity dilemma* (Cronbach & Gleser, 1965). The bandwidth-fidelity debate encompasses the problem of applying too broad, or similarly, too narrow measures in psychological research. As already previously described, broader measures allow for comparisons across studies, populations, and contexts. However, narrower measures can allow for more detailed and specific results that may not be captured if a broad measure were to be applied. Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller (2012) argue that it is not useful to debate which type of measure is superior, but which research contexts would benefit the greatest and lead toward a better understanding. Similarly, Meglino and Ravlin (1998) also discuss the ongoing complicated issue of using measurement tools within organizations, such as the level of specificity. More specifically, the level of specificity of an observed value has to be dependent on the measurement tool. Thus, a need for measures tailored to specific jobs may be needed in unique work environments, such as patrol work in Canada.

The specificity issue in psychological measurement extends beyond the unique occupation of law enforcement. Castle (2010) identified the lack of readily available, validated measures to assess the job satisfaction of nurses, and thus felt the need to develop an occupation-specific scale that was specifically tailored to nursing job satisfaction. The development of this nursing-specific measure aided in achieving effective and appropriate managerial decision-making (Castle, 2010). Similarly, Bhatnagar, Srivastava, Singh, and Jadav (2011) noticed a lack of standardized instruments for measuring job satisfaction for health care educators in India. Thus, they also developed a job satisfaction scale specifically for this population. When analyzing their results, exploratory factor analysis revealed that the JDI was missing dimensions of job satisfaction that were specific to their profession. This evidence supports the need to review other possible facets of job satisfaction in highly-specific work, such as patrol work.

Police job satisfaction has been typically studied with more general measures as opposed to specific measures (Boke & Nalla, 2009; Dantzker, 1994) and thus relevant components of job satisfaction may have been overlooked. While the development of occupation-specific job satisfaction measures has occurred in other contexts, no such psychometrically defensible

measure currently exists for patrol officer job satisfaction. As previously mentioned, although the JDI appears to be an acceptable facet measure of job satisfaction, it is argued that the job satisfaction of police officers is a highly-specific context, and the JDI may not be the most appropriate measure to use with this population.

Police-Tailored Psychological Measures

Researchers have identified the importance of using occupation-specific measures and have then subsequently developed measures specifically for police populations. Several police-specific measures will be discussed, as well as a detailed overview of a new patrol officer job satisfaction measure.

Measures specifically developed for police. Out of a need for measures that specifically address the unique work of police, several police-specific measures have been developed. For example, many instruments have been designed to identify police-specific stressors that are not captured by other popular stress inventories. These measures include the Police Stress Survey (PSS; Spielberger, Westberry, Grier, & Greenfield, 1981), Law Enforcement Officer Stress Survey (LEOSS; Van Hasselt, Sheehan, Sellers, Baker, & Feiner, 2003), Police Stress Questionnaire (PSQ; McCreary & Thompson, 2006), and the Police Stress Inventory (PSI; Lawrence, 1979). The development of these police-specific measures is a great accomplishment in the call for more high quality psychometrically defensible measures. Unfortunately, instrument development for police in relation to other constructs, such as job satisfaction, has been mostly untouched.

Police job satisfaction measures. Though the literature is sparse for police-specific job satisfaction measures compared to other areas of organizational research, Can, Holt, and Hendy (2016) emphasized the importance of using a psychometrically sound survey for police job satisfaction, and proceeded to develop the Patrol Officer Job Satisfaction Scale (POJSS). This new self-report measure includes 14 items across three dimensions: supervisor fairness, peer camaraderie, and occupational pride.

Although the POJSS demonstrated acceptable goodness-of-fit, test-retest reliability, and internal reliability (see Table 2-1), limitations exist that make this measure unfit for the current research. First, item development for this measure was based on anticipated dimensions found in previous research, and no attempt was made to explore relevant job satisfaction constructs from local patrol officers where the scale was developed. Second, the measure was developed in a

combined effort between two countries; Turkey and the United States of America. There are arguably different cultural and organizational differences that vary between populations and nations, and thus, there may be differences in sources of job satisfaction. Third, the authors employed an anonymous survey to police services to obtain sample data, but many different ranks were included in the analysis, including Detectives, Deputy Chiefs, and Chiefs of Police. While these positions likely have experience in patrol work, one of the criticisms in the police stress research is that older generations of police officers ‘lose touch with the line’ as the duties and culture of policing have dramatically changed over time (Forcese, 1998; Toch, 2002). Therefore, future research should consult officers who are currently active in patrol, or have recently left patrol duty. Last, the two samples were almost predominantly male which could have created a gender (i.e., male) influence on the data. For example, the sample from Turkey consisted of 167 participants— 98.2% of which were male. This is an important consideration, because although policing has remained a male-dominated profession, more females have recently been involved in the forces (Lewis-Horne, 2002) and unique factors of job stress and job satisfaction exist for female police employees (Brown & Campbell, 1994). While some efforts are currently being made to enhance measures specifically for patrol officer job satisfaction, more work is needed in the area to develop a sound job satisfaction measure: a) for use in Canada; b) with adequate evidence for the development of new facets of job satisfaction by consulting populations directly instead of solely relying on past literature; and c) ensuring the inclusion of a representative sample, which would be comprised of both male and female officers, as well as participants who worked in a patrol position recently or at the time of data collection.

Table 2-1. *Psychometric values reported by Can et al. (2016) for the POJSS evaluation, and benchmark criteria used to determine psychometric acceptability.*

Psychometric Value	Can et al.'s Reported Value	Minimum Benchmark
Goodness-of-fit	$\chi^2 = 2.62$	$\chi^2 < 5.00$ acceptable fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999)
	CFI = 0.92	CFI > 0.90 acceptable fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999)
	RMSEA = 0.086	RMSEA < 0.08 reasonable fit (Kline, 2015)
Internal Reliability	<i>Supervisor fairness (six items)</i>	
	USA: $\alpha = .90$	$\alpha > 0.70$ (Kline, 2000)
	Turkey: $\alpha = .88$	
	<i>Peer comradery (five items)</i>	
	USA: $\alpha = .89$	
	Turkey: $\alpha = .83$	
	<i>Occupational pride (three items)</i>	
	USA: $\alpha = .82$	
	Turkey: $\alpha = .78$	
Test-retest Reliability	Supervisor fairness: $r = 0.93^{***}$	$r > 0.80$ (Kline, 2000)
	Peer comradery: $r = 0.88^{***}$	
	Occupational pride: $r = 0.90^{***}$	

Note. $***p < 0.001$

^aInternal reliability estimates are broken down into two populations: USA and Turkey subsamples.

Other Research on Police Job Satisfaction

Though no other police-specific or patrol job satisfaction measure was identified in the literature review, other preliminary research has suggested there may be additional facets of job satisfaction unique to police. In specific, two studies were identified that had been carried out to help identify unique facets of job satisfaction that police officers' experience (Hylton, Matonovich, Varro, & Thakker, 1979; Toch, 2002). Like Can et al. (2016), it would not be appropriate to use the results of these studies to completely inform the current research, as they may no longer remain relevant (Hylton et al., 1979), or because they encompassed non-Canadian samples (Toch, 2002). Nonetheless, these studies highlight important evidence in relation to *potential* sources of police job satisfaction and is worthy of reflection for the current research.

Although Can et al. (2016) attempted to develop a measure specific to patrol officers, the previously stated limitations prevent the current research from adopting the POJSS. Thus, a discussion of several key research studies will be discussed at length, as they have been successful in identifying important facets of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction for police officers. The thematic similarities between these studies will be summarized at the end of the section.

As the following sections will describe key research related to the current research, it is important to restate that there are inherent differences between job satisfaction and occupational stress. As previously stated, job satisfaction relates to “how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs” (Spector, 1997; p. 2) and occupational stress is defined as “a situation wherein job-related factors interact with a worker to change (i.e., disrupt or enhance) his or her psychological or physiological condition such that the person (i.e., mind-body) is forced to deviate from normal functioning” (Beehr & Newman, 1978; pp. 669-670). Though different concepts, past research has demonstrated that occupational stress has negatively affected levels of job satisfaction (Cotton, Dollard, & de Jonge, 2002; Kula, 2011; Kuo, 2015). As reduced job satisfaction appears to be a consequence of occupational stress, the following studies discussed will include elements of occupational stress, as they may serve as potential sources of dissatisfaction.

Study of stress in policing by Toch (2002). Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) expressed that much of the research in job satisfaction is related to high and low points of work experiences that typically have to do with the work itself. This is also what was found in the qualitative portion of the research conducted by Toch (2002), which aimed to identify sources of job satisfaction and stress within New York patrol officers. Toch (2002) employed focused interviews with police officers and identified elements of job satisfaction, dissatisfaction, and sources of stress. More specifically, sources of job satisfaction were categorized into four elements (for a complete review with supporting quotations, see Toch, 2002): (1) *providing assistance to citizens* was identified as a source of satisfaction. By helping civilians in need, a sense of pride was felt by the officers, but was not often discussed. (2) *exercising one’s interpersonal skills* was also identified as an important source of satisfaction. Toch (2002) expressed this best as, “although policing is often equated with the use of legal power or of force, officers appear to take greatest pride in their ability to resolve delicate situations through

exercises of verbal ingenuity. In both human services and crime-related incidents, the deployment of interpersonal-relations skills was clearly valued” (p. 29). (3) *getting feedback* was noted as an important source of satisfaction. Officers noted that they valued the gratitude expressed from citizens, whether it was through acknowledging that police were not enemies, or through the recognition of community changes that were influenced by police. (4) *receiving peer-group support*. Officers mentioned two different sources of satisfaction that related to peer support. The first related to the “solidarity and loyalty of the police force” (p. 34), where a sense of belongingness and support was acknowledged. The other peer-support source of satisfaction had to do with the positive relationships with other work associates. These four categories were the most prominent sources of job satisfaction identified by the officers.

In addition to the sources of job satisfaction experienced, Toch (2002) noted the low points of the work, which mostly involved experiences of the work itself, such as death, injury, and suffering. These were all sources of stress experienced by the officers. *Painful and traumatic experiences*, such as the death of a child, was identified by officers involved in incidents where children had died. Toch (2002) further noted that this stress can be further amplified, as officer’s experience psychological strain by trying to maintain their emotions while also being “forced to play the role of spectators to human tragedy” (p. 38). Other traumatic experiences involving children also contributed to officer stress, such as child abuse and neglect. *Problems with partners* was also identified as a source of stress, as patrol officers can be assigned to work with difficult partners. Specifically, they described the difficulty in working with a partner who is consistently overaggressive or prone to conflict. Toch (2002) specifically mentioned that violence-prone officers are overwhelmingly avoided by other peers on the force. As with other careers, *problems with supervisors* is a significant source of police officer stress. Having a negative relationship with a supervisor or higher-level administrators lead to feelings of helpless and lacking resources. One of the strongest feelings of frustration that was identified was *the reward system*, where perceived rewards and promotions were seen to be allocated unfairly. In particular, the fairness of the process in receiving promotions or rewards left them feeling bitter and weakened their overall commitment to the service. Another source of job stress identified was *time pressures and constraints*. Officers noted the hectic pace on the job, jumping from call to call, and knowing that he or she is in constant demand. Relating to this, the unknowing variety of calls that come in ultimately lead to “seesawing physiological demands”

(p. 54) on the officer. *Issues of self-efficacy* was also identified as a source of stress. This is best described by Toch (2002), who explains:

“police work is very complex professional work that requires officers to exercise considerable skill, make delicate decisions with fateful consequences, and solve a wide range of interpersonal problems, with no hard-and-fast criteria about the correctness and incorrectness of solutions. Officers must therefore live with doubts and uncertainty about some of what they have done, which can make them question their own adequacy or competence and undermine their self-esteem” (pp. 55-56).

Lastly, a source of tension and conflict identified relates to *race and gender relations*. The transition from being a white-dominated profession to a profession with women and minorities had sometimes manifested as self-segregation, resentment, and troubles in personal relations with other officers. Although the research in police job satisfaction is relatively scant, the detailed study that Toch (2002) carried out is helpful for directing future research regarding specific job satisfaction facets that may exist in policing.

To explore whether there may be unique stress factors experienced specifically with female police officers, a second phase was carried out by Toch (2002) in addition to the other interviews. Researchers engaged in field observation, where they went with officers on a ‘ride-along’ during a patrol shift. Ten ride-along interviews were completed, with the majority of the participants being female officers. The purpose of the ride-along style interview was to observe the officers on patrol duty while having an informal conversation. Several themes emerged in relation to sources of satisfaction and stress. First, the *nature of the job* was identified as both a source of satisfaction and stress. The autonomy that the officers experienced was a great source of satisfaction, as they valued the freedom that they had while on patrol. Pay, benefits, and scheduling was also viewed as a source of satisfaction (specifically, the 10-hour, 4-day work weeks). However, some sources of stress were the boredom and unpredictability of the job. Officers typically experienced boredom during dayshift in low-crime areas. The unpredictability of the job also leads to stress, as the adrenaline rush that came from attending emergency calls was followed by a return to routine patrolling, and thus having to return to a calmer state. The *environment of the beat* also contributed to feelings of stress. The city itself was cited as stressful during winter conditions, as officers had difficulty driving in icy and snowy conditions, as well as having to stand outside for long periods of time. As similar findings to the previous

interviews, the *qualities of a good partner* were described unanimously as a source of satisfaction or stress. Satisfaction was achieved when officers had good rapport and trust with their partners, as well as having similar styles of policing. Interestingly, some female respondents noted that their preference to partner with another female officer, as male officers can be difficult to work with due to their ‘inflated egos’ and aggressive policing styles. Overwhelmingly, the participants reported that having a hostile or uncommunicative partner was a great source of stress. Officers who did not have a permanent partner also experienced stress, as they never knew who they would be partnered with prior to the shift starting. Another unique stressor to female officers included citizen responses to female officers, where some citizens were surprised when female officers responded to a call. Further, some citizens assumed that the male was in charge in male-female partnerships, and thus directed all comments and questions to the male, neglecting to consult with the female officer. *Effects of personal life* was also listed as a source of stress for officers, as the job has negatively impacted their personal life. Some respondents mentioned that their occupation as a police officer had created tension between former friends and family. In particular, one participant discussed the dilemma of witnessing an associate do something illegal in front of them. A female officer who was not currently in a romantic relationship discussed the struggle of dating, where men were either intimidated by her occupation or were captivated by the job and would not discuss anything else. Last, as similar with the focused interviews, *politics* played a major role in job stress. Generally, it was assumed that special assignments and promotions were decisions based upon favouritism. As shown, many of the same themes emerged from both the focused interviews and the ride-along interviews, and notably, Toch (2002) highlights the stressors that may be unique to female officers exclusively.

Job satisfaction in the Regina Police Department. Another study that remains important in police job satisfaction, specifically in a Canadian context, was carried out by Hylton et al. (1979) through the Regina Police Department in the province of Saskatchewan. Although this study was carried out many years ago and may no longer be entirely relevant, it is important to consider the facets of job satisfaction identified, as the study may offer unique guidance in a Canadian context. The development and administration of a self-report measure relating to police job satisfaction was the focus of the research. Several hundred items were developed by police personnel and consultants while conferring the literature. Once the questionnaire

eliminated extraneous, ambiguous, or irrelevant items, the final set of questions was administered to a test group of seven police officers, and further clarifications were made. A total of 304 police officers of the Regina Police Department in Saskatchewan, Canada, received the final questionnaire. Using factor analysis, ten dimensions of job satisfaction were identified.

First, *personal and organization supports* were identified, which was concerned with either personal supports within the department or organizational supports that may have been available to them. Specifically, organizational supports had to do with the perceptions of adequacy of training, the hours of work carried out, as well as the rigidity of policies and procedures within the force. Personal supports within the department encompassed the capacity to have friends on the force, the extent that new members were welcomed to the team, and the extent to which members offered help to one another. Another dimension of job satisfaction identified was *openness of personal communication*. These items were concerned with how respondents believed that there is open communication about personal problems that may be experienced by others or themselves while on the job. Another facet of job satisfaction was the *security of employment*. This facet encompassed the extent to which members felt that they had security in their employment. This did not only refer to ongoing employment, but also included perceptions about their chances of promotions, sufficiency of salary and benefits, ability to get the job done, physical surroundings, supervisors, and orderliness of the workplace. *Pride in police work* was also identified as a source of job satisfaction, which is described as pride in the department, group spirit, media and public relations, as well as willingness to work with other members to get the job done. Another facet, *co-operation orientation*, was concerned with how members perceived their job as being co-operative. More specifically, the extent of a team approach, the prospect for group problem solving, as well as the perceived co-operation with civilian staff, witnesses, and the public. *Encouragement* was also identified, which was the view about how members felt they were encouraged in their police work across different contexts, including: personal relationships between staff members, perceived orderliness of the workplace, and extent of expectations of work had been accomplished. *Effects of police work on personal relationships* was also identified, and related to what extent the job permits, or interferes, with the development and establishment of personal relationships. Another dimension, *powerlessness*, concerned the extent of how members perceived the appropriate treatment of criminals, if police had adequate power to accomplish their job, and their views about the nature

of offenders. *Practical orientation* was concerned with how members feel that they, personally, are encouraged to act practically, and their perception of how others in the organization are acting in a practical way. Last, and perhaps the facet of job satisfaction most unique to the Canadian context, is *attitudes towards natives*. This dimension of job satisfaction encompassed the attitudes and relations regarding police and local indigenous peoples. While it has been nearly forty years since this study was carried out and cultural and political climates have likely changed, the relevance of these dimensions to today's police should still be investigated.

