

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN POLICE SUPERVISOR TRAINING AND JOB
SATISFACTION LEVELS AS REPORTED BY PATROL OFFICERS

by

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A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
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ABSTRACT

This study aimed to determine the relationship between supervisor training completed by first-line police officers and the level of job satisfaction reported by the police officers they supervise. This non-experimental, quantitative, comparative study used leadership theory to establish research questions. A comprehensive literature review developed considerations for training for police supervisors as well as the impact of job satisfaction in law enforcement. The population for this study included patrol officers and first-line supervisors at the Henderson Police Department in Nevada. Using the JDI/JIG survey and multivariate statistical analysis including ANOVA, the study concluded that job satisfaction, particularly general job satisfaction, was significantly impacted by supervisors' hours of leadership training, level of education, and age.

DEDICATION

This dedication goes to the DeSpain Family. My amazing husband, Clint DeSpain, has been supportive of me through every step of this journey by providing motivation and, of course, technical support. His patience and support are endless. My special girl Madyson shared my excitement along the way and cheered me on by comparing assignments and challenges that she faced during first and second grade. Our baby, due in January 2009, is my other motivator. Zoey Elise DeSpain will be born to a Dr. The planning of this project completion and our joyous arrival have left the family with nothing but excitement.

Del and Olivia DeSpain share this dedication and my gratitude for always checking in on my progress and sharing in our excitement with every milestone that was passed. They deserve not only the honor of becoming Godparents to the newest DeSpain but also to share in dedication of this project and what this accomplishment means to the DeSpain Family.

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I also thank the City of Henderson for permitting me to use the population of the police department for this study and hope that the results provide valuable direction and guidance for them as well as all police agencies who hope to refine and improve their police force.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

This study investigates the relationship between first-line police supervisor training and the job satisfaction reported by the patrol officers they supervise. The increased decision-making and problem-solving skills associated with a high degree of job satisfaction are skills fundamental to law enforcement performance (Agassi, Koslowsky, & Schwarzwald, 2001; Banker, Chang, & Pizzini, 2004; Locke, 1976). Satisfied employees provide a higher level of customer service, stay with companies longer, and have a greater financial value to their employer (Abbott, 2003). Law enforcement officers are expected to provide customer service, show dedication and longevity with their agency, and responsibly manage resources funded by public taxes (Adlam, 2003; Brewer, 2005; President's Commission in Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, 1967; Whetstone, Reed, & Turner, 2006).

The first-line law enforcement supervisor is responsible for representing the leadership vision of the entire law enforcement organization to the law enforcement patrol officers under his or her authority (Brewer, 2005). The first-line law enforcement supervisor is a representative of the entire law enforcement organization's leadership vision and has influence on the perception of the sincerity and credibility of that vision and must manage that influence responsibly (Agassi et al., 2001; Banker et al., 2004). Deluga and Souza (1991) have identified a relationship between law enforcement supervisors' leadership methods and the behavior of the law enforcement officers they supervise. However, research that shows the specific relationship between leadership training for supervisors and the resulting level of job satisfaction for subordinates is lacking. The objective of this study was to determine the relationship between supervisor

training completed by first-line police supervisors and the resulting level of job satisfaction reported by the police officers they supervise. This study was conducted to provide information to assist law enforcement agencies in effectively assessing the value of law enforcement training for police supervisors.

Background

Typically, first-line law enforcement supervisors are tenured law enforcement officers who are promoted in rank through testing, selection, or a combination of both (FBI National Academy, 2008). Supervision in law enforcement is a field that combines practical experience with the ability to manage officers in situations that range from routine administrative practices to high-risk critical incidents (Brewer, 2005; Murphy & Drodge, 2003). Diversity and multiple generations in the workplace have added the expectations that first-line law enforcement police supervisors be adept in fulfilling a variety of subordinate expectations and needs (Vroom, 1964; Walumbwa, Wang, Lawler, & Shi, 2004).

The Role of the First-Line Police Supervisor

A challenge to first-line law enforcement supervisors is to provide support and guidance while simultaneously allowing the law enforcement officers that they supervise to make independent decisions and practice creative problem solving so that they may effectively serve the public (Anderson & Johnson, 2005; Mesloh, 2002). The environment of law enforcement requires that supervisors of law enforcement patrol officers serve as a mediator between the organizational structure including the rigor of the administration and the need for flexibility, creativity, and self-efficacy that allows law enforcement patrol officers to perform their duties on the streets and make quality

decisions to protect lives and serve the public (Desten, Gray, & Sarros, 2002; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). Many leadership methods must be employed by law enforcement supervisors in order to meet the demands of the changing situations that law enforcement patrol officers meet. The ability to apply a variety of leadership skills is, according to Cohen (1990), an art that gives birth to the four elements of leadership: “(a) cohesion, (b) teamwork, (c) high morale, and (d) Esprit de Corps” (p. 536). These elements of leadership also translate into facets of job satisfaction of subordinates. The significance of these elements of leadership to the job satisfaction of subordinates and the ability for those elements to be taught to leaders was the focus of this study.

Impact of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is multifaceted and can be developed with company benefits, personal maturity, longevity in one’s career, and natural interest in one’s work (Chen, 2004). Talarico and Swanson (1982) conducted research in the field of law enforcement job satisfaction and although other factors, such as age, pay, work, and promotional opportunity, were also identified as contributors to job satisfaction levels of law enforcement officers, their perception of the organization as a whole that was the factor that most influenced reported levels of job satisfaction. According to Talarico and Swanson, “Police were most dissatisfied with law enforcement when they exhibited particular perceptions about the nature of the organization and environmental support” (p. 74). The issue of trust between law enforcement officers and their organization, administration, and leadership is directly linked to job satisfaction, longevity, and productivity (Chenhall & Langfield-Smith, 2003; Goris, Vaught, & Pettit, 2003; McEvily, Perrone & Zaheer, 2003). Research by Goris et al. identified that “trust in

superiors and influence of superiors have significant effects on the predication of both job satisfaction and job performance” (p. 340). Strong leadership in law enforcement organizations is crucial to maintaining the integrity and reputation of law enforcement by developing and maintaining competent and committed patrol officers (Fisscher, Nijhof, & Steensma, 2003; Mesloh, 2002; Walsh, 2001; Willis, Mastrofski, & Weisburd, 2007).

Training

Deluga and Souza (1991) researched the positive relationship between supervisor leadership skills and job satisfaction in law enforcement. However, the way that leadership skills are learned and applied by supervisors is an area of law enforcement training that remains unfulfilled. Law enforcement agencies across the country have widely-varied training and education prerequisites to be eligible to become a police officer and even more loosely-established guidelines for promotion to supervisory positions (Commission for the Accreditation of Law Enforcement Agencies [CALEA], 2008; Levine, n.d.). The Wickersham Commission led by President Herbert Hoover in the 1920s, the National Crime Conference led by President F. D. Roosevelt in 1934, and the FBI in 1973 at the National Advisory Council on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals Conference all considered the subject of consistent standards for training and education for law enforcement officers (FBI National Academy, 2008). Despite the recommendations, no consistent standards have yet to be adopted with regard to law enforcement training (National Archives Record Group 10). This means that because inconsistent training is provided to or required of law enforcement officers, the amount of training provided to first-line police supervisors also varies and may have a relationship to the leadership skills exercised. Varied training standards and resulting varied degrees

and methods of leadership exhibited by first-line police supervisors may contribute to varying levels of job satisfaction in the subordinate officers they supervise. Knowledge gained from this study may provide law enforcement agencies with information to assess the importance of supervisor training for their first-line law enforcement supervisors.

Problem Statement

The leadership principles and significance of job satisfaction that are emphasized in the private sector are not significantly different in theory to those that are applied in contemporary law enforcement agencies (Arvey, Carter, & Buerkley, 1991; Frank, Finnegan, & Taylor, 2004; Jenkins, 1947). Traditionally, law enforcement agencies were structured as paramilitary organizations that used primarily transactional and directive leadership similar to the military, in which a superior orders a subordinate to perform a task that is subsequently done without consideration or question (Deluga & Souza, 1991; Taylor, 1911). The problem, as it is related to this study, was that patrol officers' overall levels of job satisfaction may be affected by the leadership style of their supervisors which can be influenced by training or lack of training of the supervisors. The negative consequences of low levels of job satisfaction have significance to warrant this study. Prottas (2008) conducted research that identified that when an employee perceived that he or she was under-rewarded attitudinal consequences such as dissatisfaction and tension resulted and were often coupled with behaviors consequences such as absenteeism, lowered productivity, and employee turnover (Adams, 1963). Creating an environment conducive to job satisfaction which fosters employee dedication and commitment "is important since committed employees tend to be more willing to make personal sacrifices for their organizations (Jaworski and Kohli, 1993, p. 345). The focus

of this study was to determine if leadership training for first-line law enforcement supervisors impacts the job satisfaction levels of the patrol officers they supervise.

Contemporary law enforcement agencies have developed transformational leadership environments in which the norm is an expectation that all workers, including law enforcement officers, take ownership in the success and public perception of their organization (Avolio & Bass, 1994; Barbuto, Fritz, & Marx, 2002; Brown et al., 2001; Jung & Sosik, 2002). The typical transition from earlier methods of law enforcement supervision to contemporary leadership techniques have historically been a product of the retirement of supervisors who had used archaic, autocratic methods of supervision, rather than training supervisors to employ contemporary leadership methods (Carter & Sapp, 1990; Collins, 2001; Gardner & Stough, 2002). The purpose of this study was to identify the significance of leadership training for first-line law enforcement supervisors in order to understand and improve police job satisfaction to improve officer performance. The Henderson Police Department was the population sampled. The information regarding the variables was obtained from the Job Descriptive Index/Job in General (JDI/JIG) survey instrument (Appendix A), which was used to collect voluntarily reported information from patrol officers. The statistical procedures used in the analysis included descriptive statistics and ANOVA.

Purpose

The purpose of this quantitative, comparative research study was to investigate the relationship between training completed by first-line law enforcement supervisors and the job satisfaction levels of patrol officers who report to them. Using a convenience sampling, 188 commissioned officers located in southern Nevada (CALEA, 2008) were

surveyed. The survey as provided to the participants via a web-based application used a three-tiered Likert-type scale. Participants were invited to consider their current supervisor and work situation and asked to identify factors, including supervision, that influence their level of job satisfaction to identify an overall level of job satisfaction, which was then compared to amount of training reported by their supervisors. Training levels of supervisors were investigated with regard to the following leadership training variables: (a) level of formal education, (b) hours of supervisor training, and (c) tenure as a supervisor. Job satisfaction levels were identified relative to the patrol officer's current supervisor. Job satisfaction was investigated with regard to the following variables: (a) job in general, (b) people, (c) work, (d) pay, (e) promotional opportunities, and (f) supervision. These leadership training variables and job satisfaction variables comparisons were analyzed using statistical tools to identify the relationship between the three leadership training variables (independent variables) and the six job satisfaction variables (dependent variables).

Significance of the Study

Law enforcement agencies are pressed to recruit, hire, and retain law enforcement officers who are able to do their jobs effectively (Brewer, 2005). Job satisfaction contributes to employee tenure and performance accomplishments (Castenda & Nahavandi, 1991; Chen, 2004; Mangold & Miles, 2002). Leadership training provides an assurance regarding the consistency and effectiveness of leadership skills used by law enforcement supervisors (Acemoglu & Piske, 1998). Leadership skills include motivation, support, and adaptation skills, among many others (Allen, Bycio, & Hackett, 1995; Moynihan, 2005). The impact of first-line supervisor training warrants research to

determine its effect on the reported levels of job satisfaction from the patrol officers supervised. The field of training and education in law enforcement is broad and nebulous, especially for supervisors who are credited with on the job experience as a training tool (Carter & Sapp, 1990; Van Wart, 2003). This study aimed to fill a gap in research by determining the relationship of leadership training for first-line law enforcement supervisors and the resulting levels of job satisfaction as reported by patrol officers.

The significance of this research is its unique attempt to identify the influence of supervisor training on job satisfaction levels of patrol officers. This study was directed towards describing (a) the relationship between supervisor skills and job satisfaction, (b) the relationship between supervisor training and supervisor skills, and (c) the relationship between supervision and overall job satisfaction. Results from this research could empower law enforcement agencies to allocate time and funds to appropriately support leadership training for first-line law enforcement supervisors (Brewer, 2005).