The authors also note that there were four, miscellaneous single-item questions that stood on their own but should still be considered important for the measurement of job satisfaction. These four items included satisfaction with the police association, the need for prevention over apprehension, extent of communication with the public, and availability of equipment.

Similarities found between studies. Between the studies carried out by Toch (2002), Hylton et al. (1979) of the Regina Police Department, and the development of the POJSS by Can et al. (2016), similar sources of job satisfaction were identified. Though not all of the studies highlighted encompass all of the same elements of job satisfaction, it is important to draw the similarities found between independent studies. The similar themes found across these studies include seven main sources of job satisfaction, including peer support and camaraderie, sense of pride, politics and the reward system, nature of the job, effects on personal life, public relations and media criticism, as well as job safety and danger. Additionally, other studies that provide conflicting evidence, such as the danger aspect of patrol work, will also be discussed.

Peer support and camaraderie. All three studies discussed, to some extent, the theme of the importance of having good relations with their peers on the job. Toch (2002) describes in detail the qualities of a good partner and the stress associated with having a hostile or uncommunicative partner. Further, Hylton et al. (1979) listed personal support as a source of job satisfaction, which encompasses the capacity to make friends within the service, the extent to which help is offered between members, and how new members are welcomed to the team. Can et al. (2016) included the sense of peer camaraderie experienced with other police members as a source of job satisfaction in the POJSS. Additionally, other research has suggested that camaraderie among officers and police subculture is also main component to police job satisfaction (Johnson, 2012; Lester, 1983; Meagher & Yentes, 1986).

Sense of pride. There was consensus among all three studies regarding the elements of occupational pride. Toch (2002) noted that officers enjoyed providing assistance to citizens when they needed help and felt pride in resolving difficult situations by exercising interpersonal skills. Can et al. (2016) included pride as a dimension of job satisfaction due to past research demonstrating the sense of pride experienced by officers when serving their communities (Lester, 1983; Meagher & Yentes, 1986). Hylton et al. (1979) described that group spirit, willingness to work with other officers, and media and public relations all contributed to pride within police work, and ultimately, a source of job satisfaction.

Politics and the reward system. The theme of politics and reward system was also another common element between the studies, however, with slightly differing contexts. Can et al. (2016) and Toch (2002) both included supervisor fairness, a component of organizational politics, as a source of satisfaction. Toch (2002) specifically outlined the stress caused by the problematic relationships with supervisors and the reduced commitment to the service if rewards and promotions were perceived to be decided as a result of favouritism. Furthermore, Hylton et al. (1979) included security of employment as an element of satisfaction, which include their perception of opportunity to move forward and get ahead.

Nature of the job. Though different examples and situations were presented, an overall general theme relating to the nature of the job was consistent in two of the studies. Toch (2002) offered insights into typical experiences on the job, which included experiencing trauma, having time constraints, being autonomous, and the physical environment as job elements that contribute to satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Further, sources of satisfaction for officers included the pay, benefits, and scheduling. Alternatively, Hylton et al. (1979) discuss the element of powerlessness, which relates to whether criminals were seen to be appropriately treated, if they felt that they had adequate power to do their jobs, and the overall views about the nature of offenders.

Effects on personal life. This element of satisfaction was discussed in depth by Toch (2002), but was mentioned in both studies. Negative impacts from the job, including tension between former friends and family, dealing with illegal acts off duty, as well as having trouble dating outside of their occupation. Additionally, Hylton et al. (1979) also identified that the job plays a role in permitting or interfering with the growth and establishment of personal relationships outside of the job.

Public relations and media criticism. Both Toch (2002) and Hylton et al. (1979) discussed various elements that related to communication between the public, media, and the police. Toch (2002) highlighted the issues between male and female officers responding to police calls, as well as the tension between blacks and whites with the public, and within the organization. Further, Hylton et al. (1979) offer a unique insight into a Canadian context that encompassed tensions between indigenous peoples and the police force. Further, other researchers have also investigated negative media coverage and discovered it as a prominent stressor for police services (Brooks & Piquero, 1998; Guffey, 1992; Scott, 2004).

Job safety and danger. Compared to the other aforementioned facets of job satisfaction, job safety and job danger, in relation to job satisfaction, has been studied infrequently with inconsistent findings. Jo and Shim (2015) described the scenario of officers' who work in areas with high crime rates and poor social connections, which lead to potential danger. These dangers were hypothesized to then lead to more strain on an officer, which can then contribute to decreased job satisfaction. Holt, Blevins, and Burruss (2012) found that dangerousness significantly affected the stress experienced by cybercrime investigators. However, Davey, Obst, and Sheehan (2001) observed a positive relationship between job satisfaction and dangerous components of the job, suggesting that officers' actually view the unpredictability and danger of the job satisfying. There appears a great need to investigate the perception of job safety and danger as a potential source of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

The Need for a Police-Tailored Job Satisfaction Measure

Toch (2002) and Hylton et al. (1979) appear to have identified important elements of job satisfaction within patrol work. Although Can et al. (2016) included some of these same elements of job satisfaction in the POJSS, it appears that several potential elements of job satisfaction are omitted (i.e., nature of the job, effects on personal life, public relations). While these studies offer insights into this field of research, unfortunately, limitations exist. As previously mentioned, the study carried out by Toch (2002) encompasses a sample from the United States of America, which may have different cultural elements of policing that do not transfer appropriately to a Canadian context. Further, the study carried out by Hylton et al. (1979) from the Regina Police Department included unique Canadian features, but the study remains quite outdated. Finally, the POJSS that was developed by Can et al. (2016) offered a recent development in the literature but relied on past research instead of consulting current

police members, and also encompassed a non-Canadian sample. Thus, the limitations that these studies present may lead the direction of future research of patrol job satisfaction in Canada.

Developing a New Job Satisfaction Measure: Psychometrics to Consider

The science of psychometrics aims to establish whether psychological tools are appropriate, meaningful, and trustworthy. Furr and Bacharach (2014) provide an example about intelligence testing and the death penalty, which reinforces the importance of ensuring a tool has adequate reliability and validity. In the United States, you cannot be sentenced to the death penalty if you suffer from significant intellectual ability (i.e., having an Intelligence Quotient below 70). Thus, a person's score on an intelligence test could literally mean the difference between life and death. Of course, not every testing situation rests on the same extreme outcomes, but psychological testing can still lead to important decisions for people, such as decisions about clinical applications, job placement, university admissions, and hiring processes (Furr & Bacharach, 2014). Though the severity of the outcomes may be different, these examples demonstrate the importance of having psychometric value in our instruments and the potentially hazardous outcomes they can lead to. Two cornerstones of good practice in scale development include the consideration of both reliability and validity. While obtaining adequate reliability evidence remains essential in psychological measurement (DeVellis, 2017; Furr & Bacharach, 2014), it will not be discussed in detail in this current venture. As the overall goal is to first produce the foundation for measure development by gathering the necessary content, reliability estimates cannot be gathered at this time. However, once such measure is developed, several forms of reliability (e.g., test-retest, internal consistency) should be assessed in order to determine the overall reliability and validity.

Validity. Furr and Bacharach (2014) offer a simple definition of validity to be “the degree to which a test measures what it is supposed to measure” (p. 198). However, Furr & Bacharach (2014) noted that the American Education Research Association, American Psychological Association, and National Council on Measurement in Education (1999) offered a more recent perspective of validity, which is the “degree to which evidence and theory support the interpretations of test scores entailed by the proposed uses” (p. 9). Messick (1995) offers a definition of validity in his report on the standards of validity in performance assessment, which is “an overall evaluative judgment of the degree to which empirical evidence and theoretical rationales support the adequacy and appropriateness of interpretations and actions based on test

scores or other modes of assessment” (p. 5). It is common to read measurement literature and often see researcher’s claim if a test is “valid” or “invalid.” However, it is important to understand that the test itself cannot be regarded as valid or invalid (Furr & Bacharach, 2014). It is the interpretation of the test scores and the projected uses of those scores that determine the degree of validity (Furr & Bacharach, 2014). Thus, validity concerns itself with the legitimacy of the resulting score from a testing situation. To offer a practical example, a weight scale would be a valid measure of your overall body weight. It would then be reasonable to claim that a weight scale is a useful tool. However, if you attempted to use the weight scale to measure your body temperature, the results would not fare well. Interpreting the results of these scenarios depends on the appropriateness of the tool in regard to *how* it is used. A bodyweight scale is a valid measure of body weight, *when appropriately used and interpreted*. This is an important implication that can also be extended to other validity issues in psychological measurement.

Types of validity. From a more conventional perspective, there are three main validity concepts that aim to infer the prediction of events and the relationship of other constructs, which include content validity, criterion-related validity, and construct validity (DeVellis, 2017; Furr & Bacharach, 2014). *Content validity* is the degree to what content is included on a test is a reflection of the content that *should* be on the test. In short, the items on a test need to reflect the important aspects of the construct you are attempting to measure (DeVellis, 2017). *Criterion-related validity* is concerned with how measures predict outcomes of performance or behaviour (Mills & Gay, 2016). To expand, one component of criterion-related validity is *predictive validity*, which is the degree to which a test is able to predict how well an individual will perform in a future situation (Mills & Gay, 2016). For example, the Graduate Record Examination (GRE) general test is a measure that is used widely in the admissions process for graduate student applicants. Institutions that use the GRE score as a criterion for admission are attempting to predict which students are likely to achieve success in graduate studies. Last, *construct validity* is concerned with “the degree to which test scores can be interpreted as reflecting a particular psychological construct” (Furr & Bacharach, 2014; p. 201). That is, the extent to which the measure is accurately measuring the construct in question in its totality. Although social scientific research has broadly seen validity as a three-faceted issue (Furr & Bacharach, 2014), other broader forms of validity have been presented in the literature (Messick, 1995), but are not relevant to the research in question, and thus will not be discussed in detail.

Focus on content validity. Although previously described, the current proposed research is most concerned with the issue of content validity. As content validity is closely tied to the construct that is being observed, such as the current investigation on job satisfaction, it is pertinent that item content of psychological measures capture the construct completely and accurately, in order for it to be content valid (DeVellis, 2017). As already stated, the items in psychological measurement cannot be invalid themselves, but can be invalid in how they are used. The ways in which instruments can be invalid for use is described by particular threats to the instrument's content validity, such as the specificity or broadness of an instrument.

Threats to content validity. Researchers have many interests of measuring variables, whether they are global constructs, for example, like one's quality of life, or more narrow and specific constructs, such as perceived anxiousness. DeVellis (2017) suggests the importance of focusing on the relevant questions to answer our research questions, but with the balance of also achieving the appropriate breadth of our constructs. In scale development, these threats to content validity remain an issue across many fields of research. Researchers have to make difficult decisions regarding how narrowly or broadly they should create their tools. On one hand, items that are heavily focused on specific concepts could likewise reveal specific answers that may be important to our inherent understanding of a concept. On the other hand, generating broad measures allow for wider applicability to many situations, which is helpful to researchers and practitioners when comparing across studies. Thus, it is clear that researchers need to make careful considerations when developing or choosing measures for their research queries.

Construct-irrelevant content. DeVellis (2017) describes construct-irrelevant content as the questions or items (i.e., the content) that are extraneous or "irrelevant to the construct for which the test is to be interpreted" (p. 204). By including extraneous content that is not related to the core construct, the outcome of the test score is affected by irrelevant factors.

Construct underrepresentation. Unlike construct-irrelevant content, construct underrepresentation is concerned with having items that do not fully represent the construct within a measure. When a construct is underrepresented in a test, there is not an adequate number of items that appropriately grasp the range of content necessary to derive information from the resulting scores (DeVellis, 2017). Furr and Bacharach (2014) note that it is ideal to include all relevant items that represent a construct to achieve high content validity. However, in practice, there are no specific rules on what constitutes a 'sufficient' amount of content. They

also highlight the practical constraints that may lead to construct underrepresentation (e.g., time, respondent fatigue).

The issue of face validity. While the two former threats to content validity are carefully considered by researchers and practitioners, face validity remains an important concept to consider, but is somewhat contested in the literature (Furr & Bacharach, 2014). *Face validity* “is the degree to which a measure appears to be related to a specific construct, in the judgment of non-experts, such as test takers” (p. 205). In short, it is a question as to whether the measure appears to measure what it should, and what remains relevant to the test-taker. As outlined by Furr and Bacharach (2014), face validity is not necessarily always considered an important psychometric component of a test. However, the relevance and meaning of test content as experienced by the test-taker may be important in the way that they choose to respond. For example, a participant may have decreased motivation to complete a survey about depression if they are being asked questions regarding their political affiliations. Though there is an inherent difference between content validity and face validity, they appear to strongly relate to each other in practice.

Developing a New Job Satisfaction Measure: Theoretical Considerations

There is great importance of implementing psychological theory or evidence to inform item and instrument development. It is common in the scientific literature to find measurement tools developed atheoretically. However, theory may provide explanation as to why certain associations lead to certain events (Nilsen, 2015). Unfortunately, a lack of theoretical guidance can make it difficult to explain or understand what implemented strategies are successful upon implementation (Nilsen, 2015). DeVellis (2017) reiterates the importance of using well-grounded theories that are related to the phenomenon of interest. Also, DeVellis (2017) noted that “theory is a great aid to clarity” (p. 106) and “relevant social science theories should always be considered before developing a scale” (p. 106). Additionally, Martinez, Lewis, and Weiner (2014) warn that the use of ‘home-grown’ instruments that are not theoretically driven can compromise research outcomes. In order to enhance the psychometric qualities of an instrument, proper development procedures should be followed, which include implementing existing theory before item development (Martinez, Lewis, & Weiner, 2014).

Several theories exist in order to understand how a job may satisfy an individual. Magny (2012) noted that simply asking somebody, “are you satisfied with your job?” would be an easy

way to obtain an answer to this query but would be unrealistic in capturing the details related to an individual's motivations to work. Greene (1989) described that much of the job satisfaction research fails to break down job satisfaction into its many different factors. Zhao, Thurman, and He (1999) suggested that one particular theory that is commonly used in the job satisfaction research related to policing is Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959). Further, Zhao et al. (1999) noted that, at that time, little research existed to discredit the use of Herzberg's theory, and appears in many of the textbooks on police management and administration. In the research carried out by Zhao et al. (1999) on sources of job satisfaction and work environment models, it was found that the work environment remained a crucial aspect of the satisfaction a police officer experiences. Thus, as Herzberg's theory is greatly concerned with the environment of the employee to buffer against dissatisfaction, the utility of Herzberg's theory in identifying sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction was recommended.

Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene theory. Frederick Herzberg, an American psychologist, developed an inherent interest in employee motivation, and thus, sought out to understand what people wanted from their jobs. The research conducted by Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) lead to the development of the *motivation-hygiene theory*. The motivation-hygiene theory is a widely used theory that is relevant to much of the organizational psychology literature and is frequently cited in job satisfaction research. The main findings from the Herzberg et al. (1959) study suggested that the factors that lead to job satisfaction were inherently distinct from the factors that resulted in job dissatisfaction. In short, the theory highlights that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not two ends of one spectrum, but independent constructs affected by different factors. In this sense, the opposite of job satisfaction is no job satisfaction. Alternatively, the opposite of job dissatisfaction is no job dissatisfaction. Traditionally, job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction would be viewed as opposites, but Herzberg et al. (1959) suggested the types of factors that affect each construct in different ways and were termed *motivation* and *hygiene* factors (see Figure 2-1 for visual clarity).

Motivators. Job satisfaction is believed to stem from intrinsic conditions to the work and are termed *motivators*. Simply put, these motivator factors relate to what a worker does, and relate to fulfilling the needs of: achievement, recognition, the work itself, growth or advancement, and responsibility. Herzberg et al. (1959) summarized that when their participants

felt most happy about their jobs, they were describing events that related to their tasks and their growth as a worker. These aspects of the job are termed motivators as they are believed to motivate employees to demonstrate superior performance at work. Herzberg et al. (1959) believed that as man strives to reach self-actualization in every aspect of life, it must also be true of his work. The working conditions of the job cannot lead to true job satisfaction. Satisfaction will only stem from an individual's personal performance of a task that leads to rewards that eventually "reinforce his aspirations" (p. 114). The following section will describe these intrinsic factors as Herzberg et al. (1959) had defined them and how certain events were included in these categories.

Achievement. Successful completion of a job, solutions to problems, vindication, and observing the results of one's work were all included as aspects of achievement.

Recognition. Any act of notice, praise, or blame. Recognition could come from any source: a peer, supervisor, member of the public, colleague, or a client.

The work itself. "The actual doing of the job or the tasks of the job as a source of good or bad feelings about it" (p. 48). This "doing of the job" include an entire operation of tasks, or a restriction to a specific duty.

Possibility of growth. A situation where the individual shows objective indications that the possibility for growth has increased or decreased. This includes the feelings of likelihood that an individual can move upward in his or her organization, but also includes the ways in which the individual can enhance one's own skills in the profession. Herzberg et al. (1959) offers a specific example: "...if a man moves from a craftsman's position to that of a draftsman, the new status opens up a previously closed door; he may eventually rise to the position of design engineer or perhaps even project engineer" (p. 45). Moreover, situations where it was possible for an individual to "learn new skills or to acquire a new professional outlook" (p. 46) was included in this category.

Advancement. This category only included circumstances where an actual change occurred in regard to an individual's position or status within their company. Situations where an individual transferred from one area of a company to another, without any change in status, was not included as part of this category.

Responsibility. These events encompassed when a person gains satisfaction from having responsibility for their work, having the responsibility for the work of other individual's,

or being given a new responsibility. This category also encompassed situations where an individual felt negatively about having a lack of responsibility in his or her work.

Hygiene factors. Herzberg et al. (1959) described how the participants who were dissatisfied with their jobs frequently cited the *conditions that surrounded their job* as a reason for their dissatisfaction, but not the tasks themselves they had to carry out. The factors that lead to this job dissatisfaction are termed *hygiene factors* and are extrinsic to the job itself. These factors include: company policy and administrative practices, interpersonal relations, physical working conditions, salary, job security, and supervision. Herzberg et al. (1959) listed these as factors of hygiene as they are “analogous to the principles of medical hygiene. Hygiene operates to remove health hazards from the environment of man” (p. 113). Herzberg et al. (1959) went on to further describe the aspects of hygiene as a preventative measure: “Modern garbage disposal, water purification, and air-pollution control do not cure diseases, but without them we should have many more diseases” (p. 113). If these hygiene factors decline to a level below acceptability considered by the employee, Herzberg et al. (1959) suggested that this is when job dissatisfaction will develop. By remedying certain hygienic aspects of the job, it should theoretically remove or improve poor attitudes related to the job. These extrinsic factors are frequently noted by Herzberg as “KITA” factors, which is an acronym for “kick in the ass,” which embody the factors of punishment or incentive to make somebody (a worker) do something (Herzberg, 1968). It is important to note that Herzberg et al. (1959) emphasized that improving the factors relating to dissatisfaction would not enhance satisfaction of workers. Similarly, including factors of job satisfaction would not lead to the elimination of job dissatisfaction. For example, if a worker is imbedded in hostile working conditions with poor management, providing a pay raise to the worker would not lead to the individual being more satisfied with his or her work. In comparison, a healthy work environment without room for growth and achievement would not lead to satisfaction, either. In the following section, the definitions for Herzberg et al. (1959) extrinsic factors will be offered.

Company policy and administrative practices. This category includes overall aspects of the company as a factor. This included two particular aspects. The first aspect involved the “adequacy or inadequacy of company organization and management” (p. 48). For example, scenarios included in this aspect would involve when an individual has inadequate authority to carry out his or her task or when a company policy is not implemented due to the unorganized

nature of the work. The second aspect of this category concerns itself with the harmfulness or beneficial outcomes of company policies (e.g., personnel policies).

Interpersonal relations. The interactions between the person working and another individual. Herzberg et al. (1959) further subcategorized these interactions as an interpersonal relation between a superior, subordinate, or peers. These subcategories allow for differentiation between different types of relationships (e.g., purely social – where interactions occur in the workplace but independent of work activities).

Physical working conditions. The physical conditions of the work, which include “...the amount of work, or the facilities available for doing the work” (p. 48). This category is concerned with the adequacy or inadequacy of such environmental characteristics (e.g., tools, lighting, ventilation).

Salary. All situations where any form of compensation plays a role.

Job security. Perceptions of company stability or instability, which reflects a person’s job security.

Supervision. This category includes various facets of supervision, including: “...the competence or incompetence, fairness or unfairness of the supervisor...” (p. 47). Furthermore, supervision also includes statements regarding “...the supervisor’s willingness or unwillingness to delegate responsibility or his willingness or unwillingness to teach...” (p. 47).

Possible workplace scenarios. There are four scenarios that may take in a workplace regarding levels of hygiene and motivating factors:

1. High hygiene + high motivation: An ideal situation which results in high motivation among employees and few complaints.
2. High hygiene + low motivation: In this scenario, employees do not have many complaints, but lack motivation within their work. Their job is merely a form of sustenance.
3. Low hygiene + high motivation: The job includes many motivating factors which keep the work challenging and rewarding, however, employees have many complaints about working conditions and policies.
4. Low hygiene + low motivation: This scenario is not ideal for an organization. Employees are not motivated and pose numerous complaints about working conditions.

Both hygiene and motivating factors, as well as the combination of all factors, need to be considered by administration and managerial positions when attempting to enhance job satisfaction and avoiding worker dissatisfaction. By understanding where the sources of dissatisfaction and satisfaction are coming from, better implementation of funding, programs, and policy may take place.

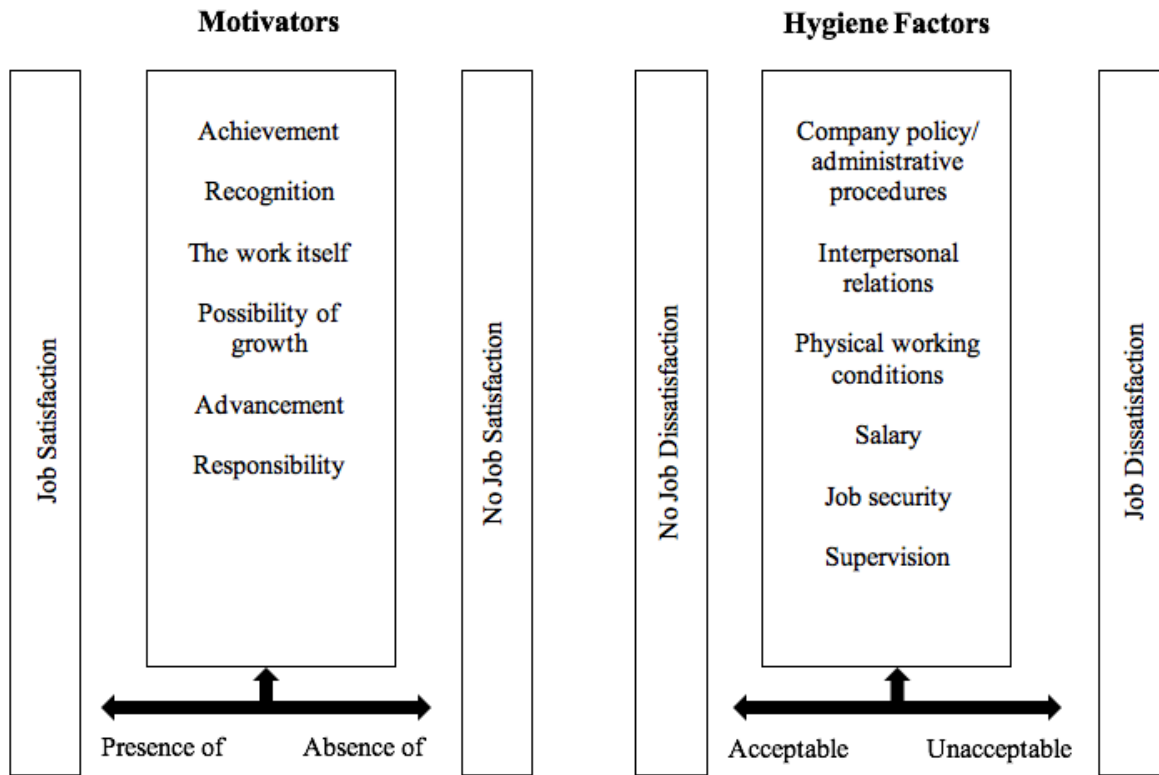


Figure 2-1. Visual representation of Herzberg's (1959) motivation-hygiene theory.

Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory and police organizations. A recent study carried out by Monk-Turner, O'Leary, & Sumter (2010) investigated how relevant Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory was in understanding job satisfaction, dissatisfaction, and retention in police work. Generally, it appeared that their work supported the use of the motivation-hygiene theory as a framework for understanding satisfaction and dissatisfaction in police work. Interestingly, this study identified that the nature of supervisory relationships had the potential to constitute as both an extrinsic or intrinsic factor. They found that supervisors who are able to build a positive work environment and offer words of encouragement and support enhanced Herzberg's intrinsic variable that leads to job satisfaction. Alternatively, supervisors who offered little support, or created a hostile working environment, tended to shape dissatisfied

workers. This conflicting finding is expected in the current research and will be specifically investigated for further clarification.

Administration and managers of patrol officers would greatly benefit from having a guideline as to which motivating factors satisfy their officers and what hygiene factors lead to job dissatisfaction. By using Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory as a theoretical framework to guide the current investigation, there are numerous possible benefits. First, the motivators that are identified can be further encouraged or implemented by managerial staff (e.g., having regular review sessions for recognition of the officer's work). If motivators can be accurately identified, implementing actions that support these factors in officers' work should, theoretically, uphold satisfaction and motivation of the force. Second, by investigating all hygiene factors associated with job dissatisfaction, managerial staff can implement strategies to buffer the levels of job dissatisfaction (e.g., ensuring all officers' have adequate attire to combat difficult winter weather working conditions). By identifying aspects of the job between both hygiene and motivating factors, it would better direct organizational efforts to make improvements to the workplace overall.

Significance of the Research

The review of the literature and research related to job satisfaction of patrol officers in Canada has shown a lack of empirical research. Job satisfaction in patrol work deserve the attention and consideration of police administration and government agencies, as patrol services are essential in our societies. Unfortunately, despite heavy attention on research focusing on job satisfaction, there are continuing problems with current instruments that attempt to reliably and adequately measure job satisfaction across contexts. In specific, there is a great need to capture the unique facets of job satisfaction within patrol work that are being underrepresented in currently used measures. Can et al. (2016) reiterate the importance of developing psychometrically sound, police-specific job satisfaction measures in order to design intervention strategies that are most relevant to police. For example, if a significant source of job dissatisfaction involves experiencing trauma, interventions that can be implemented include peer-group support meetings, debriefings, and policies that excuse the officer from his or her duties for a period of time without compromising their pay. If we can accurately identify when patrol officers are experiencing sources of job dissatisfaction, direct funding and administrative

efforts can be implemented to preserve employment retention and lower organizational costs associated with the pervasive effects of job dissatisfaction.

The Current Study Purpose and Objectives

The prospects for stability and achievement within Canadian police services are contingent upon the satisfaction that police officers experience in their work. Based on a current review of research pertaining to job satisfaction and patrol officers, there is a lack of adequate job satisfaction measures to apply in a police/patrol context, as currently used instruments cannot capture the unique and nuanced nature of this work. The potential for additional job satisfaction facets in policing extend beyond the traditional dimensions. For example, Abdollahi (2002) noted that commonly identified job-related stressors of police officers included dealings with the judicial system, public scrutiny, and encountering violent and unpredictable situations, to only name a few. The potential for these unique and specific job satisfaction components in patrol work has yet to be thoroughly investigated, likely due to the aforementioned advantages of using measures that have already been developed (Spector, 1997).

The current global measures available assess job satisfaction too broadly and cannot be sufficiently applied in all contexts, which include the unique work of patrol officers. Moreover, the current facet measures of job satisfaction are *not specific enough* to fully understand the sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction that patrol officers experience. Therefore, the focus of the currently proposed study is to investigate the extent of content underrepresentation of currently used job satisfaction measures when applied in a law enforcement context. Additionally, the current research intends to identify components of job satisfaction that may be unique to patrol officers in Canada. The main objective of this research is to provide the qualitative data necessary to inform future survey development on Canadian patrol officer job satisfaction. The results of this research would inform a better measure of job satisfaction when used in a patrol work context, specifically the research questions developed for the current investigation are listed below.

Research Questions

The review of the relevant literature has provided a guideline for the formulation of all research questions and hypotheses in the current study. There are four main research questions, which all involve the investigation of variables related to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction in Canadian patrol work.

1. Do patrol officers in Canada obtain job satisfaction or dissatisfaction from all facets of commonly used job satisfaction measures? (i.e., the general facets encompassed by the JDI).
2. Do patrol officers in Canada cite unique sources of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction that are found in previous police-specific job satisfaction studies? (e.g., police camaraderie, media criticism).
3. Do additional sources of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction exist that are unique to Canadian patrol officers, that are not otherwise mentioned in previous research?
4. To what degree do Herzberg's extrinsic and intrinsic factors align with variables related to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction cited by Canadian patrol officers?

Based on the aforementioned research on police job satisfaction, particularly the evidence regarding the support of additional facets of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction for police, it is anticipated that the current investigation will provide further insight into these questions.

Chapter Three: Methodology

This chapter will provide an overview of the methodology used in the current study. An outline of the research design is provided, as well as the sample recruited, the participant inclusion and exclusion criteria, materials, procedures, and data analysis. Last, an overview of the evaluation criteria of this research will be offered, followed by the ethical considerations exercised by the researcher. The chapter will conclude with a summary of the methodology used for the current investigation.

Research Design

This investigation aimed to understand what specific intrinsic or extrinsic sources of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction exist among Canadian patrol officers by interviewing various patrol officers across Canada. The method of inquiry included semi-structured, in-depth interviews with patrol officers from various police organizations in Canada. The purpose of choosing a qualitative inquiry was to allow for a deeper level of insight into this particular query, from which survey items may be developed in future investigations (Mills & Gay, 2016). In addition, the current study gauged the relevancy of utilizing Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory to understand job satisfaction and dissatisfaction in patrol work.

Participants

Patrol officers in Canada were recruited to serve as key informants as they are considered to adequately provide expert professional judgment in the current investigation (Messick, 1995). Similar to Toch (2002), patrol officers from various department sizes were recruited, as the size of the department or city have the potential to lead to different sources of job satisfaction or stress (Scott, 2004). This study was reviewed and approved by the Behavioural Research Ethics Board at the University of Saskatchewan (REB# 18-57). The cease of officer recruitment for participation rested on meeting the threshold of both data and theoretical saturation. *Data saturation* is when the researcher begins to see redundant perspectives, thoughts, and responses during data collection (Mills & Gay, 2016; Trainor, 2013). *Theoretical saturation* occurs during the analytic process, whereby the researcher stops recruiting participants once there is substantial repetition of coding themes and categories (Trainor, 2013).

A total of 15 officers who met inclusion criteria participated in this study to serve as key informants. All participants were currently working as patrol officers within a Canadian police organization. Patrol officers were successfully recruited from small departments (<250,000 city

residents; $n=5$ total), mid-sized departments (>250,000 <1,000,000 city residents; $n=7$ total) and large departments (>1,000,000 city residents; $n=3$ total). All participants (100%) indicated that they were Caucasian when asked about their ethnicity. A total of eight males (53% total) and seven females (47% total) participated in the research. The highest level of formal education reported among participants included bachelor's degrees ($n=4$), college/university diplomas ($n=5$), some college credit ($n=3$), technical/trade education ($n=1$), and high school diplomas ($n=2$). Table 3-1 clarifies other demographic information of the officers, including their respective age, marital status, rank, and total years served.

Table 3-1. *Selected Participant Demographics.*

Participant	Age	Marital Status	Current Rank	Total Years Served
1	45	Married	Constable	11
2	37	Married	Constable	13
3	40	Separated	Constable	9
4	30	Partnered	Constable	10
5	31	Partnered	Constable	7
6	47	Married	Constable	20
7	39	Partnered	Constable/Acting Sergeant	5
8	43	Married	Constable	12
9	32	Married	Constable	10
10	26	Married	Constable	4
11	27	Partnered	Constable	3
12	28	Married	Constable	4
13	34	Married	Constable/Acting Sergeant	11
14	44	Married	Sergeant	18
15	33	Partnered	Constable	9
$M=35.7$				$M=9.8$

Further, Table 3-2 illustrates the provincial region that the participants worked in at the time of the study.

Table 3-2. *Number of Participants Recruited from Different Provincial Regions*

Participant Provincial Location	Number of Participants
Alberta	3
Manitoba	1
Newfoundland and Labrador	2
Ontario	2
Saskatchewan	7

Inclusion criteria. In order to participate, officers must have been Canadian constable or sergeant patrol officers who currently work primarily in patrol assignment or have worked full-time in patrol assignment within the last five years. Participants of any age, gender, or number of years served were eligible to participate.