Significance of the Study to Leadership

Leadership and supervision have many responsibilities. Historically, law enforcement leadership rested on experience and the Great Man Theory (Becker, 1962; Carter & Sapp, 1990; Hernez-Brome & Hughes, 2004). Conversely, in the private sector, approximately \$50 billion dollars per year is spent on leadership development (Fitzgibbons, Steingard & Whitty, 2003; Raelin, 2004). This expense in the private sector suggests to some degree that there exists a general belief that leadership can be taught (Mintzberg, 2004). Collins (2001) suggested that high-level leadership traits may be innate and unable to be learned, as suggested in the Great Man Theory (Bass, 1990). Tubbs and Schulz (2005) conducted research that supports elements of the Great Man

Theory in that, “an individual’s core personality is a relatively permanent characteristic of that leader” (p. 7). The research by Tubbs and Shulz also showed that leadership competencies can be learned; only when these learned competencies are integrated with supporting personality characteristics can a leader emerge. Conger (2004) provided additional support by delineating the characteristics of leadership personality and leadership skills, noting that leadership does not occur without a combination of the two.

In law enforcement, taxpayers in the community absorb operational costs, including training costs. Research by Weiss (2004) suggests that “given the complex nature of police leadership, law enforcement organizations would do well to spend their time and money on developing those skills that seem to uniquely describe superior performance” (p. 184) of leaders. Weiss further suggests that additional research is required to identify specific skills that are associated with effective application of law enforcement leadership skills. Leadership skills of law enforcement supervisors are not only the result of experience but also of training and education. Training and education are identified through research as the influences that most impact the performance of first-line supervisors (Bass, 1990; Kerr, Hill, & Broedling, 1986).

Nature of the Study

A non-experimental, quantitative survey research design was employed in this study to address two research questions. Quantitative methods were chosen to determine degree of association, explanation, and description rather than to explore and comprehend which is the intent of qualitative methods (Creswell, 2002). The specific relationship between leadership training for first-line law enforcement supervisors and the resulting level of job satisfaction reported by patrol officers offers a description of the association.

This study's analysis identified the complex interaction of law enforcement supervisor training variables and subordinate job satisfaction variables. The participant study group consisted of 103 patrol officers and 22 first-line supervisors from a police department of about 300 police officers at the Henderson Police Department. Due to the large population participating in this study, qualitative techniques would be too time-consuming for both the participants and the researcher to be useful. Given the purpose and relevant variables of the study, a quantitative method was deemed to be more appropriate (Simon, 2006). Therefore, a non-experimental, quantitative, comparative research design was identified as the best approach to collect pertinent data.

To collect the data necessary, the Job Descriptive Index and Job In General survey from Bowling Green State University was used. The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) is one of the most widely-used measurements of job satisfaction in the United States (Balzer et al., 1997). The JDI used in this research to survey participants was confirmed to be reliable, repeatable, and valid by researchers Stum (2001), Tietjen and Meyers, (1998) and Balzer et al. (1997). The JDI measures five facets of job satisfaction: (a) satisfaction with work on present job, (b) satisfaction with present pay, (c) satisfaction with opportunities for promotion, (d) satisfaction with supervision, and (e) satisfaction with coworkers. Included with the JDI was the JIG, which evaluates overall satisfaction with the job. The JDI and the JIG are bundled together and were created to complement each other (Balzar et al., 1997).

To ensure that the highest degree of candor was obtained from the participants in this study, the survey sample includes only officers who have completed their initial evaluation period of 18 months and are full-time employees of the Henderson Police

Department. From that sample, information was collected using the JDI/JIG survey to create a database that was analyzed to assess reported levels of job satisfaction (dependent variables). Demographic information such as gender, age, education level, hours of leadership training, and years in law enforcement was also collected from patrol officers participating in the JDI/JIG survey. First-line supervisors only provided demographic information, including gender, age, education level, hours of leadership training, years in law enforcement, and years as a supervisor. The collection of demographic data did not constitute a survey but simply identified the quantity of training and tenure that could contribute to their leadership skills (independent variables). Each first-line supervisor was given a random numerical identifier that was listed on their demographic responses and used by the patrol officers to indicate which supervisor and work environment that they were describing in the JDI/JIG survey.

The survey was administered online via OnlineSurveys.com through a secure account that is password-protected by the researcher. Data from the survey was compiled in a Microsoft[®] Excel spreadsheet; statistical software programs NCSS and PASS were used to analyze the results. Multivariate statistical analysis was used for major analytical conclusions about the relationships between variables. In particular, the multivariate analysis conducted was the analysis of variance (ANOVA) for multiple categorical independent variables. This was used to analyze results to provide appropriate findings, conclusions, and future recommendations for each of the following hypotheses.

Research Questions

This section describes the two main research questions that guide this research project. Further, this section introduces the supplemental factors for each main research

question in order to explain in detail the objective of the research and narrow its target. The supplemental factors are evaluated as survey items, which will be correlated by statistical analysis to the data analysis presented in chapter 4.

Research Question 1: Are there any differences between the factors (supervisor training, college education, work experience, family size, family income, and age) and the job satisfaction levels as measured by the Jobs in General scores and the (a) People at Work, (b) Work, (c) Pay, (d) Opportunities for Promotion, and (e) Supervision of patrol officers?

Research Question 2: Are there any differences between the factors (patrol officer training, college education, work experience, family size, family income, and age) and the job satisfaction levels as measured by the Jobs in General scores and the (a) People at Work, (b) Work, (c) Pay, (d) Opportunities for Promotion, and (e) Supervision of patrol officers?

Hypotheses

The hypotheses in this quantitative study created a foundation for answering the research questions listed above. The following null hypotheses were tested in this study:

H1₀: There are no differences between the factors (supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family income, and supervisor age) in terms of job satisfaction of the patrol officers as measured by the jobs in general scores from the JIG.

H2₀: There are no differences between the factors (supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family

income, and supervisor age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the People at Work scores from the JDI.

H3₀: There are no differences between the factors (supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family income, and supervisor age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the Work scores from the JDI.

H4₀: There are no differences between the factors (supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family income, and supervisor age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the Pay scores from the JDI.

H5₀: There are no differences between the factors (supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family income, and supervisor age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the Opportunities for Promotion scores from the JDI.

H6₀: There are no differences between the factors (supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family income, and supervisor age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the Supervision scores from the JDI.

H7₀: There are no differences between the factors (patrol officer training, patrol officer college education, patrol officer work experience, patrol officer family size, patrol officer family income and patrol officer age) in terms of job satisfaction of the patrol officers as measured by the jobs in general scores from the JIG.

H8₀: There are no differences between the factors (patrol officer training, patrol officer college education, patrol officer work experience, patrol officer family size, patrol officer family income and patrol officer age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the People at Work scores from the JDI.

H9₀: There are no differences between the factors (patrol officer training, patrol officer college education, patrol officer work experience, patrol officer family size, patrol officer family income and patrol officer age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the Work scores from the JDI.

H10₀: There are no differences between the factors (patrol officer training, patrol officer college education, patrol officer work experience, patrol officer family size, patrol officer family income and patrol officer age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the Pay scores from the JDI.

H11₀: There are no differences between the factors (patrol officer training, patrol officer college education, patrol officer work experience, patrol officer family size, patrol officer family income and patrol officer age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the Opportunities for Promotion scores from the JDI.

H12₀: There are no differences between the factors (patrol officer training, patrol officer college education, patrol officer work experience, patrol officer family size, patrol officer family income and patrol officer age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the Supervision scores from the JDI.

Conceptual or Theoretical Framework

Leadership theory and the multitude of theorists that debate the topic of leadership, as outlined by Bass (1990) in one of many compilations of leadership theory,

support the general belief that leadership skills are cultivated skills that rely on both education and experience. Bono and Judge (2003) identify two of the many benefits of supervisors exercising leadership skills. Those benefits are motivation and job satisfaction (Barbuto et al., 2002; Becker & Stigler, 1974; Ramlall, 2004). In the community of law enforcement, the combination of administrative demands, public expectations, internal culture, the need for strong leadership, and satisfied workers is essential (Densten, 2003; Gill, 2003; Hanson & Miller, 2002; Van Wart, 2003). This section contains a summary of the following topics: (a) the theoretical basis of leadership training, (b) the leadership models and their effect on subordinate job satisfaction, and (c) the relationship between leadership training and leadership skills performed.

Theoretical Basis

The theoretical basis of this research was derived from the field of police supervision. Scholarly works devoted to the topic of police supervision are reflected in the fields of human resources, law, leadership, career development, labor relations, sociology, and psychology. Research by Andolesek and Stebe (2004), as well as Charness (2004), suggested that the performance of police supervisors has a direct impact on the job satisfactions of subordinates, who in this case are law enforcement officers. Hernez-Broome and Hughes (2004) completed studies in the field of leadership that suggested that the paramilitary nature of police organizations goes against contemporary leadership theory.

However, because of the dangerous situations inherent to police work, an unavoidable aspect of directive leadership is that it is necessary and may never be entirely abandoned despite the effectiveness of more involved leadership theories, such as

transformational leadership (Avolio, Dvir, Eden, & Shamir, 2002). Liang, Ling, and Hsieh (2007) studied paramilitary leadership and identified that authoritarian effects on the behavior of subordinates are mediated by the quality of the supervisor/subordinate exchange. The ability to understand the impact of the complex nature of leadership and contemporary leadership philosophy on organizations is not innate; rather, leadership is an evolving field of study and growth (Kourvetaris, 2003; Wren, 1994). Leadership training is a more precise and efficient way for organizations to supplement the benefits of supervision than relying solely on work experience and mentorships alone (Becker, 1962; Burns, 1978; Senge, 1994).

Leadership Models and Job Satisfaction

Leadership education provides skills for leaders to transition between different types of leadership in order to attain the most effective results (Bruns & Shuman, 1988; Conger, 2004; Frantz, Tomer, & Leibenstein, 1982). Bruns and Shuman suggest that organizations that require directive leadership use situational leadership theory so that the beneficial aspects of contemporary leadership theories may be incorporated into directive leadership settings. Integrating leadership styles such as transformational leadership, researched by Avolio and Bass (2004), and situational leadership (Bass, 1985) into an organization creates a feeling of ownership by employees toward the organization, resulting in measurable indications of increased job satisfaction levels (Collins, 2001; Dearborn, 2002; Grover & Walker, 2003).

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership theory is one of many leadership philosophies that encourage melding leadership skills in order to meet the needs of the present and the

future (Banerji & Kirshnan, 2000; Bass, 1985). Research by Walumbwa et al. (2004) identified that “organizations can benefit greatly by providing transformational leadership training to their supervisors and managers to enhance followers’ collective efficacy” (p. 525). The ability to lead from the middle, a core skill of transformational leadership, is essential to the success of first-line law enforcement supervisors’ ability to maintain a high level of performance, in addition to promoting job satisfaction within the law enforcement officers whom they supervise (Bass, 1998; Bruns & Shuman, 1988; Fisscher et al., 2003; French & Stewart, 2001). Leading from the middle reflects the first-line law enforcement supervisor’s responsibilities to manage and motivate subordinate patrol officers, in addition to exercising the ability to moderate and communicate with police administration (Brewer, 2005; Van Wart, 2003).

Situational Leadership

Situational leadership incorporates ownership in one’s organization by integrating transformational leadership principles into other leadership styles. Situational leadership asserts that “to be effective, a leader must use a style or set of behavior that fits the unique demands of the situation” (Grover & Walker, 2003, p. 13) so that organizational functions and changes can occur with minimal discomfort (Argyris & Schön, 1974). Situational leadership methods allow the leader to focus on providing only what is necessary to lead team members through change and avoids wasting unnecessary money and energy dramatizing events that occur (Boin & Hart, 2003; Diefendorff, Richard, & Gosserand, 2005). The situational leadership model may be a very effective leadership model for the law enforcement environment, considering the continually-changing

environments and circumstances that the field of law enforcement faces (Dionne & Jaussi, 2004).

Situational leadership accommodates the demands of change with flexibility (Grove & Walker, 2003). The situational leadership model encourages supervision by establishing personal connections with subordinates that focus on the needs of the organization's members, subsequently promoting overall organizational growth (Fernandez & Hogan, 2002; Goffee & Jones, 2000; Grover & Walker). Current leadership research reveals that many effective traits found in the situational leadership theory are also present in transformational leadership theory (Boehnke, Bontis, DiStefano, & DiStegano, 2003). A major premise in transformational leadership is the need to create a balance and alignment of the needs and goals of the individual team members, the organization, and the leader (Bryant, 2003; Escrig-Tena & Bour-Llugar, 2005). The relationship developed by the situational leader is based upon trust between the organization and its members. This trust emphasizes the ability of the leader to adapt his or her leadership methods to accommodate the demands of varying situations (Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002). Chenhall and Langfield-Smith (2003) conducted research that determined "a high level of trust is important to strategic change because it provides the basis to develop predictability in relationships, production, cooperation, solve problems, and uncover innovative solutions" (p. 120).