Exclusion criteria. As Can et al. (2016) noted that much of the literature on patrol job satisfaction has been conducted with a wide variety of positions within policing rather than focusing on patrol officers, the current investigation focused on only the perspectives of patrol officers. As many police officers can work in various assignments within the department, all officers who resided outside of working primarily in patrol assignment would have been excluded (e.g., officers working full time in units of Major Crimes, School Resource, Special Weapons and Tactics or other specialized units). Additionally, as this research focused on frontline officer work, any rank above the sergeant level was not recruited (i.e., only constables and sergeants in patrol assignment were interviewed). Last, following Monk-Turner et al. (2010), patrol officers who had less than one year of experience would have been excluded from participating, as they may have too little experience to adequately inform the current research.

Materials

Demographics questionnaire. The demographic variables included were informed by past research investigations by Hylton et al. (1979) and Toch (2002). Officers were asked to respond to 12 basic demographic variables, including: the name of province/territory(s) and city/town(s) where they worked, name of the police organization(s) whom they worked for, age, ethnicity, sex, gender, marital status, level of education, current rank, current unit assignment, and number of years served as a police officer.

Semi-structured interview. Trainor (2013) noted that individual interviews “are in the positions of experience to respond to the types of interview questions that map the research questions” (p. 128). Further, semi-structured interviews provide the means to explore experience subjectively, therefore informing unique experiences (Hugh-Jones & Gibson 2012). Thus, individual, 60-minute semi-structured interviews with participants were employed (see Appendix A for interview protocol), as this allows for a wide range of responses through a dynamic exchange of ideas between both the researcher and participant (Trainor, 2013). Practically, semi-structured interviews remain an appealing methodology because they provide a compromise between predetermined structure of conversation, while also allowing researchers to pursue

different circumstances as they present themselves (Lee, 1999).

The questions asked in the semi-structured interview were specific in nature and innately related to patrol work. Attempts were made to ensure that the questions captured the officer's respective feelings about the work. The choice for such a detailed interview is related to the level of specificity required to answer the current research questions (DeVellis, 2017; Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). Further, as Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory is being evaluated as a potential theoretical framework to understand job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, questions were asked relating to aspects of the job itself (motivators) and the environment and surroundings of the job (hygiene factors). Johnson (2012) investigated job task characteristics as potential sources of job satisfaction and suggested to investigate police job satisfaction in relation to these job tasks of patrol district preference, availability of backup, amount of required paperwork, shift preference, level of citizen cooperation, department policies, and types of calls handled. Further, Johnson (2012) also suggested to further investigate the organizational characteristics as they relate to job satisfaction, including officer pay, promotion and transfer opportunities, benefits, supervisor to officer ratio, agency prestige, and layers of command. In sum, Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, suggestions from previous research queries, and evidence from past research on sources of patrol officer job satisfaction and dissatisfaction served as a useful framework in composing the interview questions.

Procedure

The sampling plan (Tracy, 2013) for choosing participants in the current investigation included both purposive sampling, as well as snowball sampling. *Purposive sampling* was employed, where the sample (patrol officers) that were selected was primarily based on the researcher's knowledge and required clear criteria for participation (Mills & Gay, 2016). Further, purposive sampling allowed the indication of selected participants who would fit within the parameters of the current investigation's overall goals and purpose (Tracy, 2013). Officers were recruited through an online recruitment advertisement that was posted via social media platforms, including Facebook user profiles and other private Facebook groups (e.g., police officer support groups) as a means of reaching a wide audience. A second method of reaching officers was to employ *snowball sampling*, where eligible participants identified other additional participants who fit the specific criteria needed by the study (Mills & Gay, 2016; Tracy, 2013).

Thus, all advertisements were asked to be made as a public post for the purpose of allowing current participants to recommend other potential interested participants.

Once an officer self-nominated and initiated contact with the researcher, inclusion and exclusion criteria were confirmed before making an interview appointment. Also, each participant was forwarded a copy of the consent form, an introductory letter of information, as well as a copy of the interview protocol. The current investigation employed a technologically-mediated approach to interviewing, where all discussions took place over the telephone. For the officers who initiated interest to participate, the researcher went over consent verbally and in addition, forwarded each participant his or her own signed copy of the consent form (sent via e-mail). Once verbal consent was obtained, demographic information was collected, followed by the semi-structured interview protocol. The interview lasted approximately 60 minutes and was digitally recorded for audio. Upon completion of the interview, participants were thanked for their participation and compensated with a choice of a \$20.00 gift card to Starbucks, Tim Hortons, McDonald's, or Amazon Canada. All participants were verbally debriefed and offered a debriefing form that further described the nature of the study and was offered additional information to local health resources if the officer experienced distress from participating.

Data Analysis

All interviews were audio recorded with a digital recorder and then transcribed. After transcription occurred, the officer provided the opportunity to review his or her transcript. The researcher chose to transcribe the majority of the interviews, as the act of transcription itself may serve as preliminary stage of analysis by familiarization and analytic thinking of the data (Gibson & Hugh-Jones, 2012). All transcription was edited by the researcher, where the general meaning and purpose of the conversation was transcribed by removing additional audio (e.g., laughs, emotions, background noises). Each participant was provided the opportunity to release the document to the researcher.

The current research employed thematic analysis as the primary way of approaching data analysis, as this method has been suggested to be one foundational method for qualitative analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Braun and Clarke (2006) offered this practical guideline for analysis, which includes six distinct phases: 1) reading and familiarizing oneself with the data; 2) generating initial codes of interesting features; 3) collating codes to form potential themes; 4) reviewing themes and creating a thematic 'map'; 5) defining and naming all relevant themes; and

6) producing the report using selected themes related to the research questions and literature. The use of thematic analysis will provide overall themes and patterns that was pertinent to answering the research questions. NVivo 12 (QSR International, 2018), a software that assists qualitative researchers in organizing classifying and analyzing data, was used for all analysis and document organization (Mills & Gay, 2016).

Evaluation Criteria

Good practices in evaluating qualitative research were incorporated in order to further establish the reliability of the interpretative, qualitative research. These practices included aspects of credibility, where the researcher employed investigator triangulation and the concept of sincerity in research, where self-reflexivity and transparency are discussed.

Credibility. The researcher ensured that participant voice would be accurately reflected in the current investigation by providing all participants the opportunity to review their transcripts prior to the researcher analyzing the data. By allowing the final transcript to be reviewed by the participant, it ensures the accuracy and credibility of the participant voice. Additionally, triangulation, sincerity, and self-reflexivity were practiced by the researcher in order to enhance credibility.

Triangulation. By gathering different types of data and/or viewing the findings through several lenses, stronger conclusions can be drawn. This practice is called *triangulation*, and the aim of triangulating data was to rid research of any bias and present more credible research (Tracy, 2013). Though there are many different approaches to triangulation, the current research employed a form of triangulation termed *investigator triangulation*, where different investigators are able to review and interpret the data to provide a deeper understanding of the overall analysis (Denzin, 1978). According to Denzin (1978), when exploring different evaluations of the findings, confidence about the overall findings should be improved. The current investigation aimed to apply investigator triangulation by having three police officers foreign to the current study review and co-construct the themes that were generated by the initial analysis. Please note that none of the officers who co-constructed the emerging themes with the researcher were participants of the original study. The researcher built a concept map of themes relating to both motivating and hygiene factors. Then, each reviewing officer reviewed the findings and re-categorized themes when necessary. After the co-construction and consultation, the final thematic organization was agreed upon by all officers and the researcher.

Sincerity. Tracy (2013) discusses sincerity in qualitative research as being “genuine and vulnerable” (p. 233). The researcher engaged in discussions and shared expressions of self-reflexivity and transparency about the current research to offer a global representation of the research context.

Self-reflexivity. Reflexivity has been defined as “...the practice of situating oneself in the research context and analyzing the implications of one’s subjectivity both in the context of and in relation to the research being carried out” (Nolas, 2011; p. 123). Further, practicing reflexivity permits the researcher to better understand and contemplate the overall impact that they had on data analysis (Shaw, 2010).

My motive for the current inquiry is mainly tied to my personal connections with the police. First, both my mother and father worked for a large city police department in Western Canada. Growing up, I was exposed to both the struggles and triumphs that an officer experiences in the policing profession. I have witnessed my parents’ motivation and dedication to their profession, while also witnessing the accumulation of physical and psychological damage throughout their careers. Thus, I have developed an inherent curiosity and desire to understand what makes a police officer, a police officer. Secondly, I am married to a police officer who works for a mid-sized city department in Western Canada. I have bared witness to the first-hand effects that this career has on an individual, as well as the family as a whole. As being a spouse and daughter who is immersed in the police world, I have struggled to fully understand the overall appeal and drawbacks of the profession. Thus, it became my personal venture in graduate school to better understand what contributes to the job satisfaction and dissatisfaction of officers in their respective police organizations. Although I have personal connections inside the policing world, I fully acknowledge and expose these personal biases while conducting this research.

Transparency. Tracey (2013) describes transparency in research to be a key component of sincerity, where the researcher should remain open and honest about how the research transpired through collection and activities. Though no interviews were conducted with personal relationships of mine, approximately half of the interviews were a result of snowball sampling, where my familial and personal connections lead to successful recruitment of other participants. Another component of the research that should be revealed for the sake of transparency is the concern about studying the relationships between police officers and Aboriginal peoples. It was

my initial hope to delve into the tensions and/or community relationships between police and Aboriginal peoples, as previous research had revealed that this could be a potential impact on officer satisfaction (Hylton et al., 1979). Additionally, exploring this relationship could have revealed any successes or pitfalls that the reconciliation aimed to heal. However, upon review of the Research Ethics Board (REB) at the University of Saskatchewan, the REB appeared to have concern with this, and how it would be approached and ultimately carried out. One of the stipulations that was implemented by the REB was that, upon analysis, the researcher would be required to submit an ethical amendment and have Aboriginal communities vet all findings and be able to review and/or co-construct the research report. Given the time constraints (<2 months to produce the final report), an amendment and full-board Band review would not have been possible. The intensive regulations that the REB aimed to project on the current investigation did not make it feasible to carry out, despite the valuable knowledge that could have been produced. Similar frustrations have been discussed by other researchers who were constrained in their scholarly inquiries (Haggerty, 2004). Therefore, I had removed questions related to the exploration of the relationship between police and Aboriginal peoples, but I am hopeful that other researchers in the future are able to delve into this issue.

Ethical Considerations

Throughout the current inquiry, ethical considerations were considered and applied. Kvale (1996) suggested for researchers to consider a set of ethical questions that a researcher should consider before, during, and after a research investigation. Such considerations relate to the potential for beneficial outcomes of a study, informed consent, confidentiality, and potential consequences of the research.

The outcomes of this study have the potential to benefit not only the participant, but make significant contributions to this field of study. The participant benefits by being able to explore their own thoughts and feelings in relation to satisfying or dissatisfying dynamics of their chosen profession, which may not have been explored or considered prior. This thought exploration only benefits the participant, directly. Indirectly, the results of this study contribute to the knowledge base about police/patrol officer satisfaction, particularly in a Canadian context, which has yet to be thoroughly investigated up until this point. Research such as this can drive future research queries and inform executive personnel among police organizations (i.e., those who propose and implement policy).

All participants were required to orally consent prior to the launch of the interview. Due to the sensitive nature of a portion of the questions, it was advised by the REB at the University of Saskatchewan to provide the officer with all interview questions prior to the scheduled interview. Although this allowed participants to review and contemplate the questions, it presented the opportunity to withdraw from participating if any questions made them uncomfortable. Confidentiality was maintained for all participants by not linking any identifying information or names within the final reports. Additionally, only the student researcher and the primary investigator had access to the raw transcripts and data file. When evaluating the data with the police informants to accomplish investigator triangulation, no officer had access to any direct data – only to the initial themes generated by the researcher (e.g., “perceived favouritism” as a hygienic component to the reward system).

In relation to the potential consequences of the study, the potential for the participants to be harmed was carefully considered. Due to a portion of the interview containing potentially sensitive questions (e.g., questions relating to stress and trauma), no direct questions were asked about specific traumas that may have occurred. The general nature of this inquiry about stress and trauma allowed the interviewee to direct the conversation, thus giving them the power to avoid such topics if they wished. To further mitigate the potential for participant harm, a cautionary notice was read to the participant before the questions were asked, to inform them that they pertain to potential stress and trauma, and that they are not obligated to answer any questions they do not wish to. After this section of inquiry, participants were reminded that they could withdraw from the interview at any point if they were feeling stressed or uncomfortable from our conversation. Last, debriefing form was provided to all participants after the commencement of the interview, which offered local mental health and/or emergency resources that they could access.

Chapter Summary

Chapter Three discussed the methodology implemented in the current research investigation. An interpretative, qualitative approach will be taken, where individual semi-structured interviews were employed to explore the sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction sources among Canadian patrol officers. A total of fifteen officers were recruited through purposive and snowball sampling techniques. Upon data analysis, a thematic analysis procedure outlined by Braun and Clarke (2006) was employed, and NVivo 12 was used for all analysis and

document organization. Specific evaluation criteria is outlined, where aspects of credibility and sincerity were explored. Last, ethical considerations made by the researcher were discussed.

Chapter Four: Results

Chapter four will discuss the different intrinsic and extrinsic conditions of patrol work that were identified. Findings were separated into factors that aligned with Herzberg's original classification, followed by the unique factors that were identified. First, five motivating factors of achievement, recognition, work itself, possibility of growth, and possibility for advancement are discussed in relation to Herzberg's original theory. Then, two unique motivators to patrol work are discussed, which include peer camaraderie and the sense of pride felt in patrol work. Second, five hygiene factors identified that relate to Herzberg's original theory are considered, such as the company police and administrative practices, interpersonal relations with coworkers, physical working conditions, salary, and job security. Following this, six unique hygiene factors for patrol work are offered, which include aspects of the reward system, effects on personal life, media relations, public relations, painful and traumatic experiences, and judicial system practices. Last, an exclusive category of two factors that count as both intrinsic and extrinsic conditions of work is proposed, which include facets of supervision and partnerships. The commencement of this chapter is concluded by a summary of the findings.

Motivating Factors of Patrol Work Related to Herzberg's Original Classification

For the most part, the motivating factors identified in the current study coincide with Herzberg's original classification of motivating factors, with the exception of responsibility, which was not found to be an intrinsic factor of job satisfaction in patrol work in the current research. The factors of achievement, recognition, the work itself, and the possibility of growth and advancement were motivating factors identified which were consistent with Herzberg's original theory. However, additional factors have been identified that may be unique to patrol officers, that is both the peer camaraderie among officers, as well as the sense of pride that they experience.

Achievement. Officers noted particular aspects of achievement that they felt contributed to their satisfaction as a patrol officer. These achievements generally revolved around an officer being able to successfully solve a crime or being able to catch the 'bad guys.' In the following example, the officer highlighted the satisfaction from being able to solve a crime: "...whether it's been help finding a missing person or missing child or help solve someone's crime that has been committed against them... that is probably the most satisfying part of the job." Further supporting this sense of achievement in relation to solving a crime, a different officer expressed

achievement by being able to complete a call from start to finish: “It’s nice because you can do something from beginning to end and that’s really rewarding I find.” As well, the following statement relates to the sense of achievement by successfully detaining criminals: “I really like to get the bad guy. I find it really satisfying when we are actually able to.” Further supporting the feelings of achievement related to criminal apprehension, one officer shared, “If there is the ability to catch someone actually in the act or track them down – literally doing a K9 track or a foot chase; that is the best adrenaline you can get.” Another officer emphasized the satisfaction she felt in the achievement of justice: “It’s satisfying when I get to lock up somebody that really deserves it.”

Recognition. Herzberg noted that recognition served as a motivating factor and could come from any source. In the current research, two main sources of recognition that contributed to an officer’s satisfaction were identified; public recognition and inter-organizational recognition. First, *public recognition* encompassed any situation where the public demonstrated appreciation, positive feedback, or verbally thanked the officer for their help. Generally, officers mentioned that they “really enjoy getting the positive feedback from the public.” To offer a specific example, one officer described a situation where he had been called to deal with a suicidal civilian who was known to police. He expressed encouraging words and support to the civilian in hopes he would seek help. Months later, the officer received an e-mail from this civilian, which thanked the officer for his role in saving his life, and that he had successfully completed treatment. The officer shared his feelings of this recognition, “when I got that e-mail from him, it was the single most satisfying thing I’ve ever done.” Another officer described his gratitude when members of the public express thanks: “I have a lot of people that come up and say ‘you know, I really appreciate everything you do and I could never do your job’ and I thank them.”

A second source of recognition that lead to satisfaction is the *inter-organizational recognition*. Officers expressed feeling more satisfied in their work when a co-worker or supervisor within the organization itself noticed a job well-done: “...and he said ‘oh ok, well maybe I would have tried this, but hey, good job – you got through the day.’ ” Moreover, officers described appreciation for supervisors or members of other units offering a “pat on the back and a discussion about the work.” This same officer described that it was satisfying when the Staff Sergeant routinely addressed the platoon and provided reasons as to why the shift was

doing good work, and to offer encouragement to keep doing such work: [the supervisor said] “this was the work that was done last night and good work and here’s why it was good work and keep it up.”

The work itself. This motivating factor was arguably the most compelling factor that presented as the strongest mode of satisfaction. Herzberg et al. (1959) noted that the work itself constituted as “the actual doing of the job or the tasks of the job as a source of good or bad feelings about it” (p. 48). In this patrol officer sample, the work itself that lead to officer job satisfaction included the dimensions of: being autonomous in carrying out their duties, the variety of tasks, interacting with the public, and the duty of driving. In relation to autonomy, officers described being particularly satisfied because carrying out their duties required little governance by others, and they were free to control their tasks. One officer summarized this idea and described it as: “in a sense, you get to be your own boss.” Further, another officer described the satisfaction he felt from the autonomy of the job, where he explained, “I kind of like the little bit of control that I have when it comes to how I drive, where I drive, how I take control of my calls, how my files go, and that kind of stuff.”

Many officers discussed being satisfied in their job in regard to the variety of duties that they were exposed to. This is supported by the following quote, where the officer expressed her enjoyment of the variety of duties while on a patrol shift:

You still obviously have to take calls for service regardless of what they are because that’s your primary role. But kind of when you have free time are you digging into drug houses? Are you looking for guns? Or are you working with sources? There’s so much time that you get to choose what you want to do.

Similarly, another officer stated that “there’s a lot of variety in patrol, you get a little bit of everything.” It was clear that officers valued the variety of tasks in their work as a satisfying element of their overall job as a patrol officer.

Interacting with the public and community was noted by several of the officers as being a satisfying component to their job. For example, one officer discussed the importance of interacting with his community and the enjoyment he received from those experiences:

I enjoy driving around and being around people... we’ve had minor hockey get ahold of us – you know, the kids are interested in seeing how hard their slapshots are because you can come out with the radar and check and see how fast the pucks are going... you enjoy

stuff like that because its being involved with community and just being part of the everyday stuff. So when you can deal with everybody on a regular basis and show people you are just another person, it's quite satisfying as far as that goes.

Lastly, satisfaction with job variety emerged as a theme among the majority of participants when discussing about the work itself. Multiple officers acknowledged their satisfaction with driving as being part of their everyday duties. One officer specifically expressed, "getting paid and getting to ride my motorcycle and still getting to do the job I love is amazing." Similarly, another officer noted that "driving fast is so much fun."

Possibility of growth. Herzberg described the possibility for growth to encapsulate feelings where the individual senses a likelihood of moving upward in an organization, or the specific ways an individual may enhance their skills. The majority of officers in this study described positive feelings about their ability to grow and enhance their skills within their organization. In specific, the opportunity for going on educative courses was common among those who endorsed their growth within the department. For example, one officer stated:

There's always e-mails coming out with different kinds of courses... whether they be courses to have in your back pocket, or just to set you up for new positions. But there is lots of opportunities to learn new tasks, new skills, and qualifications.

Many other officers also endorsed the satisfaction with being able to grow their skills with statements, such as: "there's tons of opportunities" and "there's quite a lot of opportunity to learn new things." Although there were a few officers that expressed their current inability to learn more, it appeared to be related to issues of seniority, as one officer explained: "you can put your name in for whatever courses you want, but so far I've had almost zero luck because I am not senior enough." The officers were aware of the learning opportunities and ability to grow their policing skills, but depending on the department, seniority may interfere in their short-term growth as an officer. However, this issue of seniority did not impact the overall impression of the officers' ability to grow within the department, but simply seemed to extend the timeline of that growth.

Possibility for advancement. In Herzberg's original classification system, the motivating factor of *advancement* included particular instances where an employee actually moved in status or position within an organization. As the current research is studying a sample that is the entry-level position within the organization, there was no expectation that Herzberg's

original advancement category would emerge. However, the *possibility for advancement* transpired as a theme among participants, which included the perceptions and likelihood that one would be able to advance within the police force. A number of participants described a generational shift, where higher positions would need to be filled in the coming years: “there’s a ton of guys retiring, which is leaving a lot of higher-end positions open, and those are going to need to be filled. So there are going to be a ton of opportunities for advancement.” Moreover, other participants suggested there was “definitely room for advancement if you want to do that” or suggested the possibility to move to other areas within the service: “...you might have to leave where you’re at...but there are lots of opportunities within the [service] to advance and move around.”

Unique Motivators of Patrol Work

The following section will outline two unique motivating factors of patrol work that were found in the current research, which include peer camaraderie and the sense of pride felt about being a police officer.

Peer camaraderie. The sense of peer camaraderie was viewed in the current study as being a highly significant source of job satisfaction. The majority of participants described this sense of “brotherhood” and “solidarity among officers” as being a component of their satisfaction with the job. It was common for officers to describe a sense of joined experience as being part of this element of camaraderie, as described by one officer:

You know, sometimes you go to a call and you are absolutely scared shitless. You are now facing danger. The guy right next to you – or the girl right next to you, is experiencing the same thing. So, when that particular incident is done, there is definitely a bond between you. It’s like you both went through the same thing – hell and back – been there together. ‘I relied on you, and you relied on me – we came back in one piece.’ So, there is definitely this bond that you wouldn’t have from, say someone you were working in Wal-Mart with, you know?

This section of text highlights the bond created between officers that is embedded in shared experience relating to the everyday duties of officers. This officer camaraderie, as it relates to the shared experience of the job is further emphasized by another officer:

There is a lot to be said to go to a call that you cannot explain to anybody what happened... It’s just so bizarre of what you saw, what you felt, but then you go back to

the lunchroom and you talk to your shift-worker who knows exactly what you are talking about. And you have that family that you can contact with anything about – and I think it's a good thing. It's what our kind of work needs – that kind of group solidarity.

This officer portrayed a sense of unity and solidarity between officers by sharing a common understanding of the nature of the job. It is pertinent to also acknowledge that one participant, who had recently been reassigned back into patrol, expressed that she felt this sense of camaraderie was not only unique to the entire police organization, but is specifically intensified in patrol work: “in patrol specifically, the camaraderie is like no other. You don't find that in other sections, which is good to know.”

Sense of pride. A sense of pride felt among patrol officers emerged as a theme in the current study. This sense of pride was related to an officer being able to provide assistance to citizens and being able to give back to their communities. In the example below, the officer described her feelings about helping citizens in her duties:

I am pretty jaded, even at four years. But, there is the odd shift you get a real victim, and it just kind of touches your heart a little bit. So it is kind of nice knowing that you can actually help somebody that is a real innocent victim, and it's nice to go above and beyond and feel like you even made twenty minutes worth of a difference.

This quotation emphasizes the officer's emotion towards helping a citizen in need, the feeling that she was able to make a difference in the lives of others, and how those dynamics contributed to her own positive feelings of satisfaction in her job. Moreover, other officers noted similar sentiments, “I want to know that I'm making a difference in keeping people safe in the city that I grew up in.”

Hygiene Factors of Patrol Work Related to Herzberg's Original Classification

All hygiene factors that were originally included in Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory were found in the current study, where officers view these extrinsic conditions as dissatisfying. The extrinsic factors of company policy and administrative practices, interpersonal relations with coworkers, physical working conditions, salary, and job security, all contributed to officer dissatisfaction when these conditions were not maintained by the organization. Furthermore, additional factors were also identified in the current research that may serve as unique extrinsic factors, such as: the reward system, effects on personal life, media relations, public relations, painful and traumatic experiences, and judicial system practices. A visual

summary of the hygiene factors found, including their respective subthemes, as they relate to the motivation-hygiene theory can be viewed below in Figure 4-1.



Figure 4-1. Visual summary of the hygiene factors found that relate to the original classification of hygiene factors in Herzberg’s (1959) motivation-hygiene theory.

Company policy and administrative practices. Many sub-themes emerged from the frustrations relating to company policy and administrative practices within the officer’s police departments, such as: issues with policy, excessive paperwork, and having civilians as part of decision-making processes when it affected their everyday tasks.

Policy issues. Policy issues arose as a significant source of dissatisfaction in different ways. In the original motivation-hygiene theory, Herzberg emphasized policy as being a hygiene factor that held the potential for harmful outcomes of company policies, such as personnel

policies. Officers in this study were not dissatisfied with having policy, as they referred to it as being a helpful guideline when they needed direction. However, participants noted that policy interfered with an officer's satisfaction when there was an implementation of ineffective safety policies, when policy was perceived as being excessive, or when policy existed that limited an officer's discretion.

Officers were particularly bothered when policy was implemented that inevitably risked their physical safety, or the safety of civilians. One officer described their dissatisfaction with a policy that disallowed an officer to shoot at a vehicle, even if that vehicle was being used as a weapon to harm the officer:

Just ridiculous policies – like for us, there's a policy in place for us saying that we cannot shoot at a vehicle. Even if the person is trying to run us over... That's the kind of rules we are facing right now.

Another common dissatisfaction with policy that interfered with officer safety was related to pursuit policies. Several participants acknowledged their department had a “no-chase” policy, where they were instructed to not pursue cars that were speeding excessively. One officer described his fears of abiding by this “no-chase” policy, and then finding out it would have resulted in harming civilians:

I'm just very scared one day that I'm going to pull over and let this car go when I do it with a slightly elevated risk at the beginning, but then I am going to find out half an hour later this person on the other end of the city killed a family.... So if somebody said ‘why?’ – we said it all the time – ‘it's policy’ and that's the answer.

The majority of officers were also dissatisfied with the amount of policy when it appeared to be in excess. They were also greatly dissatisfied at the amount of changes to policy that occurred. One officer described his frustration with the sheer number of policies and the implications it can have on his career:

There's policies about policies I think. If you look at our manual, it's so thick. The frustration is you are expected to know it, but there's so much. And if you screw up, you could get breach of policy charges. There is a lot of policy.

Moreover, another officer elaborated on her inability to know all of the different policies, “there is so much policy and procedure. Would I like to sit down and read it all so I can be well-versed in it? Absolutely. Do I have the time? Nope. Not even a little bit.” In regard to the amount of

change that occurs within policy, multiple officers cited their dissatisfaction with this. Generally, officers felt that it was “impossible to keep up” with the changes, or the situation where “everyday we get an e-mail about policy changing.” One officer specifically illuminated the sheer amount of policy change by describing the following scenario: “If you were going to sit there and read something every time this policy changed, you would never leave the station.” Another officer described a situation where her supervisor addressed a policy change at the beginning of a shift:

Last week we got a lecture on what we are going to do with vehicle pursuits, and as they were talking they said ‘well, don’t really listen to this one, because next week it’s about to change.’ So the fact that we were even given a lecture on how to do something when in seven days it will be different – why are we even going over this? And then yes, it did change this week. But I guarantee it’s going to change in a month.

Excessive paperwork. Officers were in agreement that paperwork was an expected part of the job, and obviously necessary in their line of work. However, it was not until the perception that the paperwork became excessive and/or redundant. Most of the officers were in agreement that paperwork was excessive, and generally described themselves as being “bombarded with paperwork” or described the amount of paperwork as “out of control.” One officer described his frustration with the duplication of forms:

It seems like every call we are going to is a report and paperwork. A form. They have to have a form for every department so it’s just a lot of duplication; a lot of duplication and forms. That is probably my biggest number one stress... because our job is meant to be on the road, not filling out new forms.

Another officer not only described her similar frustrations with the duplication of paperwork, but also the impact that this duplication of paperwork had on her overall efficiency:

Something that should take you ten minutes ends up taking you an hour because you have to do your full report, and then you have to do this form, and then you have to do that form, and then you have to make your notes. You’re essentially doing your report four times on four different platforms.

Similarly, another officer echoed the same impact on job efficiency: “there’s more and more and more forms. And they are not to make us do our job better – it just slows us down.”

Civilian decision-making. A common dissatisfaction among officers that related to company policy and administration was letting civilian members, whether members of the public, or civilians employed by the department, make important decisions related to their work. In a specific example, one officer expressed her frustration with having civilians make decisions about the essential accessories placed in vehicles that they use:

The radios are underneath the computer, so when you are trying to look at it, you are essentially hitting parked cars because you can't see the radio. Stupid stuff like that.

But it's the people that are putting them in who don't actually do the job, so what do they know? And honestly, what do they care? So that is dissatisfying.

Another officer echoed similar frustrations with the lack of proper vehicles for the weather in Canada, where civilians had leaned in on decisions of those vehicle purchases, "now we only have front wheel drive cars... there is not a police officer involved in the purchasing of police cars." Officers also offered more general statements relating to this issue of civilian decision-making by stating "I just don't think people that haven't done the job should be making these types of decisions" or "there is no foresight because they are not police officers. They have no idea what we need to do our jobs."

Interpersonal relations with co-workers. The majority of officers in the current study remained content with their coworkers and enjoyed the people whom they worked with, overall. It is important to note that in this section, I refer to co-workers as other officers working in patrol alongside each other, not partnerships between officers. The dissatisfying elements as it relates specifically to the unique partnership dynamic will be discussed later in the chapter.

Surprisingly, only one theme emerged in relation to dissatisfying aspects of coworkers, which was having to work in districts with others who had a poor work ethic. This was dissatisfying because an individual's poor work ethic affected not only their own performance, but the work load of other officers:

That affects me – when I come into work and I see the person who works my area when I am not there isn't doing as many calls as me, isn't doing the investigations and getting the work done and leaving a lot of the calls in the active que waiting for me to get in...I can't work on mine because I am picking up more and more files from going to all of the calls.

Furthermore, one officer described how it personally affected his own work morale when having a coworker with a poor work ethic, "...you're in turn doing more work because they're not doing work – it kind of destroys your own motivation to try hard..."

Physical working conditions. Overwhelmingly, the state of the physical working conditions presented itself as one of the biggest dissatisfactions for officers in the current research. Various reasons contributed to this dissatisfaction, such as the condition of the patrol cars, the inadequacies of the protective equipment, and the problems with the use-of-force equipment (e.g., guns, Tasers).

Cars. The majority of participants indicated some form of dissatisfaction when it came to the patrol cars they had to use. A specific dissatisfaction with the patrol cars was the lack of proper cars to drive in the Canadian winter conditions. As one officer indicated at her service, "...you couldn't even get out of the parking lot in the winter." A different officer, citing the same style of patrol vehicle (Ford Crown Victoria), expressed shock at the use of this vehicle in the profession: "...it is beyond me why that ever became a police vehicle because you can get stuck going up a hill that has a 1% incline." Another officer discussed his dissatisfaction with the patrol cars because they were worn out and lacked essential features:

That has got to be the single biggest problem of a patrol officer. That is our office. We drive around in our office all day long... And they just don't replace them. They don't give us the equipment. We're patrol officers and we are expected to give our tickets, but half of our cars don't even have radar.

Similarly, one officer discussed the safety concerns with not having an essential security feature inside the cars:

Somebody bought us a bunch of patrol cars for us that didn't have the silent partner – that blockade between the front and the back. So that was just ridiculous, right? We had people spitting and kicking. You can't exactly drive.

Other officers not only emphasized that essential equipment was missing, but that the interior set-up of patrol cars contributed to physical ailments: "the taller people are always uncomfortable. Everybody feels like they have back issues at the end of the day." This issue was discussed by another officer, who expressed the inadequate placement of equipment inside of the car:

Everything is ergonomically unsound... Like how the computers are set up in the car. It

frustrates me beyond words. If I am in the car and I can't bring the computer close to me, I am leaning over all day.

Other general issues with the cars arose during the interview process, such as the lack of cars available for use, and the small interior of the cars – which remained a problem for officers of taller stature.

Inadequate protective equipment. The protective equipment available to officers in Canada have shown to be concerning in the present study. In relation to the bulletproof vests that are issued to officers, some officers expressed their uncertainty that it would actually save their life if ever shot, “we have the bare minimum soft-armour. It will stop, maybe, a quarter of handguns out there.” Another officer expressed similar concern with the vests, where she described the wariness of its adequacy for patrol work:

At the end of the day it's pretty much only going to protect me from anything a handgun would shoot, or like a .22 or something. Most guys have sawed-off shotguns or something of higher caliber, so is it really going to save me? I don't know.