Behavioralist Leadership Theory

Trust and ownership in one's organization is also present in the management philosophies of Argyris (1957), Merton (1968), and Barnard (1968), which focus on the psychological and behaviorist aspect of leadership that promotes "consent, authority,

and moral responsibility of the manager to his subordinate” (Barnard, p. 347). The shift from supervisor/subordinate relationships to creating an environment of teamwork and shared responsibility is emerging in the field of law enforcement. Behavioralist leaders work with other leaders of the organization to provide opportunity for innovation, encourage flexibility, and ensure that trust is reestablished in an effort to create a solid foundation for the organization (Mangold & Miles, 2002).

Leadership Training and Leadership Skills

The multitude of responsibilities placed on first-line law enforcement supervisors creates a situation that requires resources that extend beyond tenure and experience. Managing the organizational challenges, the legal implications of supervision, and the leadership challenges of law enforcement supervisors can be made easier with training that provides insight to a variety of leadership, problem-solving, and career-/development methods (Likert, 1961; Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004; Murphy & Southey, 2003; Nahavandi & Malekzadeh, 1993; Politis, 2001; Ramlall, 2005; Rose & Kumar, 2005; Vroom, 1964; Whetstone, 2002).

The alignment of supervision, job satisfaction, and job performance not only reflects the health of law enforcement organizations in the present, but also predicts the future. Low levels of job satisfaction and job performance lead to organizational problems, such as turnover, and thereby generate an increased need for recruitment (Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2001; Thomas, 2003; Whetstone et al., 2006). The research presented by Koper et al. indicates that attrition is not caused by the nature of police work, but because of other factors in the work environment, including job satisfaction. Research by Coughlan (2005) identified that employee loyalty is fostered through shared

organizational values, which, when combined with the research by Whetstone et al., indicates that leadership has a significant contribution to the human side of organizational success.

Job satisfaction is a balance between workers' abilities and needs and the reinforcement received in the workplace (Weiss, 2007). Police officers are trained to enhance their ability to perform their job (FBI National Academy, 2008). In this study, data was collected to examine if police supervisors who were more trained, versus police supervisors who were less trained, have different levels of ability in fulfilling the needs, and providing supervision to the patrol officers they supervise and as a result, influenced job satisfaction levels as reported by patrol officers (Fiedler, 1967; Juris & Duncan, 1974; Quinn & Baldi de Mandilovich, 1980). Previous research has shown transformational leadership skills that support visionary, creative, and decision-making qualities increase job satisfaction levels especially in fields such as law enforcement, where problem-solving and independent thinking are essential skills (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999). This study investigated the influence of leadership training for first-line law enforcement supervisors by collecting data to analyze the influence of leadership training on job satisfaction levels as reported by patrol officers.

Definitions

Defining terms used in this study allows for clarification and explanation of use beyond normal definitions and their constraints. Defining terms proves especially important with respect to identifying training, education, and ranks within law enforcement.

Education. In this context, education will be identified as the degree earned or number of years of formal, recognized education achieved, not including certificate programs (Nye, Konstantopoulos, & Hedges, 2004).

Law enforcement. In the context of the study, the term law enforcement refers to a participant in the occupation of law enforcement who has received specific training to perform law enforcement duties and received federal, state, or local certification to do so (Murphy & Drodge, 2003).

Patrol officer. This description is of the entry-level position of a law enforcement officer who is assigned to perform basic law enforcement duties and has not been assigned to a specialized assignment or promoted to a higher rank than entry-level. Patrol officer refers to a law enforcement officer in an entry-level assignment regardless of tenure or previous experience (Juris & Duncan, 1974).

Probationary. Probationary officers and supervisors are those who have not yet completed their qualifying period and may be dismissed from their current position without cause. Probationary employees will be excluded from this study, as the unsecured nature of their employment during this qualifying period may result in providing responses that are not completely accurate. The influence of inaccurate responses could compromise the accuracy of the cumulative responses because of the desire of probationary employees to remain unopinionated, at least until their qualifying period is complete (Goris, Vaught, & Pettit, 2003).

Supervisor. In this context, supervisor will refer to a commissioned law enforcement officer who has been promoted to the position to supervise others on a first-line level. The promotion to supervisor is a permanent one and temporarily-assigned

officers to supervisory status will not be included in this study. First line supervisor is the first level of promotion above a patrol officer and one that has the most interaction between patrol officer and administration. This term may be the most frequently diversified term between departments that use names such as sergeant, corporal, senior officer, or officer in charge (Koper, Maguire, & Moore, 2001).

Training. In this context, training refers to the number of certificate, certification, or continuing education requirements completed. In general, training will be contextualized differently from education in that training programs take weeks or months to complete in contrast to education, which takes years (Maccoby, 2004a).

Assumptions

Law enforcement officers and supervisors possess a certain level of training, such as law enforcement training and basic skills training, required to become a law enforcement officer. Law enforcement officers and supervisors also possess common characteristics such as the desire to protect the public and meet the expectations of the law enforcement organization with which they are employed (Adlam, 2002; Koper, Maguire, & Moore, 2001). Obstacles are present for both law enforcement officers and law enforcement supervisors in that they are expected to maintain knowledge about current local, state, and federal laws as well as case law and community concerns such as racism, poverty, and gangs (FBI National Academy, 2008). These demands are present for all law enforcement members and constitute normal factors impacting levels of job satisfaction.

The Henderson Police Department, the agency used to collect data for this study, was recognized by the Coalition for Accreditation of Law Enforcement Agencies

(CALEA) as a large-sized agency performing within accreditation standards and is assumed to be representational of a typical law enforcement organization (CALEA, 2008). Participation in the survey via a secured online web server at OnlineSurveys.com, which provided the JDI/JIG survey used to collect data, was voluntary. In this study, the assumption was made that the participants would answer the survey questions with honesty and diligence.

In this study, by using a convenience sample of participants, the researcher assumed that volunteers may feel obligated to respond to the survey due to their biases and feelings of a need to participate so that their opinion is included. Such feelings of obligation are offset by the desire to respond accurately so that the participants' responses are acknowledged as important by being represented in the results and subsequent outcome of this study. This assurance was reaffirmed by the researcher's visits to shift briefings to answer questions about this study and reinforce the need for candid responses.

Detailed instruction was provided to the participants to think about their current supervisor, or most recent supervisor if they have recently changed supervisors and have had little experience with their current supervisor. This study assumed that participants followed these instructions and that the participants accurately linked leadership skills exhibited by their current or most recent supervisor to the job satisfaction indicators of the JDI/JIG and answered questions relative to their current environment and standards.

Limitations

This quantitative study has limitations and exceptions that prohibit this study from being generalized to all law enforcement organizations. This study included only patrol

officers who have completed their probationary period and therefore, have at least 18 months of law enforcement training and experience. This study was limited to law enforcement professionals employed as patrol officers and supervisors or first-line supervisors with the Henderson Police Department, a large-sized law enforcement agency in southern Nevada. Only the OnlineSurveys.com survey was used to collect data, which required basic computer skills to log on to the Internet site using a link provided and complete the survey by clicking on preferred answers. The results and analysis included in this study were based on the results of the participants' responses, indicating their perceptions at the time the survey was given.

This quantitative study is limited by the assumption that the participants honestly answered each of the questions that they accessed online via the self-administered survey instrument. Limitations are present in the assumption that the participants accurately linked leadership skills exhibited by their most recent supervisor to the job satisfaction indicators on the OnlineSurvey.com survey instrument and answered relative to their current environment and standards.

Limitations are also present within the statistical analysis. ANOVA was used for statistical examination of the data collected. Responses from the survey were transformed into ordinal data for those answers representing the dependent variables. In categories such as education, responses could have been translated into interval data; however, for consistency and uniformity in assessment they were not. Using ordinal versus interval data in categories that presented the option, for the purposes of this study, to represent data had no bearing on the results of the statistical analysis.

Choosing “?” is an answer option for each question. Participants were encouraged to choose this option if they were unsure or believed the response solicited to be irrelevant. Participants were requested to provide responses from their own experiences and not from things that they may have heard or seen with regard to others. The participants were instructed to complete the surveys at their leisure from the secure Internet server, without their supervisor present, without outside resources. They were told not to collaborate about responses, or share or communicate their responses at any time during or upon completing the survey. The assumption was made that respondents followed these instructions and guidelines.

Delimitations

This research was confined to surveying participants of the Henderson Police Department, a large-sized law enforcement agency in Southern Nevada. Only patrol officers and first-line police supervisors were surveyed for self-reported beliefs. The study respectfully excluded probationary officers whose job status is “at will,” as well as key stakeholders, also known as police administration, who hold positions higher than that of first-line supervisor. Only patrol officers who were hired as law enforcement officers after January 2007 and first-line police supervisors were included in this study. To ensure anonymity, generalized groups were specified by assigning random, anonymous numerical identifiers to police supervisors so that a continuum of training was created for comparison with patrol officer responses. This method of categorization created larger groups than would have been created if specific individuals, groups, or participants were compared.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to gather data that will be used to statistically measure the perceptions of patrol officers about their levels of job satisfaction.

Simultaneously, demographic data such as gender, age, leadership training, education level, years in law enforcement, and for supervisors, years as a police supervisor, were gathered from both the patrol officers and first-line law enforcement supervisors. These data were analyzed in conjunction with the data collected from the online JDI/JIG survey to document reported levels of job satisfaction for patrol officers. The results yielded a finding that indicated the significance of leadership training for first-line law enforcement supervisors on the resulting level of job satisfaction reported by patrol officers.

Chapter 1 presented the introduction and purpose of the study, the importance of the study, in addition to the methods of data collection. Chapter 2 will discuss the relevant literature and previous research in the general field of training and job satisfaction. Chapter 3 will present the methodology, research design, and analytic methods used in this study. Chapter 4 will present the analysis and results from the data collected and Chapter 5 will discuss those results with respect to the relevant literature, implications, and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature available in the fields of leadership, leadership training, and job satisfaction with specific emphasis on how those fields relate to law enforcement. The purpose of the literature review is to establish the subject matter and the theoretical framework that was used as a foundation for this study. Information gained through the literature review will also show specific areas within previous research that are in need of additional investigation. The literature selected for this study pertains to the relationship between supervisors' training and the resulting job satisfaction levels of subordinates with specific focus on the law enforcement environment. In this study, patrol officers were asked to identify their levels of job satisfaction while considering the environment created by their current supervisor. The demographic data collected from officers and supervisors was assessed through a correlation analysis with respect to the responses provided. The literature review provides information, gained from previous studies, that supports the research of this study.

The literature review contains the theoretical framework, which is divided into three sections. The first section will discuss the theoretical framework relating to the training of supervisors and law enforcement. The second section will discuss the job satisfaction of employees as well as how the literature relates to law enforcement. A brief summary will follow each section. The third section will present an overall summary that will conclude the chapter.

Supervisor Training

This section will discuss the theoretical framework of the study relating to supervisor training. The literature review will include a discussion of the history and

foundation of training, barriers to training, and the relationship of training and leadership roles of supervisors in law enforcement.

History and Foundation of Training

Training provided to employees in the working environment has been studied and a literature review on the subject was conducted by Barron (1997). Using a review of literature and data collected from worker and employer surveys, examined job training and its implications. Among the factors analyzed were the following: (a) job training as a human capital investment, (b) measures of job training, (c) recipients of job training, (d) measures of job training, (e) the impact of training on wages and productivity and (f) training and firm recruiting strategies. The study by Barron found that most newly hired workers undergo job training and that the amount of training provided decreases as tenure increases (Arvey et al., 1991; Oshagbemi, 2000). Research also showed that college-educated workers and workers employed in large establishments receive more training than their less-educated counterparts and counterparts employed by in smaller organizations (Barron, 1997; Fitzgibbons et al., 2003).

Koper, Maguire, and Moore (2001) explored the phenomenon of smaller agencies providing less training and concluded that law enforcement officers at smaller agencies have higher turnover rates. Research by Barron (1997) also found that training generates productivity and organizational growth and creates increased wage growth. However, training slightly decreases the starting wage, which is likely explained by the need to offset the expected costs of training (Bova & Kroth, 2001; Nye et al., 2004). Organizations were found to exert more effort with respect to recruitment in order to find workers to fill openings who possessed more extensive job training rather than focusing

on providing training after employees were hired (Frank et al., 2004; Jamrog & Stopper, 2002). This preference by employers to hire trained employees applies to leadership training in addition to job-specific skills; reinforcing to employees the importance of training (Barron, 1997).