Some officers were fortunate enough to have the option of upgrading their bulletproof vests, but the service required them to pay out-of-pocket to do so: “If you want to get an extra plate in your vest for better protection for different grains of bullets that could puncture your vest, you have to pay for it out of your own pocket.” This was a dissatisfying aspect for one officer, as she felt that the service should be responsible for providing her the necessary life-saving equipment that she was mandated by policy to wear, “...the fact that you have to pay extra money to get it so that it will stop bigger rounds is just stupid.” When it came to other protective equipment concerns, some officers noted the inadequacy of their weather wear. One officer described a scenario in which she would have to stand outside for a prolonged period of time without the proper gear, “...we get mitts. So let's say we're on a tactical call, our fingers will freeze. We don't have proper gloves...to me it's bananas, why wouldn't any patrol officer get good gloves?” Another officer brought up inadequacies of gloves, specifically with the number of gloves they are issued per year, “we get one a year. Which is ridiculous because I can't tell you how many times my gloves get covered in blood... So if you got covered in blood on a nightshift, the people who give you new gloves aren't working.” Generally, in terms of equipment, some officers outright stated their dissatisfaction with the service for not being able to provide the

proper protective equipment that was vital to carrying out their duties. For example, one officer stated, “the service has failed me, that equipment – life saving equipment.”

Use-of-force equipment. When it came to uses-of-force, dissatisfaction among officers varied. A handful of officers described their dissatisfaction with the Taser, which is a type of electroshock weapon that shoots barbs in order to cause brief neuromuscular incapacitation. The officers mostly described their dissatisfaction with the Taser because of its unreliability, “...but quite often, it doesn’t work. It’s not reliable” or the fact that there were not enough Tasers to supply everyone on the platoon, “one night we actually ran out of Tasers. I had to wait 40 minutes to get a Taser.” Additionally, officers also mentioned that they did not feel certain uses-of-force were necessary to carry, such as the baton or pepper spray: “there’s not very many instances where you use that and it’s just extra weight you’re carrying around all the time.” Likewise, another officer stated similar issues: “...our belts should be pared down a little. The idea that I will still have a baton and pepper spray – the only thing I’ve ever used my baton for is for smashing out car windows.”

Salary. It is pertinent to note that Herzberg mentioned that salary constitutes as all situations where compensation may play a role. All participants stated that they were satisfied with their current salaries (i.e., their paycheque), and felt that they made an adequate amount of money. However, many officers were dissatisfied with their sick leave entitlement and their workers compensation benefits. The majority of officers noted that they were eligible to receive sick time, but they only received eight hours per month – which did not match their 12 hour shifts they were required to work: “so if I work a dayshift, that’s 12 hours and I call in sick, then I am using eight hours plus four hours of another day.” As for worker’s compensation, it is difficult to analyze satisfaction relating to benefits of workers compensation as it varies between provinces. One officer described a situation where he was on duty and was rear-ended by a vehicle while he was parked on the side of the road. He noted that he missed two weeks of work and needed medical intervention to help his back injuries. He discussed the stress it caused him during that time: “we don’t have any sort of program where we get a top-up in pay for when we get injured on the job... I made 60% and that really worked out to be much less than that.” Apart from these types of incidents, most officers reported satisfaction with their salary and benefit packages.

Job security. Most officers indicated that they felt secure in their job as a patrol officer. One officer in particular expressed her comfortability by stating that, “job security is huge. There is always crime.” However, a common theme that emerged in relation to job security was the worry about unfounded public complaints against an officer, as one officer described:

It is a dangerous job, but the dangerous part is not being killed. The dangerous part is being sued or charged criminally, because there is a lot of people out there that want to do that. Unfortunately, there is a lot of frivolous complaints that come into the police and our service doesn't do a good enough job in the end following up.

This nervousness about frivolous public complaints was also described in terms of negatively affecting an officer's pay: “...if somebody decides to make a complaint for whatever reason just because they want to, even if there's no substance to it - you could possibly put off without pay.”

Unique Hygiene Factors of Patrol Work

A total of six unique hygiene factors were identified in the current research. These unique factors generally include concepts relating to the reward system, the effects on personal life, issues with both media relations and public relations, the painful and traumatic experiences endured as an officer, as well as common judicial system practices experienced by officers. A visual summary of the unique hygiene factors found within patrol work, including their respective subthemes, can be viewed below in Figure 4-2.

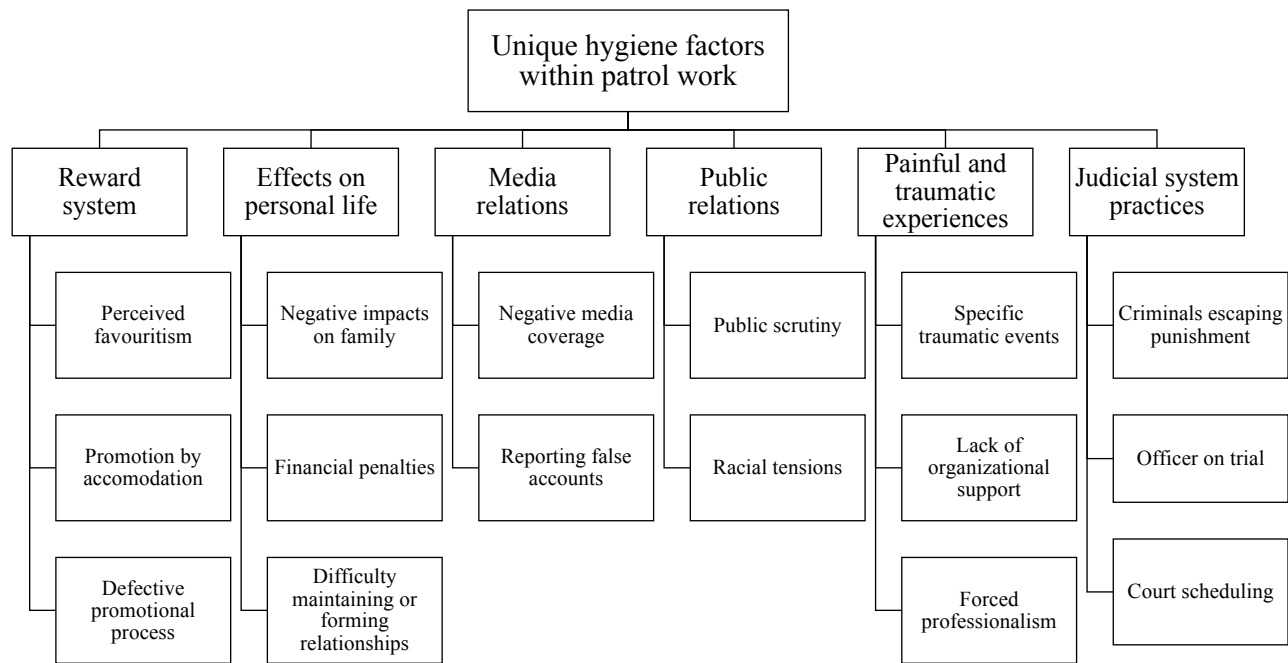


Figure 4-2. Visual summary of the unique hygiene factors of patrol work found in the current study.

Reward system. In the current study, perceived favouritism as a function of the reward system was supported as a hygiene factor. Additionally, there was a perception that promotions were given because of accommodation, not merit. Last, officers also stated their concerns that the promotional process was defective.

Perceived favouritism. Many officers felt that favouritism existed within patrol, and that promotions or rewards were at least partially based on that. Some officers merely stated that favouritism existed, “It’s definitely who you know” and that, “there is lots of favouritism that is very prevalent in police services.” One officer offered a detailed account of this perception of favouritism by referring to the dynamic between high-level executive staff and promotional rewards:

When the names of sergeant come down the wire they make calls to inspec’s and say, ‘hey do you know this guy? What do you think?’ kind of thing, right. So I am thinking it’s not truly based again, on how you do your job, or merit. It’s swayed a little bit to ‘who do you know’ still.

Promotion by accommodation. Numerous officers described situations of promotions that were based on accommodation, not because the officer deserved the promotion. In particular, it was perceived that when the service wants to hide an employee, they promote them to remove them from the street:

The people who they are trying to hide, they will promote them to whatever and then make kid of a specialized position solely for them... they're making \$120,000.00 a year because they really sucked at their job and they need to be hidden.

Similarly, another officer noted similar views, where a co-worker may have been promoted because the service was unable to get rid of them:

There is specifically someone who was recently promoted who I think should have been fired... But instead of getting rid of them, they found it easier to promote them and then hide them somewhere. I think we have a lot of hidden people.

Furthermore, one officer described her bewilderment as to why certain people are promoted, and this view is shared with her fellow officers, "...we kind of joke sometimes – if you want to get promoted, you need to do something really wrong. We have people who get promoted who do weird things."

Defective promotional processes. Alternative to witnessing promotions that result from accommodating other employees for unworthy reasons, many officers had an inherent dissatisfaction with the structure of promotional process itself. When discussing with officers if they believed promotions were based on merit, or the deservingness of a promotion, many officers believed that there was an inherent problem with the promotional process applied in police organizations. Namely, most of the officers cited that one's ability to be promoted was based merely on an exam score, as one officer noted: "...it is based on your exam scores, and so the merit has gone out the window..." Similarly, another officer explained, "...you're either promotable or not... basically they're testing your ability to write a test." Another officer reflected on his view of what the promotional process was like prior to his employment with the police, in which he stated: "the way I always thought it would be, is that the best officers are the ones that get promoted. But it's not like that." Similarly, a female officer described her perception of what the police organization values in a promotable officer: "we value seniority, we value test-taking ability, and we value being able to promote yourself in an interview."

Effects on personal life. The effects that work has on an officer's personal life, in one way or another, was cited by the majority of participants in the current study. The common themes that emerged among the officers included the negative impacts on family, the difficulty maintaining or forming new relationships, and the potential financial penalties an officer might face.

Negative impacts on family. The most frequently cited reason for work causing a negative impact on the family comes from scheduling disputes. Officers noted feeling dissatisfied because they regularly missed important family events, as one officer described, "we miss a lot of stuff. We miss family birthdays, Halloween, Christmas, Thanksgiving..." Similarly, another officer conveyed that it was not only his regular duties that interfered with family time, but also having to appear at mandatory court proceedings on his days off: "my days off I want to be with my family, my wife, my dogs... I don't want to be getting up a five o'clock to go into court for nine." Another impact on family that emerged was how the psychological harm on the officer, that was accumulated from work, contributed to family dysfunction. One officer described a frustrating scenario where the organization was not helping with the psychological sufferings that come with the job, and how it can impact family:

You know, 'I can't pay my bills, I got to go to work, my family can't afford to eat because I can't deal with my shit, but I've got no support at work because they are not paying me to stay home but not giving me the help to get better and back to work.'

Another officer echoed similar scenarios that he has witnessed among his coworkers as it related to psychological harm that caused family dysfunction:

We're expected to be these knights in the blue uniform and we're supposed to just bury the emotions, but you can't... I've known guys on the job that have, and it costed them their marriages, their family, their houses, whatever.

Some officers noted the negative impacts from the job which relate to causing tensions within the family. For example, one officer described her frustration with her parents who argue with her about police-related issues:

I will lay out a situation and they just think it's unbelievable that the police would respond in such a way, or they completely disagree just because they are Jo-Schmo and they don't have experience with it. That has definitely caused some tension in the family.

Financial penalties. The financial penalties that negatively affected officers' personal lives mainly involved the concern for potential officer investigations and the reduced pay that came with being injured on the job. One officer described a scenario where a public complaint could lead to an officer being put off without pay while an investigation proceeds, "if there is an investigation, you could be off without pay. Which could lead people into losing everything." In relation to workplace injury, another officer highlighted the financial stress an officer could face as a result of an injury: "...you go on workers comp because of the injury you sustained at work. So instead of the stress of not having sick time, not getting paid at all – you have the stress of only making 60%."

Difficulty maintaining or forming new relationships. Another emergent theme related to how patrol work interfered with personal relationships outside of the job itself. In the current investigation, officers explained how their chosen profession affected the number of friends they had, as one officer described, "the hardest thing for me that impacts – your circle of friends definitely gets smaller in police...there is no question. It's just the way it is." Another officer highlighted the tensions with his own family members as a result of working as a police officer, "I've had family members that have... disowned me because of my chosen profession, because they smoke the dope or they've driven drunk." Similarly, another officer discussed her skepticism when meeting new people because of her experiences with people as a patrol officer:

You're always just kind of skeptical because a lot of people appear to be nice, or appear to be normal, but have this whole story you never know about. So I think it just makes you untrusting and extra skeptical of anyone you're bringing into your own life.

Media relations. Officers in the current study had many dissatisfactions as it related to the media. Interestingly, officers noted that they actually maintained good relationships with smaller, local news outlets and the reporters employed by those small news outlets. However, officers were greatly dissatisfied with other larger news outlets (e.g., Canadian Broadcasting Corporation; CBC). These dissatisfactions with media related to the overall negative media coverage on police officers, the media focus on sensationalism, as well as when media reported false accounts of incidents.

Negative media coverage. When asked about their perceptions or relations with the media, many officers described their dissatisfaction with the media as it related to constantly being portrayed negatively in news coverage. One officer noted his frustration that the media is

polar when it comes to reporting police-related news stories, “unfortunately for policing you always hear the bad, you never hear the good news stories... we are all corrupt and we are all terrible. That is very difficult to deal with constantly. It’s frustrating.” Another officer described the dissatisfaction he feels when the media filters a police-related event to sound overly negative:

Anytime there is a negative interaction with the police, where a member of the public gets hurt – just the way the media always portrays it. It’s always a negative thing. It’s never something like ‘an officer was forced to defend himself today, thankfully he is ok, and the suspect was fatally injured.’ It always makes it sound like we are in the wrong. Similarly, another officer noted similar sentiments, “the negative media attention, that really, really frustrates me to no end. The media does not give us a fair shake. You are always portrayed in a negative light and the full story never comes out.”

Media focus on sensationalism. Patrol officers in the current investigation harboured negative views on the practice of media sensationalism. Specifically, many officers cited that they believed the media only cared about one thing: money and viewership; and they were willing to burn the police in order to do so. As one officer described, “...if they can generate more viewer basis on their end by tarnishing us, then I think they will.” Another officer generally stated that “the media loves to sensationalize anything negative about the police.” A different officer noted his frustration with the media when they proceeded to publish a distasteful video of a police officer had been shot, “...and they push it right to a limit where they even publicized an officer getting CPR, you know, you just don’t do that.”

Reporting false accounts. Officers reported being very frustrated by the inaccuracies of news stories that the media reports. One officer reported, “they are not even reporting facts, they are swaying those facts or whatever just to make the story. Because I know what happened, because I was actually at some of these calls, and that’s not what happened.” Furthermore, another officer stated that the media was unconcerned with gathering the real facts of a story, but was merely concerned with quick turnaround:

So media, they don’t have the knowledge. It’s right to print, right onto their online papers as fast as possible, without knowing everything. But that is the way the media is. I have no respect whatsoever for the media at all.

Last, one officer explained his frustration when the media reports inaccurate information, “when

they get something wrong, my god can they do a wonderful job of really getting something wrong.”

Public relations. Officers cited different dissatisfying factors as it related to the public, which included the ongoing public scrutiny that officers face, as well as frustrations officers have with racial tensions.

Public scrutiny. A major dissatisfaction for officers that relates to public scrutinization is its interference with police policies and practices. For example, one officer noted that he was granted an external carrier to wear (a carrier for the bulletproof vest that is worn on the outside of the police uniform, instead of underneath), and that it offered much more comfortability for him. However, he was facing public backlash where the public was commenting “that’s militarization!” Additionally, he also noted that he felt safer when he had the option to use a rifle as a use of force option for high-intensity calls but noted “I can’t carry a rifle at work because people don’t want us to have rifles, because they look scary.” Other dissatisfactions as it relates to public scrutiny include public judgment in an officer’s decision. One officer noted, “it’s difficult for people outside of policing who don’t understand – it’s too easy for them to jump to conclusions.” Another officer stated her perception of the public dissecting officer split-second decisions when in difficult situations, “everyone just jumps to ‘well, why did he shoot him? Why didn’t he do that?’ ... it’s a split-second decision with major consequences and it’s quite easy to armchair-quarterback – four years later.”

Racial tensions. The current research generally aimed to investigate racial relations as it related to satisfying or dissatisfying aspects of police work. Overall, officers did not cite any overwhelming issues with any one particular racial or specialized group; however, officers did note ongoing frustrations with being condemned because of the uniform that they wore. Some officers described scenarios where racial issues were brought up during a police intervention. An officer noted:

A traffic stop for example – you’d get pegged with a laser at 500m away, and they say ‘well you just pulled me over because I am black.’ No, I couldn’t even see you at 500m away because you are going 120km in a 70km. And then the window goes down an inch.

Similarly, another officer stated:

The odd time the race card gets pulled, like they'll pull the race card like 'oh you're just arresting me because I am Aboriginal' that kind of thing... but me, the end of the day, it doesn't matter what colour of skin or what ethnic group.

Another officer commented on the issue between Caucasian and Aboriginal peoples, where she expressed frustration with this tense relationship:

There's so many issues with First Nations and their relationship with police and just Canadians in general or Caucasians in general. So a lot of times you just get called out for being white or racist just because you are white and a cop, I guess.