Organizational training can result in increased employee retention and increased employee performance (Alavi & Askaripur, 2003; Acemoglu & Pischke, 1998; Bennis, 1994). Acemoglu and Pischke co-wrote the study “Why Do Firms Train? Theory and Evidence,” which identified the importance of employer-sponsored training (1998). The study identified that the main driver of employer-sponsored training relates to the likelihood of one of two equilibrium outcomes. In an equilibrium state, they found that voluntary employee separations are reduced and that employee performance registered significant increases. The symbiotic relationship created between the organization providing training and the employee receiving training is a major component of transformational leadership which has demonstrated through research to increase levels of job satisfaction, commitment, and productivity (Bass, 1990; Mathieu, Tannenbaum, & Salas, 1992; Ree & Earls, 1991; Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992).

Training effectiveness has been extensively studied, most notably by Tannenbaum and Yukl (1992). Their study investigated the impact of training media, instructional settings, sequence of content, and a number of other factors on training effectiveness. Additionally, the personal characteristics that affect training effectiveness have been explored (Argyris, 1957; Baldwin, Magjuka, & Lober, 1991; Humphreys, Weyant, & Sprague, 2003; Martocchio & Webster, 1992). Research has identified the situational characteristics that contribute to training effectiveness (Fecteau, Dobbins, Russell, Ladd,

& Kudisch, 1995; Liu, 2005; Mathieu, 1992; Noe & Schmitt, 1986). Despite extensive literature devoted to the study of training effectiveness, Ree and Earles (1991) found that the single strongest determinant of training effectiveness is the general ability and motivation of the trainee (Jamrog & Stopper, 2002; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). Their study is most pertinent to this study because they studied military personnel, which provided a setting that mirrors the law enforcement environment.

Specifically, Ree and Earles' (1991) subjects were 78,041 Air Force enlistees in 82 different jobs. They used linear models, which revealed that the general ability of those studied as assessed by principal components testing, and found that general ability was the largest and most significant predictor on training effectiveness (Maccoby, 2004b; McCormick & Martinko, 2004; Ree & Earles, 1991). The specific abilities variables of the subjects tested were found to have little additional predictive ability regarding the success of their training (Barbuto et al., 2002). As a result, training to increase abilities was found to be essential and supervisor motivation was found to be a contributing factor to the perceived abilities of the participants (Bono & Judge, 2003; Fecteau et al., 1995; Isaac, Zerbe, & Pitt, 2001; Ree & Earles).

Tubbs and Schultz (2004) supported the assertion of Ree and Earls (2001) through research that defined leadership in terms of competencies, which include knowledge, skills, and abilities. These competencies include three personal traits of leaders. One is the leaders' core personality, which is a generally permanent characteristic that is developed through culture, experiences, and genetics early in life and not affected by training (Mintzberg, 2004; Whetton & Cameron, 2002). One's values are another character trait that works in conjunction with personality to bring about the trainable

leadership characteristic in a person. Behavior is the third personal trait identified by Tubbs and Shultz. The way that a supervisor behaves determines the success or failure of his or her leadership and is the most trainable trait of leadership (Conger, 2004; McCall, 2004; Raelin, 2004).

Barriers to training

Sussman's (2002) seminal work on barriers to job-related training confirmed that continuous investment in human resources through job-related training is an essential factor in ensuring long-term economic growth in organizations. Studying workers in Canada, Sussman found that 7% of Canadians aged 17 and over reported needing but not receiving some job-related training; this need for training was a trend in general (Ansoorian, Good, & Samuelson, 2003). Sussman also examined a sample of employees in order to extrapolate the barriers to training as perceived by the participants. The following three main types of barriers to job-related training were noted: situational, institutional, and dispositional (also known as psychological). According to training theory, situational barriers are a result of a given situation in life, such as being too busy at work, being subject to stringent financial constraints, fulfilling family responsibilities, lack of childcare, language barriers, or health problems (Sussman).

Institutional barriers consist of established practices and procedures that exclude or discourage participation (Griffin, 1991; House & Aditya, 1997; Sussman, 2002). Those barriers can include things like high tuition fees, entrance requirements, limited course offerings, or inconvenient course logistics (Kochis, 2005). In the field of law enforcement an additional barrier also exists. The paramilitary structure of traditional law enforcement agencies requires its member to conform strictly to the establishment (Carter

& Sapp, 1990; Deluga & Souza, 1991; French & Stewart, 2001). A study by Clark (2004) found that “rigid compliance systems do not encourage original thought and the exercise of judgment required for professionalism” (p. 647) or for reception of new ideas presented during training. Last, dispositional barriers are defined by attitudes and opinions toward learning in addition to preconceived notions of the individual’s perspective of himself or herself as a learner (Brown & Posner, 2001; Sussman). Some of the barriers to training may exist in conjunction and thus are not mutually exclusive.

In terms of the specific rankings of the barriers to training, Sussman (2002) found that being too busy at work (42%) and expense (40%) were the two largest barriers to entry. These situational barriers were followed by a number of institutional barriers. Institutional barriers identified by Sussman included inconvenient logistics (35%), no course offerings (24%), and an unsupportive employer (23%). Family responsibilities, specifically lack of childcare, were reported as a barrier by 20% of the people surveyed. Last, and of much less significance, Sussman identified that lack of sufficient qualifications or prerequisites (5%) and health reasons (3%) were other situations that formed barriers to training. Walsh (2001) identified that creating a work environment that prioritizes leadership and goal fulfillment can negate many of the barriers to leadership training.

Training and Leadership Roles of Supervisors in Law Enforcement

The value of training is recognized in many law enforcement organizations, which are initiating increasingly demanding prerequisites of leadership education to progress within the department (Argyris, 1976; Hassell, Zhao, & Maguire, 2003). However, in many law enforcement organizations, leadership training is still not required for

supervisors. In those agencies, police experience is believed to provide sufficient leadership skills to manage subordinates (Argyris, 1962; Murphy & Drodge, 2003; Wren, 1995). The practice of waiving prerequisite leadership education for police supervisors often produces supervisors who lack an understanding of their supervisor responsibilities (Van Wart, 2003). Relying only on experience as a police officer, rather than providing leadership training, provides no support to increase the ability of police supervisor to a level greater than what existed before they were promoted from police officers to police supervisors (Baehr et al., 1968; Gordon, 2002; Weiskittel, 1999).

Because these leaders who lack training generally follow the status quo, it can be expected that their leadership methods are not likely to cause a positive impact on employee job satisfaction (Arsenault, 2004; Hill & Stephens, 2003; Murphy & Drodge, 2003). In fact, failing to require adequate leadership education for supervisors can have a negative effect on police officer job satisfaction (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959; Isaac et al., 2001). In a significant number of police departments, supervisor training is meager when compared to other supervisory positions in the corporate world (French & Stewart, 2001; Kipp, 2001; Murphy & Drodge).

Summary

This section reviewed the logical theory behind job training and findings from the literature regarding its effectiveness, in addition to the barriers to job training faced by both individuals and companies. This section also identified the factors that impact training, job satisfaction, and employee motivation, as well as the relationships between such factors. Further, this section described the relationship found in the literature

between job training and law enforcement. The next section will review job satisfaction and supervisor training.

Job Satisfaction

This section discusses the theoretical framework of this study as it relates to job satisfaction. Discussion in this section will include the history and foundation of job satisfaction and the relationship between job satisfaction and retention, performance, and law enforcement.

History and Foundation of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction literature builds on Herzberg et al.'s (1959) seminal work, which identified factors contributing to job satisfaction and how leadership is perceived and experienced by employees. Herzberg founded the theory by separating intrinsic and extrinsic factors that determine job satisfaction. Specifically, Herzberg defined intrinsic factors as (a) achievement, (b) recognition for achievement, (c) the work itself, (d) responsibility, and (e) growth or advancement (Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Herzberg 2003; Maslow, 1954). Those factors pertain directly to the employee's perception of his or her own performance, career path, and the recognition he or she receives as a result. Based upon the personal perceptions of accomplishments and acceptance of recognition received, these factors was said to be intrinsic to the job. Extrinsic factors affecting job satisfaction relate more to the surrounding company and salary and benefits given to the employee. Herzberg included the following factors in his definition of extrinsic determinants of job satisfaction: (a) company policy and administration, (b) supervision, (c) interpersonal relationships, (d) working conditions, (e) salary, (f) status, and (g) security (Northouse, 2004; Weymes, 2003).

Judge and Mount (2002) expanded upon Herzberg's (1959) theoretic foundation to test personality determinants of job satisfaction. The authors applied the personality framework popularized and validated by Barrick and Mount (1991) in order to assess whether the Big Five personality framework could explain the variability in job satisfaction. The Big Five personality framework is a personality construct developed by Barrick and Mount. The elements of the Big Five personality framework are as follows: (a) extroversion, (b) agreeableness, (c) conscientiousness, (d) neuroticism, and (e) openness to experience (Bass, 1990). Judge and Mount validated that personality-related, or dispositional, sources of determinants for job satisfaction were significant and reliable indicators of job satisfaction. Specifically, they found that the five-factor model had a correlation of 0.41 with the job satisfaction measures established in the study and attributed to Herzberg.

Job Satisfaction's Relationship with Retention

One major reason for the investigation into job satisfaction is the theoretical relationship between job satisfaction and retention rates of companies or institutions that employ highly satisfied individuals (Jamrog, 2004; Koper et al., 2001; Ramlall, 2004). More specifically, a study by Eliason (2006) found that individuals who sought a career in law enforcement did not do so by chance and that those who pursue a career in law enforcement share similar characteristics, including those that impact job satisfaction. Wong (1989) and Thomas (2003) both investigated the impact of job satisfaction on job changes. The authors found that employees with high job satisfaction ratings were less likely to change jobs (Herzberg et al., 1959; Wong). Reduced job changes, or higher

retention, were directly linked to the degree of job satisfaction among the workers surveyed (Jamrog; Martin, 1989; Wong; Hoppock, 1935).

Martin (1979) conducted additional research on this theory in his seminal work, “A Conceptual Model of Employee Turnover Intentions.” Martin proposed an integrative and expanded contextual model for investigating employee intentions to stay or leave an organization (Jernigan, Beggs, & Kohut, 2002). Martin arrived at conclusions similar to Wong’s (1989); specifically, Martin found that satisfaction was a significant mediating variable that was strongly related to employee retention rates.

The relationship between job satisfaction and employee retention is important to this study because of implications that retention and recruitment have on law enforcement organizations. Employee retention is likely to increase the probability of a reduction in turnover rates as the length of service increases (Oshagbemi, 2000). Increasing satisfaction could then result in even higher retention rates. Oshagbemi investigated the relationship between the length of time at a present job and the level of satisfaction reported by employees (Austin, 2003; Wong, 1989). Oshagbemi found that the longer the employee remains at the present position, the greater the degree of job satisfaction reported by the employee.

Job Satisfaction’s Relationship with Performance

The previous section’s discussion of job satisfaction’s relationship to employee retention was found to be unchallenged by contradictory evidence in the literature. In contrast, there exists significant controversy regarding the relationship of job satisfaction with job performance. Ostroff’s studied (1992) the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational performance on the organizational level. Findings confirmed that job

satisfaction was significantly and positively related to the overall performance of an organization (Murphy & Southey, 2003; O'Connell, Doverspike, & Cober, 2002; Ostroff). Specifically, higher levels of overall satisfaction reported by the organization were quantitatively related to objective performance measures for those organizations (Ostroff; Ramlall, 2004).

In terms of individual performance level studies, Martin (1989) determined that there was a strong relationship between supervisor measured performance and employee job satisfaction. Martin then compared job satisfaction with organizational commitment with respect to performance and turnover. The findings of the study indicated that while organizational commitment was more highly related to a reduction in turnover, job satisfaction had a larger significant effect on individual job performance (1989).

This finding was confirmed and expanded upon by Bhagat (1992). Bhagat reviewed and summarized two decades of empirical literature concerning direct and moderating variable based analyses of the relationship of job satisfaction with job performance. Bhagat first confirmed that he did indeed find a significant relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. However, Bhagat's study also determined that there was a reciprocal, or positive feedback, relationship between the two variables (Ashford & Cummings, 1983). In other words, while higher job satisfaction was found to relate to better job performance, increased job performance could in turn lead to higher job satisfaction which could then lead to even higher performance in the workplace.

Cropanzano and Wright (2000), however, provide a counterpoint regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and performance. The authors indicated that another underlying variable related more strongly to performance than the job satisfaction

variable. Specifically, they examined a model jointly described in terms of psychological well-being and job satisfaction. The authors determined that psychological well-being was related to job performance, while job satisfaction was not predictive of job performance. However, psychological well-being can be closely linked to satisfaction in general, of which job satisfaction plays a key role (Fisher, 1980).

Fisher (1980) stated that a qualifying aspect to the research conducted must be noted. Specifically, Fisher's seminal work, "On the Dubious Wisdom of Expecting Job Satisfaction to Correlate with Performance" examined the relationship between job performance and job satisfaction. Fisher's study indicated that there is a significant lack of conclusive findings linking the job satisfaction and job performance relationship. Fisher suggested that this inconsistency could be attributed to an aggregation problem. Fisher's study identified that the specific attitude measures should be related to specific job behaviors, while general satisfaction measure should be related to the favorableness or unfavorableness of an individual's total set of work-related behaviors (Kennedy, 2003).

Job Satisfaction in Law Enforcement

The literature on police officers' job satisfaction has related personal characteristics to the dependent variable. Specifically, education level, ethnicity, and gender have been examined with respect to job satisfaction (Zhao, Thurman, & He, 1999). Zhao et al. went on to study the effect of the agency work environment on officers' job satisfaction beyond the usual demographic variables. The police work environment primarily has been viewed with respect to workers' stress, job burnout, cynicism, and alienation. The authors analyzed survey data from a medium-sized police department.

Their findings suggested that a police agency's work environment is a principal source of job satisfaction, regardless of the measure of the dependent variable employed. This research study expanded upon the research of Zhao et al. by applying findings to a large-sized agency and links the effect of supervisor training that contributes to supervisor skills, which comprise the work environment discussed by Zhao et al.

Findings from a study by Reiner and Zhao (1999) confirmed the work of Zhao et al. (1999) and explicitly took issue with the findings of personal characteristics of officers' relationships to job satisfaction. Reiner and Zhao examined the determinants of job satisfaction among United States Air Force security forces. They found that work environment variables produced significant effects on employee job satisfaction while demographic variables failed to demonstrate a similar influence. The findings implied that the public sector managers' leadership and management activities could have serious and important consequences for employee job satisfaction. This research study expanded the study by Reiner and Zhou by including facets of exploration that examined the effect of leadership training for first-line police supervisors on the work environment and resulting level of job satisfaction as perceived by patrol officers.

Summary

This section has reviewed the origins of job satisfaction research. This section also discussed the research related to job satisfaction and retention and performance, specifically with respect to law enforcement, including military security forces. The existing literature supports the following assertions. First, job satisfaction contains an intrinsic component and an extrinsic component. Second, job satisfaction has a significant and positive relationship with retention. Third, the literature regarding job

satisfaction's impact on employee performance is mixed; however, there studies discussed in this section provide solid evidence in favor of a positive significant relationship between the two variables.

Conclusion

This literature review analyzed existing literature with respect to job training, job satisfaction, and law enforcement. In order to present a comprehensive review of the relevant literature, general information on education, training, and job satisfaction will be reviewed. The literature reviewed for the study is an exhaustive investigation of numerous research databases in addition to resources available through the University of Las Vegas Nevada Library, ProQuest database, EBSCOhost Database, and the Thomas Gale PowerSearch database. The following keywords were used: leadership, leadership training, leadership theory, education and training, training and supervision, job satisfaction, job performance, recruitment, retention, law enforcement education, law enforcement leadership, and law enforcement history.

Early stage materials, indexed publications, journal articles, summary materials, and founding theorists were studied in the fields of leadership study, education and training, job satisfaction, job performance, leadership, law enforcement, recruitment and retention, leadership development, and comparative research. Tables 1 and 2 illustrate the extent of research conducted with data divided into literature reviewed prior to 2001 and literature reviewed after 2001, respectively. A total of 196 studies were used in this research, with 76 published prior to 2001 and 120 published after 2001. This exhaustive review of available literature set the foundation and established the significance of this study.

Table 1

Literature Review Prior to 2001

	Early Stage Materials	Indexed Publications	Journal Articles	Scholarly Books	Summary Materials	Founding Theorists	Totals
Leadership Theory	1	2	3		1	14	21
Education and Training	1	1	7		1		10
Job Satisfaction	1	3	5	1		1	11
Job Performance	1	1	2			2	6
Leadership	1	1		4		1	7
Law Enforcement	1	1	5		1	1	9
Recruitment/ Retention		1	1				2
Leadership Development		1	2	2	1	1	7
Correlational Research			1	2			3
Totals	6	11	26	9	4	20	76

Table 2

Literature Review 2001- Present

	Early Stage Materials	Indexed Publications	Journal Articles	Scholarly Books	Summary Materials	Founding Theorists	Totals
Leadership Theory		4	10	2		1	17
Education and Training		2	5	1	1		9
Job Satisfaction		4	15	1	3		23
Job Performance		4	8		1		13
Leadership	1	4	8	1	1	1	16
Law Enforcement		2	6		1	2	11
Recruitment/ Retention		3	6		2		11
Leadership Development		4	8	1	1		14
Correlational Research		1	2	3			6
Totals	1	28	68	9	10	4	120

Literature Gap

After completing the research illustrated above, an apparent gap was found to exist in the area of the proposed research topic: education and training for law enforcement professionals, and specifically for law enforcement leadership and how that training may impact job satisfaction levels of patrol officers. The research available in the

fields of education, leadership skills, leadership attributes, and job satisfaction is sufficient. However, research in these areas relating specifically to law enforcement is lacking as is the specific association of leadership training, rather than leadership skills, to job satisfaction.

Discussion in chapter 2 also highlighted the need for this research study as a noticeable gap was shown to be present in the literature concerning the specific research questions posed in chapter I. Answering the research questions posed in this study fills the gap. The importance of job satisfaction has been established in chapter 2, with verification provided by numerous studies. The implications of this study may allow law enforcement organizations to assess ways to improve job satisfaction in their organizations.

Summary

Chapter 2 presented the theoretical framework and the literature that is relevant to the study. Previous research was discussed and a gap in the literature was identified in the area of law enforcement. Chapter 3 will discuss the methodology used in this study, with particular attention paid to the research design and methodology. Chapter 4 will then present the results and analysis of the data gathered. Chapter 5 will conclude the study with a discussion of those results with respect to the relevant literature presented and discussed in chapter 2.

CHAPTER 3: METHODS

The objective of this study was to assess the relationship between police supervisor training and job satisfaction levels. The dependent variable for the study was the level of satisfaction of the patrol officers, as measured by the JDI/JIG survey instrument. The independent variable of interest was the leadership training for supervisors, which was measured by number of training hours attended. The interest in the study is the relationship that exists between several demographic characteristics (gender, age, education, leadership training, and law enforcement experience) and the job satisfaction of patrol officers. The relationship between these variables is measured by using comparative analysis that includes descriptive statistics as well as analysis of variance (ANOVA).

Research Design

A non-experimental, quantitative survey research design was employed to address one main research objective and five sub-research factors. A quantitative design was chosen for this study because the study aimed to determine the degree of association rather than to provide an explanation of the relationship between leadership training for first-line law enforcement supervisors and the resulting level of job satisfaction reported by patrol officers (Creswell, 2003; Sogunro, 2002). This was accomplished by implementing appropriate statistical analyses of the information obtained from the JDI/JIG survey instrument. The statistical procedures that were used in the comparative analysis include the use of descriptive statistics and ANOVA.

Appropriateness of Design

A non-experimental, quantitative survey research design was appropriate for this study, considering that the object was to determine if there exists a significant relationship between the different variables in a model (Creswell, 2003). By using a quantitative design, evidence was provided for the relationships of interest by employing statistical techniques that result in a numerical or quantitative measurement that can be used to examine the different relationships in the study. Examination of the relationships between each set of data was accomplished by using comparative analysis with ANOVA for multiple independent categorical variables.

By using descriptive statistics in a quantitative research design this allowed for the examination of the distribution for each one of the continuous (interval or ratio) variables in this study. This was important because descriptive statistics provide information on whether a transformation or any other adjustment needs to be made prior to analysis. This is because the statistical methods used in this study were parametric meaning the assumption of normality had to be met (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). In particular, the statistical method that was used to address the research questions and hypotheses was that of an ANOVA. The ANOVA was appropriate for the current study because more than one variable that is categorical (nominal or ordinal) in the model at the same time in order to determine if these variables significantly explained the variation in the dependent variable.

Research Questions

The main objective of this study was to determine if there exists a relationship between supervisor training and job satisfaction for patrol officers. The research questions to address these objectives are presented below.

Research Question 1: Are there any differences between the factors (supervisor training, college education, work experience, family size, family income, and age) and the job satisfaction levels as measured by the Jobs in General scores and the (a) People at Work, (b) Work, (c) Pay, (d) Opportunities for Promotion, and (e) Supervision of patrol officers?

Research Question 2: Are there any differences between the factors (patrol officer training, college education, work experience, family size, family income, and age) and the job satisfaction levels as measured by the Jobs in General scores and the (a) People at Work, (b) Work, (c) Pay, (d) Opportunities for Promotion, and (e) Supervision of patrol officers?

Hypotheses

The hypotheses in this quantitative comparative study created a foundation for answering the research questions listed above. The following null hypotheses were tested in this study:

H₁₀: There are no differences between the factors (supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family income, and supervisor age) in terms of job satisfaction of the patrol officers as measured by the jobs in general scores from the JIG.

H2₀: There are no differences between the factors (supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family income, and supervisor age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the People at Work scores from the JDI.

H3₀: There are no differences between the factors (supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family income, and supervisor age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the Work scores from the JDI.

H4₀: There are no differences between the factors (supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family income, and supervisor age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the Pay scores from the JDI.

H5₀: There are no differences between the factors (supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family income, and supervisor age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the Opportunities for Promotion scores from the JDI.

H6₀: There are no differences between the factors (supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family income, and supervisor age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the Supervision scores from the JDI.

H7₀: There are no differences between the factors (patrol officer training, patrol officer college education, patrol officer work experience, patrol officer family size, patrol

officer family income and patrol officer age) in terms of job satisfaction of the patrol officers as measured by the jobs in general scores from the JIG.

H8₀: There are no differences between the factors (patrol officer training, patrol officer college education, patrol officer work experience, patrol officer family size, patrol officer family income and patrol officer age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the People at Work scores from the JDI.

H9₀: There are no differences between the factors (patrol officer training, patrol officer college education, patrol officer work experience, patrol officer family size, patrol officer family income and patrol officer age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the Work scores from the JDI.

H10₀: There are no differences between the factors (patrol officer training, patrol officer college education, patrol officer work experience, patrol officer family size, patrol officer family income and patrol officer age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the Pay scores from the JDI.

H11₀: There are no differences between the factors (patrol officer training, patrol officer college education, patrol officer work experience, patrol officer family size, patrol officer family income and patrol officer age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the Opportunities for Promotion scores from the JDI.

H12₀: There are no differences between the factors (patrol officer training, patrol officer college education, patrol officer work experience, patrol officer family size, patrol officer family income and patrol officer age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the Supervision scores from the JDI.

Population

The target population for this study was comprised of patrol officers and first-line supervisors at the Henderson Police Department. In total, there were currently 311 sworn officers employed at the police department at the time of this study. Of these 311 sworn officers, 60 were assigned to administrative supervisory positions above first-line supervisors and 53 were on probation. The members of the department that were on probation were the officers that have been with the department for less than 18 months from the date of hire. For the purpose of this study, the 60 members assigned to administrative supervisory positions and the 53 members that were on probation were not included in the study. This means that the entire target population for the study consists of 198 officers, of which approximately 140 were assigned to the patrol division. Officers assigned to specialized units such as the detective bureau and community policing were also not included in the study, as those assignments have significantly different structure and levels of supervision than those in the patrol division. Using a convenience sampling, 188 commissioned officers in southern Nevada (CALEA, 2008) were surveyed.

Sampling Method

Data was collected from non-probationary patrol officers employed by the Henderson Police Department using a questionnaire designed to obtain information on job satisfaction of employees with focus on five facets of job satisfaction. The questionnaires were distributed to the officers via an Internet link that allowed them to access and answer the questions via a secure online web server. On May 14, 2008, an online survey was sent via a secured account that was password protected by the researcher in order to limit potential confidentiality issues. For the purpose of this study,

the questionnaires were distributed to all officers who had their e-mail contact information on record for approved police departmental use.

In this respect, a larger number of questionnaires were distributed to the potential participants in hope that a larger number of responses would be obtained (Church & Wacławski, 2001). The researcher visited shift briefings between May 14, 2008 and May 22, 2008 to request participation and answer questions about the survey. Because the survey was accessible via a secure, third-party, online website, participants were able to respond anonymously and at their convenience. Data collection was complete on May 22, 2008.