Last, a different officer expressed her perceptions on difficult tensions between Aboriginals and police officers, "I think it's just unfortunately culture and history and all of the rest. I don't personally feel any difficulties policing them [Aboriginals] at all."

Painful and traumatic experiences. The theme of painful and traumatic experiences emerged as a significant dissatisfying factor for patrol officers. This theme included the situations the officer had to endure in relation to specific traumas, the lack of organizational support when trauma occurred, and the feelings of "forced professionalism," where the officer felt that they had to hide their emotions during difficult situations.

Specific traumatic events. Calls for service that involved children, dealing with deceased bodies, carrying out death notifications, or officer-involved shootings were cited as the lowest points of patrol work. No specific details of these recollections will be offered, out of respect, but one officer noted that "we see people at their absolute worst and we see things that people don't even believe are true. We carry that forever. I think that is dissatisfying."

Lack of organizational support. While some officers noted feeling like they had adequate access to psychological services and debriefing interventions, the "old school" atmosphere was frequently cited, where officers reported feeling weak if they were disturbed from trauma that they encountered on duty. As one officer described, "I hate the fact that the service is still very much a 'sweep it under the rug' and if you're telling guys at work you have it [PTSD], you're weak." Moreover, a different officer also described this impression of feeling unsupported by his superiors, "I feel very much like I don't have any support from my bosses. It feels very much like you are on your own." Another officer expressed his dissatisfaction about the access to psychological services within the organization, "we don't have anything right now in place at all, so at this point, it's dissatisfying that we don't have anything in place." Last,

some officers explained their discontent with the debriefing interventions offered by their service, where it was either non-existent, or happened inconsistently:

They only have just a debrief amongst the team sometimes, and that's rare. But I think that after traumatic – even collisions that we go to – they should have a mandatory group go for a sit down or meeting to check in and go over things. Which I have never had in 13 years.

Forced professionalism. The patrol officers in the current investigation felt a sense of “forced professionalism,” which constituted as situations where they had to attend highly emotional and/or traumatic calls for service, yet performed their duties in a responsible and civil manner. One officer described this feeling as, “you are expected to remain calm, control a scene, figure out what happened, while at the same time witnessing something potentially traumatic.” Another officer described a situation where he battled with his emotional composure while trying to also do his job:

There are certain calls that we go to where deep down we want to completely lash out at the people that we are dealing with. Emotionally and physically. But, because of our professionalism and our responsibilities, we can't, and we kind of got to take a step back and do our job. Which means that we don't have the time to evaluate or address the feelings that we are having at the time.

Judicial system practices. Officers discussed certain frustrations with the judicial system when serving their duties. First, officers felt discouraged when arrestees whom they've charged appear to “escape” punishment. Second, officers felt that when they went to defend their charges in court, it felt as if they were on trial, instead of the accused being on trial. Last, officers felt dissatisfied with the inconvenient scheduling practices that the judicial system employs.

Criminals escaping punishment. When officers felt that they had put in a substantial amount of effort in laying a strong charge on the accused, it was dissatisfying for officers when the accused was let off:

You lay a charge and you feel like you do you due diligence, and you work really hard to do something and they stay the charges based on a quick whim... Even though these people admit they were drinking, admit they were driving, but for some reason there wasn't that one box checked off... it's just unbelievable to me.

Similar feelings were felt by other officers who were discouraged after dealing with the same civilian multiple times, where it lead to feelings of continuous unending cycle, “sometimes when you’ve got guys that they’ve been in the system a ton, you’ve dealt with them all the time, and then they [judges] just kind of let them off with whatever in court, and it drives you bananas.”

Officer on trial. Officers cited frustrations with going to court and feeling that they were on trial, particularly with impaired driving charges. One officer expressed his thoughts on testifying on an impaired driving charge:

If they get a lawyer and fight it – they’re not on trial, we’re on trial...they sit there and pick you apart and find out what you did, or what took a minute too long for you to do, you know? You waited an extra thirty seconds to give him his rights to counsel so we should throw the whole thing out. Not that he was hammered behind the wheel driving – that’s irrelevant.

Similarly, another officer described comparable experiences with having judicial frustrations with impaired driving charges. She noted, “an example would be an impaired. Anytime you get an impaired driver, the defense lawyer will literally eat you alive if they are half decent.”

Court scheduling. The way the judicial system schedules officers to appear in court appeared to be a dissatisfying element for officers. Generally, officers discussed being frustrated with being scheduled at inconvenient times, such as between their nightshifts. As one officer expressed, “going between nights – I don’t think should be allowed. That’s kind of like asking the prosecutor to come in and testify at 2:00AM, which everyone would laugh at. But why is it ok for us to do?” Another officer stated similar issues with court between nightshifts, “I’ve worked a nightshift and I get off at four in the morning and then I have to go to court at nine. That would be probably the biggest one [dissatisfaction].”

Similarly, an officer described his frustration with constantly being scheduled for court on his days off, where it interferes with his time with his family:

By the time I get into the down town with traffic to show up and have the other defendant or the person who got the ticket to not show up... Or I have it sometimes that I have morning and afternoon court on a day off – so I’m at court all day... I want to go home and spend time with my family.

Dual Factors: Elements of Patrol Work

The following factors identified in the current study, supervisors and partnerships, are categorized as dual factors. These factors are labeled as being dual because both of these elements had the capacity to either greatly contribute to the satisfaction of patrol officers, or played a detrimental in their overall motivation and satisfaction.

Supervision. Supervision had the capability to constitute as either as a motivator or hygiene factor. In the current study, officers indicated that they were satisfied with their supervision when they had superiors who emphasized open communication, when supervisors were seen to support the officer and the patrol unit, and when supervisors were seen as resourceful. In contrast, officers were dissatisfied with supervision when they felt controlled, unsupported, or had the perception that executive officers had lost touch with the front line.

Satisfaction with supervision. First, a common theme among officers was that they valued a supervisory relationship when the supervisor was viewed as approachable and encouraged open communication. As one officer stated, "...very free and open to talk to you... you know you can talk to him whenever you want. He's very open with everything..." Notably, another officer also described a similar relationship style with a supervisor he valued, "...and you get good sergeants who you go to with personal advice is you are dealing with something – like a moral issue or ethic issue." Second, officers generally valued a supervisor who they felt "fought" for patrol members, or just overall supported them. One officer described his feelings of satisfaction because of a new Chief of Police that had started:

That is very satisfying to have a Chief that is fighting for you. Because for a long period of time, I never got that feeling. I mean, this is seven years I've been in the job.

This is the very first time that I feel like any Chief ever cared about patrol.

Similarly, another officer stated his positive feelings towards his supervisor because he felt supported in his role as a patrol officer, "when [name] was in – phenomenal – because you knew if something happened, he had your back." Last, it was satisfying for officers to have a supervisor whom they viewed as a helpful resource. As one officer stated, "It's the one thing about emergency response – the sooner you get your information, the better you are." When this officer discussed the usefulness of having a supervisor who could answer his questions efficiently, he expressed contentment:

It's very good for me to be able to tap into that [expertise]. But not being able to tap into

that would probably be frustrating to me, because if I ask the questions to some of the other supervisors on my shift, I don't think I'd get as good an answer.

Dissatisfaction with supervision. First, numerous officers discussed their dissatisfaction with supervisors who were controlling or tried to micromanage the officer's work. One officer described how micromanagement is dissatisfying because it disables the officer to make their own decisions on the front line:

Well, one is micromanagement. The way policing is going right now, the ability to make a decision on the front line is being drastically reduced because the people above you – the supervisors – have to follow a certain guideline, and they're following it to the letter. Another officer explained his thoughts on why micromanagement does not, and cannot, work among patrol officers:

You can't micromanage police officers – that's why we're police officers – that's one of the key points of becoming a police officer, as you get hired you're capable of working independently and you're capable of making those decisions and not having a baby sitter. Furthermore, another officer explained her thoughts on how micromanagement is not a helpful form of criticism, and how it is a detriment to the force as a whole: "it depends what Staff Sergeant you get. Ours micromanages to the absolute extreme. So, there is constructive criticism, and then there is just micromanaging and fucking up morale." Second, officers were also displeased with supervisors who were regularly disengaged from patrol work or who appeared to be unsupportive. One officer described a disengaged supervisor that he had, where his leadership style was very dissatisfying, "he was mentally checked out and he spent his day on the couch in the lunchroom watching TV instead of actually supervising his constables." Another officer described similar instances, where his sergeants did not make an appearance on the front lines with the rest of the patrol officers, "some sergeants come in and they don't really do anything. They spend 12 hours in the office." As it related to unsupportive supervisors, officers tended to describe these superiors as not caring about their well-being as officers. One officer talked about his feelings of isolation about the lack of support, "I feel very much like I don't have any support from my bosses. It feels very much like you are on your own." Similarly, a different officer described his Chief of Police, where the Chief had many other vested interests in the service and did not appear concerned about patrol:

It affects us on patrol when we don't get the resources to do our job because we didn't

feel he cared about us at all. Having someone like that up there where you feel they don't care about you, that was very dissatisfying.

The last common dissatisfaction as it related to the nature of supervision was the feeling that the executive-level officers (e.g., Inspector, Superintendent, Deputy Chief, Chief), had lost touch with the front line. One officer pointed out, "once you get higher than sergeant, it is a whole new level where it's kind of – they almost lost touch with the frontline workers to be honest."

Similarly, another officer described high ranking officers as only being concerned with numbers, "they are more concerned with statistics and stuff like that. You're a generator of statistics. That's all. That's what it feels like." Moreover, another officer provided insight into her perception of disconnectedness by time of executive officers:

I think the higher-ups are completely disconnected with what is going on. Some people haven't been on the streets since the 80's, and they are delegating how we are supposed to do our jobs. Which, policing in the 80's and policing in 2018 are a little bit different... It's almost you want to take them on a ride-along and say 'welcome back to policing.'

Partnerships. Another dual factor that emerged from the current research investigation was the partnerships between patrol members. It is important to note that coworkers and partnerships are inherently different. Coworkers would constitute as other patrol officers who work at the same service, or merely just work on the same shift as they do. Partnerships specifically refer to the assigned officers who work together, who are usually assigned to the same patrol car. Partnerships that serve to satisfy officers were typically described as being trusting and having a friendship with them outside of the workplace. In contrast, the officers who described their partnerships as being dissatisfying tended to discuss their partners hazardous behaviour, or when the partner had an overly aggressive policing style.

Satisfaction with partnerships. First, trust was identified as a satisfying feature of a partnership, or as one officer described, "complete and utter trust." A different officer discussed that it was very satisfying for him when he and his partner could know what one another was thinking without verbally announcing their thoughts at calls, "knowing what each other was thinking without having to say a lot. Going to calls – the partners I had good connections with – I knew they had my back and I knew – they knew I had their back." Second, officers who were satisfied with their partnerships also often cited that they also had friendships with their partners outside of the workplace. As one officer explained, "...the partnership was with my good friend

and we got along well. We have kids the same age, and it really boosted wanting to go to work, it kind of made it easier to do and more doable.”

Dissatisfaction with partnerships. The officers who discussed being dissatisfied with their partnerships often mentioned that they did not like the hazardous or risky behaviour of their partner. For example, one officer discussed a partner who had a lack of safety and awareness, and noted there was “a little more risk working with that person.” Similarly, another officer ended a partnership because of a lack of trust, “...so that got to the point where I went and said I can’t ride with him because I can’t trust him.” A female officer described a partnership she once had where she was dissatisfied with having to be partnered with him: “...it was awful. He was extremely lazy. I didn’t trust him overly. He wasn’t very safe.” Second, officers were also dissatisfied with their partnerships when they were matched with someone who had an overly aggressive policing style, compared to their own. One officer described his experience with an aggressive partner that led to his dissatisfaction:

He would purposely try to go and pick fights with people just for the sake of picking fights... and that’s just not my type of policing and that really frustrated me and caused me a lot of anxiety to even have to sit in the car or work with him.

Chapter Summary

Chapter four discussed both the intrinsic and extrinsic factors that were found to exist among patrol officers as it related to their satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the work. More specifically, the factors of achievement, recognition, work itself, possibility of growth, possibility for advancement, company policy and administrative practices, coworkers, physical working conditions, salary, and job security were all discussed within the framework of Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene theory. However, the current research found additional intrinsic and extrinsic factors of the work that are also inherently important to assessing job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, such as: peer camaraderie, sense of pride, the reward system, effects on personal life, media relations, public relations, painful and traumatic experiences, and judicial system practices. Last, unique “dual factors” were identified, which constituted as both an intrinsic or extrinsic factor, which included the dimensions of supervision and partnerships.

Chapter Five: Discussion

This chapter begins by revisiting the research questions followed by a discussion about the interpretation of data that provide answers to these questions. This chapter also aims to reflect on not only the strengths of the current research, but also the potential weaknesses. Future directions to researchers will be offered throughout the limitations section. Additionally, the implications of this research for police departments will be considered. Last, this chapter will commence by offering a summary of the discussion.

Evaluation of the Research Questions

To remind the reader, one purpose of the research was to investigate the extent of content underrepresentation of currently used job satisfaction measures, particularly when applied to a police context. Another primary purpose of the research was to identify components of job satisfaction that might be unique to patrol officers in Canada. Last, the main objective of the research was to provide the qualitative data that is necessary to provide a foundation for the future development of a patrol job satisfaction measure. The four main research questions that drove the investigation, and their overall evaluations, are discussed in the following sections.

Evaluation of research question #1. The first research question sought to understand if patrol officers in Canada obtained job satisfaction or dissatisfaction from all facets of commonly used job satisfaction measures, such as the general facets of job satisfaction that are included on the JDI.

Past research on job satisfaction across a wide-range of occupations (Carruthers, 1988; Dikas, 1997; Lopes et al., 2015; Yang, Brown, & Moon, 2011) led the researcher to believe that patrol work would also endorse similar components of job satisfaction encompassed by the JDI, which include facets of the work itself, pay, promotion, supervision, and coworkers. Indeed, all of these aspects were identified in the current investigation. For example, the current investigation demonstrated that officers endorsed feelings of the work itself, which is in line with other research that assessed the overall fit of Herzberg's factors when predicting job satisfaction (Smerek & Peterson, 2007). However, different facets were divided based on whether they contributed to the officer's satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the work. The work itself, possibility for growth/advancement, and supervision were all identified as satisfying factors for patrol officers. Salary, supervision, and coworkers, were identified as factors related to dissatisfaction. These findings are also in line with other research on police job satisfaction. For

example, Toch (2002) and Can et al. (2016) also identified aspects of supervision as a potential component of satisfaction for patrol officers. Similarly, other themes relevant to the JDI components (e.g., nature of the job, reward system, peer support) were identified in the current study, as well as other past research (Can et al., 2016; Hylton et al., 1979; Toch, 2002). Although the current investigation supported the components of job satisfaction included on the JDI, it is clear that this global measure is not sufficient in capturing the complete range of job satisfaction/dissatisfaction of patrol work (i.e., missing vital factors such as: peer camaraderie, media relations, partnerships, etc.). Therefore, the results of the current research raise concerns about whether JDI is a suitable measure of job satisfaction for patrol officers working in Canada.

Evaluation of research question #2. The second research question aimed to identify whether any unique sources of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction existed among Canadian patrol officers that were also cited in past police-specific job satisfaction research (e.g., police camaraderie, media criticism).

The current investigation supported the findings of many other studies on police job satisfaction. First, peer camaraderie was found to be a significant source of job satisfaction in the current. This is consistent with other research who found group camaraderie an appealing part of the job (Johnson, 2012; Lester, 1983; Meagher & Yentes, 1986; Toch, 2002). An officer's sense of pride also emerged as a source of satisfaction in the current study, which was also supported in other police research (Can et al., 2016; Hylton et al., 1979; Lester, 1983; Meagher & Yentes, 1986; Toch, 2002). Officers in the current investigation also suggested that the effects on personal life constituted as a dissatisfying part of their job, which is consistent with research carried out by both Hylton et al. (1979) and Toch (2002). Additionally, public relations and media criticism were dissatisfying aspects of the job in the current research, and this has been documented in other studies as well (Brooks & Piquero, 1998; Guffey, 1992; Hylton et al., 1979; Toch, 2002).

Evaluation of research question #3. The third research question examined whether additional sources of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction existed among Canadian patrol officers that had not otherwise been identified in the research.

Only one additional component of job dissatisfaction was found in the current investigation, which related to the judicial system practices. Officers described being frustrated with the feeling that criminals were excused from their charges without purpose, feeling

scrutinized in public court by the defense, as well as being irritated with the difficult scheduling practices that the judicial system employs (e.g., being scheduled for courts between night shifts or on days off).