The sample size that was required in order to assess the hypotheses was calculated based on the procedures being employed in this analysis. Because the type of analysis for this study consisted of one dependent variable and has six independent variables, there were three things that have to be taken into consideration when calculating the sample size. These three things are (a) the power of the study, (b) the effect size, and (c) the number of independent variables used in the model (Creswell, 2003). The power of the study measured the probability of rejecting a null hypothesis when it was false. The effect size of the study was a measure of the magnitude and strength of the relationship that was required between the dependent and independent variables. Assuming that a large effect size ($f = 0.40$) and a power of 0.80 was required, with six independent variables, the minimum number of participants required was 90.

Instrumentation

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) is one of the most widely-used measurements of job satisfaction in the United States (Balzer et al., 1997). The JDI was used in this

research to determine the levels of satisfaction for patrol officers. The JDI survey has been confirmed by researchers Stum (2001), Tietjen and Meyers, (1998) and Balzer et al. to be reliable, repeatable, and valid. Cohen (2001) conducted a study on job satisfaction and confirmed previous use of the JDI survey by producing reliable, repeatable, and valid results. The JDI measures five facets of job satisfaction: (a) satisfaction with work on present job, (b) satisfaction with present pay, (c) satisfaction with opportunities for promotion, (d) satisfaction with supervision, and (e) satisfaction with coworkers. Included with the JDI is the JIG survey, which evaluates overall satisfaction with the job. The JDI and the JIG are bundled together.

The scoring system that was used to measure the level of satisfaction for the patrol officers was a three-pronged Likert-type scale. The purpose of using this scale was to allow the participants to select a score that most accurately reflects their level of job satisfaction. Some example questions included on the survey for their satisfaction with work on present job were whether work on the present job was “fascinating,” “routine,” or “useful.” Some example questions included on the survey for their satisfaction with present pay were whether the pay is “fair,” “bad,” or “well-paid.” As for their satisfaction with opportunities for promotion the options included “regular promotions,” “good opportunity for promotion,” and “dead-end-job.” For their satisfaction with supervision, options included “ask my advice,” “hard to please,” and “impolite.” The final facet that was measured as satisfaction with coworkers, and some example responses for this facet were “stimulating,” “boring,” or “slow.”

Validity

The validity of the JDI has been demonstrated on several occasions by researchers such as Stum (2001), Tietjen and Meyers (1998), and Balzer et al. (1997). The JDI has been validated through the use of small pilot studies, which showed that it is a reliable instrument to produce statistically valid results. The validity of the instrument used in a quantitative study is critical to the reliability of the results generated (Creswell, 2003). The latest version of the JDI was supported by data collected from 1,600 respondents. Using Cronbach's alpha estimates of internal consistency for the five JDI facets, results ranged from .86 to .91. Internal consistency reliability for each facet was as follows: satisfaction with work, .90; satisfaction with pay, .86; satisfaction with promotional opportunities, .87; satisfaction with supervision, .91; and satisfaction with coworker, .91. The internal consistency reliability for JIG was .92 (Balzer et al.).

Kinicki et. al. (2002) conducted meta-analysis research on the convergent and discriminant validity of the JDI by comparing scores from the JDI to scores obtained by using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire and the Index of Organizational Reactions. The results of the research indicated the JIG had statistically significant convergent and discriminant validity with variance attributable to trait, method, and error averaged 43%, 15%, and 42%, respectively (Kinicki, 2002).

Reliability

The reliability of the JDI has been shown by using different methods such as internal consistency reliability and test-retest reliability. For the instrument to be reliable, the internal consistency measures for each of the individual facets were calculated. Calculations for each of the facets the internal consistency was found to be greater than

0.80, which indicates an adequate internal consistency measure between items. For the pay facet, an average internal consistency of 0.80 was observed, while an average internal consistency of 0.84 was observed for the promotion facet. The coworkers facet had an average internal consistency of 0.85, while the work and supervision facets had an average internal consistency of 0.81 and 0.84, respectively (Kinicki, McKee-Ryan, Schriesheim, & Carson, 2002). The test-retest reliability was found to have average test-retest reliabilities that ranged from a low of 0.56 for the supervision facet to a high of 0.67 for the work facet (Kinicki et al.).

Data Collection

Data was collected via questionnaires distributed directly from the researcher to the respondents and collected immediately upon completion. The questionnaires were distributed to the potential participants through an Internet link that was e-mailed to the participants through their personal, secure, departmental e-mail accounts. This included all officers who provided their e-mail information in their records, which is all officers as email is an approved method of communication per department policy. The questionnaires consisted of approximately 96 close-ended questions that solicit responses using a three-tiered Likert-type scale.

Once the survey had been administered via the online link and the information had been returned to the researcher, the data was then compiled in a Microsoft® Excel spreadsheet. In the spreadsheet, each of the observations was placed into a row that corresponds with each individual participant's response. The columns in the spreadsheet represent the selected answers for each of the items on the questionnaire. Once the data had been inserted into the spreadsheet, the participants' names and any other information

that could potentially reveal the participants' identities were removed and replaced by a numeric identification numbers. The data that was collected was immediately secured for analysis in a locked file drawer to ensure the security of the responses. This data will be retained by the researcher for 3 years and afterwards destroyed by cross-cut shredding and proper disposal.

Informed Consent

Included with the survey was an informed consent form that was presented to each of the participants before the study was conducted. The informed consent form is presented in Appendix B. Participants were informed that the data collected from the study would be used for research purposes only and the information that was collected from the individual is confidential and that no one besides the researcher would have access to the information. If the individual decided not to take part in the study, then no information was collected about that individual.

The participant was only permitted to participate in the study if he or she summarily agreed to the terms stated on the informed consent form which was designated as question number one of the survey provided. To agree, the participant must check box "YES." If the participant either checked box "NO," indicating that the participant did not want to voluntarily participate in the study or simply did not participate in the study by not accessing the survey, then no data was collected or retained from those individuals. Participants were also provided with information stating that they were permitted to drop out of the study and not complete the survey at any time. After the participants had finished the survey, the information was input into the above described computer spreadsheet for analytical purposes.

Data Analysis

The statistical analysis for this study was conducted using the statistical software package SPSS, in which the descriptive and ANOVA procedures were implemented. The first set of statistical analyses that was conducted included descriptive statistics for the independent and dependent variables in this model. For the independent variables in this model, frequency tables including the number of participants who fell within each category were created to illustrate the distribution of the participants. Included in the descriptive statistics were the percentages of participants that make up each range of values.

Summary statistics for each of the five facets used in the analysis procedure were conducted to examine the frequency that the participant selected a particular answer. For the continuous variables in the model, the summary statistics that were presented are the mean score, the minimum and maximum scores, in addition to the standard deviation; these illustrated the spread of the responses that were observed. These summary statistics allowed for the assessment of the variables. If transformations were necessary, then they were be conducted prior to the analysis of the data and noted accordingly.

The use of the ANOVA procedure was then implemented with the patrol officers' level of satisfaction, as measured by the JDI/JIG, as the dependent variable, and the training program and demographic variables as independent variables. The ANOVA was appropriate for this study because the training program and demographic variables were categorical, while the job satisfaction scores were continuous. Therefore, by using this method of analysis allows a researcher is able to determine how much of the variation in the level of satisfaction in patrol officers is explained by the independent variables in the

model. In other words, by using the ANOVA, for this study allowed one to determine if the independent variables in the model had a significant impact on the level of satisfaction. If it was found that there existed a significant relationship between one or several of the variables, then it could be concluded that these variables significantly explain the variation in the job satisfaction scores of the participants. This would then indicate that there is a relationship between the independent and dependent variables, and this relationship was different from zero.

For the ANOVA, the test statistic that was used to assess the relationship is the F -statistic, which comes from the F -distribution. If the test statistic was found to be greater than a critical F -value on $k - 1$ and $n - p - 1$ degrees of freedom (where k is the number of categories for the independent variable, p is the number of parameters that was estimated in the model and n was the total number of observations), then it could be concluded that the independent variable had a significant impact on the level of satisfaction of patrol officers, in that significant differences existed between at least one category of the categorical variables.

In order to support or reject the null hypotheses, the results from the ANOVA described above were examined. The first null hypothesis states that there will be no difference between the demographic factors of the patrol officers in terms of job satisfaction as measured by the jobs in general scores from the JDI. The dependent variable for this hypothesis was the jobs in general scores of the patrol officers, while the independent variables were the supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family income, and supervisor age. The ANOVA method was appropriate for this analysis because the

independent variables were categorical (nominal or ordinal) while the jobs in general scores were continuous (interval or ratio). If it was found that there was a significant relationship between any of the independent variables and dependent variables a post hoc analysis was conducted. By using the post hoc analysis, each of the categories of the independent variables would be compared with one another to indicate which categories were significantly different from one another with respect to the average jobs in general scores. The post hoc analyses conducted were Tukey's adjustment for multiple comparisons.

The second null hypothesis states that there will be no difference between the demographic factors of the patrol officers in terms of job satisfaction as measured by the People at Work scores from the JDI. The dependent variable for this hypothesis was the People at Work scores of the patrol officers, while the independent variables were the supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family income, and supervisor age. If it was found that there was a significant relationship between any of the independent variables and dependent variables, a post hoc analysis was conducted to determine which categories significantly differed from one another with respect to the patrol officers' People at Work scores.

The third null hypothesis states that there will be no difference between the demographic factors of the patrol officers in terms of job satisfaction as measured by the Work scores from the JDI. The dependent variable for this hypothesis was the Work scores of the patrol officers, while the independent variables were the supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family income, and supervisor age. If it was found that there was a significant

relationship between any of the independent variables and dependent variables, a post hoc analysis was conducted to determine which categories significantly differed from one another with respect to the patrol officers' Work scores.

The fourth null hypothesis states that there will be no difference between the demographic factors of the patrol officers in terms of job satisfaction as measured by the Pay scores from the JDI. The dependent variable for this hypothesis was the Pay scores of the patrol officers, while the independent variables were the supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family income, and supervisor age. If it was found that there was a significant relationship between any of the independent variables and dependent variables, a post hoc analysis was conducted to determine which categories significantly differed from one another with respect to the patrol officers' Pay scores.

The fifth null hypothesis states that there will be no difference between the demographic factors of the patrol officers in terms of job satisfaction as measured by the Opportunity for Promotion scores from the JDI. The dependent variable for this hypothesis was the Opportunity for Promotion scores of the patrol officers, while the independent variables were the supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family income, and supervisor age. If it was found that there was a significant relationship between any of the independent variables and dependent variables, a post hoc analysis was conducted to determine which categories significantly differed from one another with respect to the patrol officers' Opportunity for Promotion scores.

The sixth null hypothesis states that there will be no difference between the demographic factors of the patrol officers in terms of job satisfaction as measured by the Supervision scores from the JDI. The dependent variable for this hypothesis was the Supervision scores of the patrol officers, while the independent variables were the supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family income, and supervisor age. If it was found that there was a significant relationship between any of the independent variables and dependent variables, a post hoc analysis was conducted to determine which categories significantly differed from one another with respect to the patrol officers' Supervision scores.

The same analyses would then be conducted for each of the patrol officer characteristic variables with the JIG/JDI dependent variables (H7₀ to H12₀).

The rationale for investigating other job satisfaction factors such as gender, age, education, leadership training, and experience is to fully isolate each potential source of job satisfaction. By individually examining the common factors contributing to job satisfaction, assurance was made that the objective of this study, supervisor training, was examined independently of others.

Summary

Chapter 3 presented the research design, methodology, research questions, and hypothesis in addition to the data collection procedures and appropriateness of the research design. A discussion of informed consent was also presented along with the analytic methods and security methods to protect the confidentiality of the results that are to be used. Chapter 4 will present the findings of the study. Chapter 5 will address the

research questions and discuss the results from chapter 4 with respect to the relevant literature.

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Chapter 3 presented information about the sample used and described the method of analysis. This chapter provides an overview of the sample population used a review of the research questions and hypotheses, data analysis, and summary. The main objective of this quantitative comparative study was to determine if leadership training for police supervisors would have a statistically significant impact on the job satisfaction levels of patrol officers. To do this, other known job satisfaction factors, such as gender, age, education, leadership training, and law enforcement experience, were also explored in order to focus the study.

Collecting data about contributing factors to job satisfaction, such as gender, age, education, leadership training, and law enforcement experience allowed for statistical analysis of each factor, in addition to supervisor training, to be examined independently so that results could be isolated in order to show which factors had statistical significance and to limit assumptions. In line with this objective, this study presented the hypothesis that the supervisors' demographic factors, including the specific factor of leadership training, would have an impact on the job satisfaction levels of patrol officers. Further, this study presented the hypothesis that patrol officers' demographic factors would impact the job satisfaction levels of patrol officers. In this chapter, the statistics describing the sample will be presented. Later, the results and their relationship to the hypotheses will be detailed.

Data Collection

To test these hypotheses, analyses of variance procedures were conducted using ANOVA. Using the ANOVA test was appropriate for this study because it allowed for

observation of how much of the variation in the level of satisfaction in patrol officers is explained by the independent variables in the model. In other words, ANOVA examined if each of the independent variables in the model has a significant effect on the level of satisfaction. If results were found that there was a significant relationship between one or more of the variables, then the test statistic obtained from the analysis would exceed a critical value based on the results in the ANOVA tables. A statistical significance level of 0.05 was specified for the overall results.

Tukey post-hoc procedures were performed when the overall effect was statistically significant. The rationale for using this type of test was based on the premise that all the demographic variables were defined in terms of four or more categories; analysis of variance procedures were used to test this hypothesis. An α of 0.05 was specified for all overall tests. Because the test of the omnibus model can only indicate that there was a significant difference among the groups, further tests were done to determine what was causing the significant difference. Accordingly, when the overall F -value was statistically significant, Tukey post-hoc tests were conducted to determine which of the categories contributed to the significant difference.

This study focused on two research questions and twelve hypotheses. The two research questions follow:

Research Question 1: Are there any differences between the factors (supervisor training, college education, work experience, family size, family income, and age) and the job satisfaction levels as measured by the Jobs in General scores and the (a) People at Work, (b) Work, (c) Pay, (d) Opportunities for Promotion, and (e) Supervision of patrol officers?

Research Question 2: Are there any differences between the factors (patrol officer training, college education, work experience, family size, family income, and age) and the job satisfaction levels as measured by the Jobs in General scores and the (a) People at Work, (b) Work, (c) Pay, (d) Opportunities for Promotion, and (e) Supervision of patrol officers?

The hypotheses in this study include:

H1₀: There are no differences between the factors (supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family income, and supervisor age) in terms of job satisfaction of the patrol officers as measured by the jobs in general scores from the JIG.

H2₀: There are no differences between the factors (supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family income, and supervisor age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the People at Work scores from the JDI.

H3₀: There are no differences between the factors (supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family income, and supervisor age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the Work scores from the JDI.

H4₀: There are no differences between the factors (supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family income, and supervisor age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the Pay scores from the JDI.

H5₀: There are no differences between the factors (supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family income, and supervisor age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the Opportunities for Promotion scores from the JDI.

H6₀: There are no differences between the factors (supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family income, and supervisor age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the Supervision scores from the JDI.

H7₀: There are no differences between the factors (patrol officer training, patrol officer college education, patrol officer work experience, patrol officer family size, patrol officer family income and patrol officer age) in terms of job satisfaction of the patrol officers as measured by the jobs in general scores from the JIG.

H8₀: There are no differences between the factors (patrol officer training, patrol officer college education, patrol officer work experience, patrol officer family size, patrol officer family income and patrol officer age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the People at Work scores from the JDI.

H9₀: There are no differences between the factors (patrol officer training, patrol officer college education, patrol officer work experience, patrol officer family size, patrol officer family income and patrol officer age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the Work scores from the JDI.

H10₀: There are no differences between the factors (patrol officer training, patrol officer college education, patrol officer work experience, patrol officer family size, patrol

officer family income and patrol officer age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the Pay scores from the JDI.

H11₀: There are no differences between the factors (patrol officer training, patrol officer college education, patrol officer work experience, patrol officer family size, patrol officer family income and patrol officer age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the Opportunities for Promotion scores from the JDI.

H12₀: There are no differences between the factors (patrol officer training, patrol officer college education, patrol officer work experience, patrol officer family size, patrol officer family income and patrol officer age) in terms of job satisfaction levels of patrol officers as measured by the Supervision scores from the JDI.

Demographic Data

The demographic data collected was based on the population at the Henderson Police Department. Members of the department were divided into two groups. The groups consisted of patrol officers and patrol supervisors. The patrol officers completed 96 questions contained in the Job Descriptive Index/Job In General Survey as well as an additional five questions to identify (a) gender, (b) age, (c) highest degree of formal education, (d) hours of leadership training completed, and (e) years in the field of law enforcement. Only demographic data was collected from supervisors and included six questions about (a) gender, (b) age, (c) highest degree of formal education, (d) hours of leadership training completed, (e) years in the field of law enforcement, and (f) years worked as a supervisor. The participants were able to access the survey online at freeonlinesurveys.com, where they could anonymously answer the survey at their leisure. A total of 149 patrol officers and 36 patrol supervisors were contacted and asked to

participate in the survey. One hundred-six patrol officers voluntarily completed the survey. However, three of those surveys chose option (b), *I do not agree to participate in this study*, as a response to question number one of the survey, which was Informed Consent. Those three responses were excluded from the data analyzed. This left 103 patrol officers who completed the survey. Twenty-two supervisors agreed to participate and completed the survey.

Descriptive Statistics

Sample of Patrol Officers

The frequencies and percentages describing the sample of patrol officers are presented in Table 3. As can be gleaned from the table, a strong majority of the patrol officers were male (81.6%); only 18.4% of the sample was female. Table 3 presents patrol officer respondents by gender.

Table 3

Patrol Officer Respondents by Gender

Gender	#	%
Male	84	81.6
Female	19	18.4

About half of the sample (50.4%) fell between 31 to 40 years of age.

Approximately one-fourth of the sample (23.5%) fell between the ages of 21 to 30.

Approximately one-fourth of the sample (26.2%) fell between 41 to 55 years of age.

Table 4 presents patrol officer respondents by age.

Table 4

Patrol Officer Respondents by Age

Age	#	%
21 to 25	7	6.8
26 to 30	17	16.5
31 to 35	26	25.2
36 to 40	26	25.2
41 to 45	17	16.5
46 to 50	7	6.8
51 to 55	3	2.9

More than half of the sample of patrol officers that completed the survey had between 1-4 years of college (61.1%). Only a minority (3.9%) did not go to college. Thirty-four percent of the sample had a bachelor's or master's degree. It should be noted that college education is encouraged by the Henderson Police Department through a benefit offered by the City of Henderson, which includes reimbursement for the full cost of tuition plus books for any of southern Nevada's state colleges or universities. Table 5 presents patrol officer respondents by amount of college education. In this study, the field of study in which respondents obtained their degree was not addressed based upon the

belief that education as a whole contributes to personal growth, development, and ability as a whole (Senge, 1990).

Table 5

Patrol Officer Respondents by Amount of College Education

Amount of College Education	#	%
High School	4	3.9
> 1 year of college	11	10.7
> 2 years of college	16	15.5
> 3 years of college	16	15.5
> 4 years of college	20	19.4
Bachelor's Degree	27	26.2
Master's Degree	9	8.7
Doctoral Degree	0	0

About one-third of the sample of patrol officers (34%) had five or fewer hours of leadership training, which was defined as training focused specifically on developing supervisory and leadership skills. Thirty-three percent of the sample had between 5 to 50 hours of leadership training. A similar percentage (33%) had more than 50 hours of leadership training. Table 6 presents patrol officer respondents by hours of leadership training.

Table 6

Patrol Officer Respondents by Hours of Leadership Training

Hours of Leadership Training	#	%
0 to 5	35	34.0
6 to 10	3	2.9
11 to 15	8	7.8
16 to 20	4	3.9
21 to 30	4	3.9
31 to 40	6	5.8
41 to 50	5	8.7
51 to 100	5	4.8
More than 100 hours	5	4.8
More than 200 hours	23	22.3

Approximately one-fifth of the sample (17.5%) had worked as law enforcement officers between 18 months and 2 years. Twenty-one percent of the sample had worked in law enforcement between 2 and 5 years. Twenty-six percent had worked as law enforcement officers between 5 and 10 years. Approximately one-fifth (22.3%) worked as law enforcement officers between 10 and 15 years. Less than 13% (12.6%) worked in law enforcement between 15 and 25 years. Table 7 presents patrol officer respondents by years in law enforcement.

Table 7

Patrol Officer Respondents by Years in Law Enforcement

Years in Law Enforcement	#	%
18 months to 2 years	18	17.5
2 to 5 years	22	21.4
6 to 10 years	27	26.2
11 to 15 years	23	22.3
16 to 20 years	11	10.7
21 to 25 years	2	1.9

Sample of Supervisors

The frequencies and percentages describing the sample of supervisors are presented in this section. As can be seen from the Table 7, all but one supervisor was male. The majority of the sample (76.2%) fell between 31 to 40 years of age. The minority of the sample (23.8%) fell between the ages of 41 to 50. Tables 8 and 9 present supervisor respondents by gender and age respectively.

Table 8

Supervisor Respondents by Gender

Gender	#	%
Male	20	95.2
Female	1	4.8

Table 9

Supervisor Respondents by Age

Age	#	%
21 to 25	0	0
26 to 30	0	0
31 to 35	6	28.6
36 to 40	10	47.6
41 to 45	2	9.5
46 to 50	3	14.3
51 to 55	0	0

Close to half of the sample of supervisors completed between 1-4 years of college (42.9%). Fifty-seven percent of the sample had a bachelor's or master's degree. Table 10 presents supervisor respondents by amount of college education.

Table 10

Supervisor Respondents by Amount of College Education

Amount of College Education	#	%
High School	0	0
> 1 year of college	1	4.8
> 2 years of college	3	14.3
> 3 years of college	2	9.5
> 4 years of college	3	14.3
Bachelors Degree	10	47.6
Master's Degree	2	9.5
Doctoral Degree	0	0

A minority of the sample of supervisors (9.5%) had five or fewer hours of leadership training which was defined as training focused specifically on developing supervisory and leadership skills. Twenty-eight percent of the sample had 35 to 50 hours of leadership training. Thirty-eight percent of the sample of supervisors had between 100 and 200 hours of leadership training. About one-fifth of the sample (23.8%) had between 300 and 400 hours of leadership training. Table 11 presents supervisor respondents by hours of leadership training.

Table 11

Supervisor Respondents by Hours of Leadership Training

Hours of Leadership Training	#	%
0 to 5	2	9.5
6 to 10	0	0
11 to 15	0	0
16 to 20	0	0
21 to 30	0	0
31 to 40	3	14.3
41 to 50	3	14.3
51 to 100	1	4.7
More than 100 hours	3	14.3
More than 200 hours	4	19.0
More than 300 hours	3	14.3
More than 400 hours	2	9.5

One-third of the sample (33.3%) had worked as law enforcement officers between 5 and 10 years. Forty-three percent of the sample had worked in law enforcement between 10 and 15 years. Twenty-four percent had worked as law enforcement officers between 15 and 25 years. Table 12 presents supervisor respondents by years in law enforcement.

Table 12

Supervisor Respondents by Years in Law Enforcement

Years in Law Enforcement	#	%
18 months to 2 years	0	0
2 to 5 years	0	0
6 to 10 years	7	33.3
11 to 15 years	9	42.9
16 to 20 years	3	14.3
21 to 25 years	2	9.5

Close to half of the sample (47.6%) had been supervisors for 5 to 10 years.

Thirty-eight percent were supervisors for 18 months to 5 years. A minority (14.4%) had been supervisors for 10 to 25 years. Table 13 presents supervisor respondents by years as a supervisor.

Table 13

Supervisor Respondents by Years as a Supervisor

Years as a Supervisor	#	%
18 months to 2 years	5	23.8
2 to 5 years	3	14.3
6 to 10 years	10	47.6
11 to 15 years	1	4.8
16 to 20 years	1	4.8
21 to 25 years	1	4.8

Data Analysis

In this study, it was hypothesized that supervisor training, education, work experience, and age would have an impact on the job satisfaction levels of patrol officers. The objective of this study was to examine the impact of supervisor training on patrol officer levels of job satisfaction; however, because many factors other than supervisor training have the potential to influence job satisfaction, those factors were considered as well. Consideration of significant job satisfaction factors individually allowed separation of the influence that each factor had on patrol officer job satisfaction.

Participants in the survey were asked to consider their current supervisor, who was assigned a random number that participants indicated on their response. Considering only that single, current supervisor, participants were asked to provide responses to the

JDI/JIG survey from Bowling Green State University. Participants were asked to rate how each of a series of words or phrases describes coworkers, supervisors, job settings, or job situations as indicated. The participants were asked to indicate “YES,” “NO,” or “?,” Participants were instructed that YES means that the word or phrase does describe the coworkers, supervisors, job settings, or job situations indicated. Participants were instructed that NO means that the word or phrase does not describe the coworkers, supervisors, job settings, or job situations indicated.