Evaluation of research question #4. The last research question aimed to explore the overall fit of Herzberg's extrinsic and intrinsic factors with the current investigation, and whether these factors align with the components of job satisfaction/dissatisfaction cited by Canadian patrol officers. First, Herzberg's original theory only accounted for five of the nine motivating factors found in the current study. Patrol officers in this study found aspects of achievement, recognition, the work itself, possibility for growth, and the possibility for advancement to contribute to their motivation in work. One motivating factor that was not identified for significance in the study was the aspect of responsibility. Although the researcher did not explicitly ask participants if they felt motivated by their level of responsibility in the job, this topic did not organically emerge, like many of the other themes. Given that it is the job of patrol officers to make difficult decisions with sometimes fateful consequences (Toch, 2022), it is not surprising that the aspect of responsibility did not emerge as a motivating force. These components of job satisfaction were theorized by Herzberg. However, as anticipated, additional factors were found. These patrol-specific factors of motivation found included an officer's sense of pride, peer camaraderie, supervision, and partnerships as other sources of motivation for their work. Please see Table 5-1 below for a comparison of Herzberg's motivating factors and the motivating factors found in the current study.

Table 5-1. *A Comparison of Motivating Factors Found Between Herzberg and the Current Study*

Herzberg's Classification of Motivators	Motivating Factors Identified for Canadian Patrol Officers
Achievement	Achievement
Recognition	Recognition
The work itself	The work itself
Possibility of growth	Possibility for growth
Advancement	Possibility for advancement
Responsibility	<i>Not represented in the current study</i>
	Sense of pride
	Peer Camaraderie
	Supervision
	Partnerships

Additionally, all of the hygiene factors put forth by Herzberg transferred to a patrol officer context, such as the company policy and administrative practices, interpersonal relations, physical working conditions, salary, job security, and supervision. However, unique hygiene factors relating to police work were found in the current study that were not encapsulated by Herzberg's original theory, such as the reward system, the effects on personal life, media relations, public relations, painful and traumatic experiences, judicial system practices, and partnerships. See Table 5-2 below for a comparison between Herzberg's original hygiene factors, and the hygiene factors found in the current study.

Table 5-2. *A Comparison of Hygiene Factors Found Between Herzberg and the Current Study*

Herzberg's Classification of Hygiene Factors	Hygiene Factors Identified for Canadian Patrol Officers
Company Policy and Administrative Practices	Company Policy and Administrative Practices
Interpersonal Relations	Interpersonal Relations with Co-workers
Physical Working Conditions	Physical Working Conditions
Salary	Salary
Job Security	Job Security
Supervision	Supervision
	Reward System
	Effects on Personal Life
	Media Relations
	Public Relations
	Painful and Traumatic Experiences
	Judicial System Practices
	Partnerships

Applying Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory to assess Canadian patrol officer job satisfaction cannot be completely verified. The theory accurately encompassed only the general facets of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. However, this theory served as a helpful framework in refining additional factors. Additionally, the quality of supervision and an officer's partnerships served as either a motivating or hygiene factor. The ability for factors to serve in duality was never discussed in the original theory but appear to be present in the current study. Smerek and Peterson (2007) also found elements of limited efficacy when applying Herzberg's theory to a higher education context and noted that the parsimonious nature of the theory is appealing, but simply does not provide the preciseness needed for determining job satisfaction in all contexts.

As previously discussed in this report, capturing the preciseness of constructs at the expense of general applicability is a delicate balance. Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory is appealing to use in job satisfaction research with new samples because of its parsimonious and general nature. Smerek and Peterson (2007) provide a fruitful discussion on virtuous features of a theory, as first presented by Thorngate (1976) when discussing theory to explain social behaviour. Thorngate (1976) offers an interesting commentary on general versus specific issues within social science research involving theory. Continually adding conditionals and facets within a theory may create a more complex, accurate assessment of a given behaviour, however you will forfeit simplicity. Thorngate (1976) highlights an important point of having highly complex theory in social scientific research – which is whether we are ever able to practically evaluate such limits of complexity. Practical limitations aside, when harnessing simplicity and accurateness, generalizability cannot be totally maintained. Thorngate (1976) discusses the importance of generality in theory, because without, those theories can only account for only the most specialized situations or behaviours. Being able to hold a theory to different contexts is important for theory development and the overall understanding of human behaviour. Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory did not provide an exact fit to eliciting the satisfying and dissatisfying elements within modern patrol work, but an exact fit would not have never been expected given the well-known complicated nature of using theory to guide research. In sum, Herzberg's theory was a valuable guideline for identifying the intrinsic and extrinsic conditions of patrol work. Herzberg's original theory did not account for all of the elements found in the present study, but the general nature of the theory allowed for the identification of other sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. That is, when officers described unsatisfying elements of the job, they were almost exclusively related to extrinsic conditions of their work. Similarly, the meaningful and satisfying parts of an officer's job come from the intrinsic conditions of their jobs. Using Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory to first explore the potential for new facets of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction allows for further theory development when applying it to a police sample.

Strengths of the Current Study

The current research offers several strengths. First, it is considered good practice in scale development to apply theoretical guidance when investigating phenomenon of interest (DeVellis, 2017). Thus, the application of Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory served as an aid to clarity

throughout the research process. As this research has been theoretically driven, any future item development that may occur is resting on a theoretical foundation, which enhances the validity of any future instrument development.

Second, the current investigation used an appropriate sample in order to gain knowledge relating to the phenomenon of interest. The current study sought to better understand the satisfaction or dissatisfaction a patrol officer experiences; thus, only patrol officers were recruited to serve as key informants. Other research on patrol officer job satisfaction has included officers in various different ranks and positions in order to inform their research findings (Can et al., 2016).

Third, this study aimed to gather the holistic experiences of Canadian patrol officers, therefore it was pertinent to ensure that officers were recruited from various locations across Canada. As this study was able to capture a wide geographical breadth of Canadian patrol officer experience, it serves greater generalizability.

Last, this research serves as a practically significant contribution. Tracey (2013) discusses research that offers practically significant contributions include "...helpful and useful insight in the day-to-day life of key stakeholders" (p. 241). By identifying the aspects of work that satisfy officers, police organizations can practically use the information provided by this research to continue to motivate their officers. In contrast, by identifying the dissatisfying aspects of patrol work, organizations can implement practical interventions to mitigate the negative effects that come from hygienic components of the job.

Limitations and Future Directions

Although the current research has many strengths, it is not without limitations. First, the majority of participants were male (53%), which may have shadowed some the unique insights and experiences of female officers. However, statistics Canada showed that on average, female officers account for approximately 21% of sworn members in a given department (Statistics Canada, 2017). Thus, this research is more than adequate for an appropriate proportion of females to be considered representative of the police force. Another limitation regarding the sample in this study relates to ethnicity. All participants in the current investigation reported a Caucasian ethnicity. As previously noted, Hellsten and Mousavi (2016) emphasized that a measure developed for a specific population may not necessarily be appropriate to apply to different populations or contexts. An all-Caucasian sample could impact scale generalizability,

especially considering the vast ethnic diversity that exists within Canada. Another limitation that exists in relation to the sample is the issue of self-nomination. As participants in this study were not randomly selected, self-nomination of participants could have led to polar experiences (e.g., participation from either highly satisfied or highly dissatisfied officers). Last, it was not possible for the researcher (ethically and practically) to concretely verify that the officers who participated were indeed patrol officers employed at a police organization in Canada. However, based on the detailed conversations that occurred with the participants, the researcher did not suspect malingering. To address these sample limitations, a greater emphasis should be placed on recruiting females and minority officers in order to generalize findings with more accuracy. Additionally, if it is ethically permissible or practically possible, it would be valuable for the researcher to verify that the officer is indeed a currently employed patrol officer at a Canadian police department (e.g., providing police identification, verifying employment status with police organization).

Second, although the current research included participants from a variety of different provinces, some provincial regions remain unexplored (e.g., British Columbia, Quebec, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia). Though it is not expected that the experience of patrol officers from these regions would drastically differ for any particular reason, it still remains unknown due to this under-exploration. Future research should investigate the provinces that are not currently included in this study to enhance generalizability.

Next, only the student researcher carried out the primary duty of coding and analysis, therefore it is possible that bias is present in the overall findings. Although inter-rater coding is one way to mitigate the issue of discrepancy in data analysis, time and financial constraints did not permit the possibility of having multiple researchers code and analyze the data independently. Future research should aim to provide ample time (and, if possible, ample funding) in order to ensure multiple researchers are able to independently review the data to provide an opportunity for found themes to either converge or diverge.

Last, as this investigation was somewhat exploratory in nature, Herzberg's theory was utilized to allow for the possibility of new theoretical developments when assessing job satisfaction in the police force. It is advised for other research on patrol officer job satisfaction to apply Herzberg's theory, or other relevant theories on employee job satisfaction, in order to

observe whether the unique satisfying and dissatisfying components found in this study can be confirmed elsewhere.

Implications

Police departments. As stated previously, given the importance of the role of the police in our society, it remains vital to ensure that police departments monitor the satisfaction and dissatisfaction of their officers. This is important for two reasons. First, having satisfied patrol officers may lead to officers who make greater contributions and commitment to their communities. Second, the extensive cost of hiring and training patrol officers can be protected by preventing unnecessary turnover rates caused by dissatisfaction. By focusing on the satisfying components of patrol work, police organizations can theoretically uphold the satisfaction and motivation of the patrol officers. For a practical example that is in accordance with the results from this study, police organizations could continue to provide educational opportunities for patrol officers to foster their professional growth. In contrast, by focusing on the dissatisfying components of patrol work, police organizations can address the perceived negative components of patrol officers' work, potentially decreasing attrition and increasing retention and commitment to the profession. For example, police organizations may prevent dissatisfaction from forming among officers by providing them the necessary, life-saving equipment that they need to carry out their day-to-day duties. The motivating and hygiene factors identified in this study have the potential to guide police organizations, so they can better support the overall well-being of the officers themselves, as well as the public which whom they serve.

Police educators. Now that specific factors of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are identified, police educators (academics, police academy instructors) can train aspiring police officers and new recruits about the potential dissatisfying elements of the job. Along with the identification of such aspects of the job, they can also teach strategies to mitigate these potential dissatisfactions and frustrations of the job. This will help equip officers with approaches that help buffer against issues of dissatisfaction (e.g., explain the necessary mental health crisis protocols offered by their department in case of a traumatic event). Alternatively, police educators can also encourage and reinforce the positive aspects of police work and support these to motivate their future officers (e.g., scheduling retreats to encourage bonding and peer camaraderie).

Police research. Much of the job satisfaction research is done to examine the relationship between job satisfaction and other relevant variables (e.g., absenteeism, turnover rates). That is, many relationships are examined between overall job satisfaction rates and related variables. Now that specific variables have been identified in the current research, a more refined effort in targeting more direct relationships between factors of job satisfaction and specific outcomes can be monitored. For example, instead of looking broadly at overall job satisfaction and intention to leave, researchers can assess the relationship of specific subscales (e.g., painful and traumatic experiences) and the intention to leave by the officer. Additionally, more research on successful interventions to remedy these sources of job dissatisfaction and occupational stress can be explored. For example, as Scott (2004) suggested, training in handling the stigmatization that goes along with incessant media criticism. Once promising interventions are identified, these strategies could be assessed for their efficacy to enhance data-driven decision-making for organizations. Last, as Johnson (2012) has also suggested, conducting a longitudinal study to understand if aspects of job satisfaction and correlates may offer insight into changes that may occur for a patrol officer over time as their environment may change (e.g., district change, shift preference changes).

Chapter Summary

This chapter began by revisiting the research questions and evaluating the overall findings as it relates to the current literature on police job satisfaction. Then, the strengths of the research were described, which includes the application of theory to guide the research, using patrol officers exclusively as key informants, and the practically significant contribution that this research has. Additionally, the limitations of this research are discussed, which include the issue of using participant self-nomination as a recruitment strategy, the provincial regions not included in this study, as well as the lack of inter-rater reliability for data analysis. Last, the implications for police departments, educators, and researchers is discussed, where the current research contributions can serve to inform better monitoring strategies for officer satisfaction.

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Appendix A: Interview Protocol



Interview Protocol

I would like to begin by asking you a few questions about your current employment.

1. What is your current occupation?
2. How long have you worked as a patrol officer, either a constable or sergeant?
Researcher note: If both, differentiate time between positions
3. Can you outline your general duties on a day-to-day basis? (*when working patrol*)
4. Do/did your duties differ from dayshift to nightshift?

I am going to ask you some questions about your duties as an officer, and how you feel about those aspects of your job. Feel free to stop me if the questions do not relate to your work.

5. [COWORKERS]: Think about the people you work with.
 - o How do you feel about your coworkers?
 - o Have you ever felt that your level of motivation has been lessened because of bad experiences with your coworkers?
 - o Have you felt more satisfied in your job because of good relationships with your coworkers?
6. [PARTNERSHIPS]: Do you have a stable partnership while on patrol?
 - o If **NO**: Is it stressful for you to not have a steady partnership with one other officer?
 - o If **YES**: Can you describe your experiences with your partnership?
7. [CAMARADERIE]: A potential source of satisfaction in policing comes from the “solidarity and loyalty of the police force”, that is, the peer camaraderie and police subculture that comes with being an officer.
 - o Do you experience this?
 - o Do you consider this group camaraderie an appealing or satisfying component of your job?

8. [SUPERVISION]: Thinking about your supervisors...
 - o Do you feel that your supervisors do their jobs well?
 - o Are your supervisors provide helpful feedback to you?
 - o Are there problems that occur with supervision at work?

9. [PAY, BENEFITS, SCHEDULING]: I am going to ask you a few questions about pay, benefits, and scheduling.
 - o Are you satisfied with your current salary?
 - o Are you satisfied with your current benefits?
 - o Are you satisfied with your schedule?
 - o Do you feel secure in your employment with the police?

10. [OPPORTUNITIES FOR GROWTH]: I am going to ask you a few questions regarding your opportunities in the police service.
 - o Do you feel that you have an opportunity to advance yourself in policing?
 - o Do you feel that you have opportunities to learn new skills?

11. [WORK ITSELF]: I will ask you some questions about the work itself in your job.
 - o Can you tell me about some of the most satisfying aspects of your job? [*Explain*]
 - o Can you tell me about dissatisfying aspects of your job? [*Explain*]
 - o Do you feel that you have the proper equipment to carry out your job properly? [*Explain*]
 - o Is the potential dangerousness of your work a dissatisfying aspect of your job?

12. [GENERAL]: I would like to ask you about your general feelings of police work. A researcher (Toch, 2002) once described that police work is very complex because officers have to make difficult decisions with big consequences, and solve many different problems, with no criteria about what are right and wrong decisions.
 - o Would you agree/disagree with that statement?

The next set of questions I am going to ask pertains to the potential stress and trauma you may have experienced in your job. You are not required to answer any questions you don't want to, so if these are too sensitive please let me know whether you would like to skip the question or stop the interview.

13. [STRESS AND TRAUMA]: One researcher (Toch, 2002) noted that officers can experience psychological strain by trying to maintain their emotions while “simultaneously being forced to play the role of spectators to human tragedy.”
 - o What do you think about this statement?
 - o Do you feel that you have adequate organizational support to deal with potential stressful or traumatic situations?

That is all for my questions relating to stress and trauma. Please let me know if you are feeling distressed and I can stop the interview and direct you towards the necessary professional supports.

14. [REWARD SYSTEM]: I am going to ask you some questions regarding the reward system in your department.
 - o Do you feel like rewards, promotions, or special assignments are given to people are based on merit? [*Explain*]
 - o Do you feel that favouritism occurs with certain co-workers? [*Explain*]

15. [MEDIA AND PUBLIC RELATIONS]: I am going to ask you a few questions regarding public relations and the media.
 - o Can you describe your experience with the media, as being a police officer?
 - o Do you feel that the media is scrutinizing, or, supportive of the police? [*Explain; or both/neither*]

16. [POLICE BUREAUCRACY]: I would like to ask a few questions regarding police politics.
 - o Some researchers talk about the ‘civilianisation’ of services, where the city or service recruits civilians to make important decisions, for example, police use of force decisions. Can you describe how you feel/think about this?
 - o Do you feel that there is excessive paperwork, policy, or procedure that interferes with how effective you are in your job? [*Ask each component separately*]

17. [EFFECTS ON PERSONAL LIFE]: I am going to ask some questions regarding how your job and personal life might come together.
 - o Have you ever felt that your work has caused stress in your home life? [*Explain*]
 - o Have you ever had encountered difficulties in your personal life as a result of your profession?

18. [ATTITUDES TOWARDS CULTURAL GROUPS]:
 - o Do you find it difficult to work with any specific cultural groups? [*Explain*]
 - o Do you find yourself becoming jaded about certain groups, or find yourself overgeneralizing certain ethnic groups?

Is there anything else that we haven't already discussed, that you feel it is important for me to know about satisfying or dissatisfying elements of your job?