Participants were instructed that “?” means that they believe that the word or phrase does not apply or that they are unsure whether the descriptor word provided accurately describes the coworkers, supervisors, job settings, or job situations indicated. The JDI survey itself does not indicate job satisfaction, therefore, the JIG is used to complement the JDI to include job satisfaction rating (Balzer et al., 1997). The internal consistency reliability for the JDI according to Cronbach’s α estimate is a range of 0.86 to 0.91, which is supported by data collected by 1,600 participants. The internal consistency reliability for the JIG is 0.92 (Balzer et al.).

Survey Results for Supervisor Characteristics (H1₀ to H6₀)

The first set of hypotheses in this study were H1₀- H6₀, which collectively stated that there are no differences between the factors (supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family income, and supervisor age) in terms of job satisfaction of the patrol officers as measured by the jobs in general scores from the JIG.. Analysis of variance procedures were used to test these hypotheses. A Cronbach’s α of 0.05 was specified for all overall tests; were conducted when the overall *F*-value was statistically significant. In this section, the

results of the JIG scale will be presented first. In the following section the results for each of the subscales of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) will be described.

Job in General

Statistical analysis of the data collected in this study using ANOVA, using JIG responses as dependent variables and hours of leadership training, educational level, years in law enforcement, and age as the independent variables, indicated that 3 out of 4 supervisor characteristics had a significant impact on mean ratings of satisfaction about the job in general. First, the number of leadership training hours was significantly related to satisfaction about the job in general ($F(6,85) = 2.23, p < 0.05$). Second, the educational level of supervisors was significantly related to satisfaction about the job in general ($F(5,85) = 3.06, p = 0.01$). Third, supervisors' age was significantly related to satisfaction about the job in general ($F(3,85) = 2.78, p < 0.05$). However, post-hoc test procedures did not generate any statistically significant differences between groups for any of these three factors. The null hypotheses that these factors are not related to satisfaction with job in general cannot be rejected. Table 14 presents the ANOVA results for job satisfaction collected in the Job In General section of the survey instrument. Appendix C presents the means and standard deviations of the results for the Job In General data.

Table 14

ANOVA Results for Job Satisfaction Using Job in General Survey

Variable	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Overall Model	17	1.006	0.082
Hours of Leadership Training	6	2.230	0.048
Educational Level	5	3.058	0.014
Years in Law Enforcement	3	2.626	0.056
Age	3	2.784	0.046
Error	85		

Job Descriptive Index

The Job Descriptive Index includes five facets of the workplace: (a) People at Work, (b) Work, (c) Pay, (d) Opportunities for Promotion, and (e) Supervision. This section presents the findings from each of the five facets of the Job Descriptive Index.

People at work. ANOVA statistical analysis, using satisfaction with people at work as the dependent variable and hours of leadership training, educational level, years in law enforcement and age as the independent variables, indicated that none of the four supervisor characteristics addressed in the survey had a significant impact on mean ratings of satisfaction about people at work. Table 15 presents the ANOVA results for the job satisfaction levels with respect to the People at Work section of the Job in General survey instrument. Appendix D presents the means and standard deviations of the results for the People at Work section of the Job in General survey instrument.

Table 15

ANOVA Results for Satisfaction about the People at Work

Variable	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Overall Model	17	0.837	0.647
Hours of Leadership Training	6	0.309	0.931
Educational Level	5	0.366	0.870
Years in Law Enforcement	3	0.295	0.829
Age	3	0.479	0.698
Error	85		

Work. ANOVA statistical analysis indicated, using satisfaction about work as dependent variable and hours of leadership training, educational level, years in law enforcement and age as independent variables, that none of the four supervisor characteristics addressed in the survey had a significant impact on mean ratings of satisfaction about work. Table 16 presents the ANOVA results for the job satisfaction levels with respect to the Work section of the Job in General survey instrument. Appendix E presents the means and standard deviations of the results for the Work section of the Job in General survey instrument.

Table 16

ANOVA Results for Satisfaction about Work

Variable	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Overall Model	17	0.992	0.475
Hours of Leadership Training	6	0.483	0.819
Educational Level	5	0.239	0.944
Years in Law Enforcement	3	0.697	0.557
Age	3	0.603	0.615
Error	85		

Pay. ANOVA statistical analysis, using satisfaction with pay as the dependent variable and hours of leadership training, educational level, years in law enforcement, and age as the independent variables, indicated that none of the four supervisor characteristics addressed in the survey had a significant impact on mean ratings of satisfaction about pay. Table 17 presents the ANOVA results for the job satisfaction levels with respect to the Pay section of the Job in General survey instrument. Appendix F presents the means and standard deviations of the results for the Pay section of the Job in General survey instrument.

Table 17

ANOVA Results for Satisfaction about the Pay

Variable	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Overall Model	17	0.897	0.579
Hours of Leadership Training	6	1.148	0.342
Educational Level	5	0.835	0.529
Years in Law Enforcement	3	0.339	0.797
Age	3	0.126	0.945
Error	85		

Opportunities for promotion. ANOVA statistical analysis, using satisfaction about opportunities for promotion as dependent variable and hours of leadership training, educational level, years in law enforcement and age as independent variables, indicated that none of the four supervisor characteristics addressed in the survey had a significant impact on mean ratings of satisfaction about opportunities for promotion. Table 18 presents the ANOVA results for the job satisfaction levels with respect to the Opportunities for Promotion section of the Job in General survey instrument. Appendix G presents the means and standard deviations of the results for the Opportunities for Promotion section of the Job in General survey instrument.

Table 18

ANOVA Results for Satisfaction about Opportunities for Promotion

Variable	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Overall Model	17	0.499	0.947
Hours of Leadership Training	6	0.384	0.887
Educational Level	5	0.532	0.752
Years in Law Enforcement	3	0.571	0.636
Age	3	0.789	0.503
Error	85		

Supervision. ANOVA statistical analysis, using satisfaction with supervision as the dependent variable and hours of leadership training, educational level, years in law enforcement and age as the independent variables, indicated that none of the four supervisor characteristics addressed in the survey had a significant impact on mean ratings of satisfaction about supervision. Table 19 presents the ANOVA results for the job satisfaction levels with respect to the Supervision section of the Job in General survey instrument. Appendix H presents the means and standard deviations of the results for the Supervision section of the Job in General survey instrument.

Table 19

ANOVA Results for Satisfaction about Supervision

Variable	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Overall Model	17	0.499	0.947
Hours of Leadership Training	6	0.384	0.887
Educational Level	5	0.532	0.752
Years in Law Enforcement	3	0.571	0.636
Age	3	0.789	0.503
Error	85		

Survey Results for Patrol Officer Characteristics (H7₀ to H12₀)

The second set of hypotheses in this study focused on the influence of patrol officer characteristics on levels of patrol officer job satisfactions. H7₀ to H12₀ collectively stated that there are no differences between the factors (patrol officer training, patrol officer college education, patrol officer work experience, patrol officer family size, patrol officer family income and patrol officer age) in terms of job satisfaction of the patrol officers as measured by the jobs in general scores from the JIG. Analysis of variance procedures were used to test these hypotheses. A Cronbach's α of 0.05 was specified for all overall tests; Tukey post-hoc tests were conducted when the overall *F*-value was statistically significant. In this section, the results of the JIG scale will first be presented. In the following section the results for each of the subscales of the JDI is described. Analysis of variance procedures were used to test hypotheses H7₀ to H12₀. An α of 0.05

was specified for all overall tests; Tukey post-hoc tests were conducted when the overall F -value was statistically significant. In this section, the results of the JIG scale will first be presented. The results for each of the subscales of the JDI will be described in the sections following the JIG presentation.

Job in General

ANOVA analyses indicate that one out of four patrol officers' characteristics had a significant impact on mean ratings of satisfaction about the job in general. In particular, the educational level of patrol officers was significantly related to satisfaction about the job in general ($F(6,76) = 2.45, p = 0.03$). Post-hoc test procedures reveal that patrol officers with a master's degree had lower mean satisfaction scores ($M = 25.33$) than officers with less than 1 year of college ($M = 32.55, p = 0.01$), officers with less than 2 years of college ($M = 31.81, p = 0.01$), officers with less than 3 years of college ($M = 34.06, p < .01$), officers with less than 4 years of college ($M = 31.35, p = 0.02$), and officers with a bachelor's degree ($M = 32.07, p < 0.01$). Table 20 presents the ANOVA results for job satisfaction levels with respect to the Work section of the Job in General survey instrument. Appendix I presents the means and standard deviations of the results for the Work section of the Job in General survey instrument.

Table 20

ANOVA Results for Job Satisfaction Using Job in General Survey

Variable	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Overall Model	25	1.681	0.044
Hours of Leadership Training	8	1.064	0.397
Educational Level	6	2.452	0.032
Years in Law Enforcement	5	0.459	0.806
Age	6	1.002	0.430
Error	76		

Job Descriptive Index

The Job Descriptive Index includes five facets of the workplace: (a) People at Work, (b) Work, (c) Pay, (d) Opportunities for Promotion, and (e) Supervision. This section presents the findings from each of the five facets of the Job Descriptive Index.

People at work. ANOVA statistical analysis indicated that none of the four patrol officer characteristics addressed in the survey had a significant impact on mean ratings of satisfaction about people at work. Table 21 presents the ANOVA results for the job satisfaction levels with respect to the People at Work section of the Job in General survey instrument. Appendix J presents the means and standard deviations of the results for the People at Work section of the Job in General survey instrument.

Table 21

ANOVA Results for Satisfaction about the People at Work

Variable	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Overall Model	25	0.827	0.696
Hours of Leadership Training	8	0.835	0.574
Educational Level	6	0.529	0.78
Years in Law Enforcement	5	1.129	0.353
Age	6	0.371	0.895
Error	76		

Work. ANOVA statistical analysis indicated that one of four patrol officers' characteristics had a significant impact on mean ratings of satisfaction for work. Specifically, number of hours spent in leadership training was significantly related to mean ratings of satisfaction for work ($F(8,76) = 2.39, p = 0.02$). Post-hoc procedures, however, did not yield any significant differences between groups; therefore, it is not possible to reject the null hypothesis that hours of leadership training was significantly related to satisfaction for work. Table 22 presents the ANOVA results for the job satisfaction levels with respect to the Work section of the Job in General survey instrument. Appendix K presents the means and standard deviations of the results for the Work section of the Job in General survey instrument.

Table 22

ANOVA Results for Satisfaction about Work

Variable	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Overall Model	25	1.794	0.028
Hours of Leadership Training	8	2.39	0.023
Educational Level	6	1.478	0.197
Years in Law Enforcement	5	2.207	0.062
Age	6	1.020	0.419
Error	76		

Pay. ANOVA statistical analysis indicated that none of the four patrol officer characteristics addressed in the survey had a significant impact on mean ratings of satisfaction about pay. Table 23 presents the ANOVA results for the job satisfaction levels with respect to the Pay section of the Job in General survey instrument. Appendix L presents the means and standard deviations of the results for the Pay section of the Job in General survey instrument.

Table 23

ANOVA Results for Satisfaction about the Pay

Variable	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Overall Model	25	0.928	0.568
Hours of Leadership Training	8	1.272	0.271
Educational Level	6	0.753	0.609
Years in Law Enforcement	5	0.315	0.903
Age	6	0.218	0.970
Error	76		

Opportunities for promotion. ANOVA statistical analysis indicated that none of the four patrol officer characteristics addressed in the survey had a significant impact on mean ratings of satisfaction about opportunities for promotion. Table 24 presents the ANOVA results for the job satisfaction levels with respect to the Opportunities for Promotion section of the Job in General survey instrument. Appendix M presents the means and standard deviations of the results for the Opportunities for Promotion section of the Job in General survey instrument.

Table 24

ANOVA Results for Satisfaction about Opportunities for Promotion

Variable	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Overall Model	25	0.613	0.915
Hours of Leadership Training	8	1.188	0.318
Educational Level	6	0.523	0.789
Years in Law Enforcement	5	0.519	0.761
Age	6	0.414	0.868
Error	76		

Supervision. ANOVA statistical analysis indicated that none of the four patrol officer characteristics addressed in the survey had a significant impact on mean ratings of satisfaction about supervision. Table 25 presents the ANOVA results for the job satisfaction levels with respect to the Supervision section of the Job in General survey instrument. Appendix N presents the means and standard deviations of the results for the Supervision section of the Job in General survey instrument.

Table 25

ANOVA Results for Satisfaction about Supervision

Variable	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Overall Model	25	1.182	0.284
Hours of Leadership Training	8	1.823	0.086
Educational Level	6	1.129	0.354
Years in Law Enforcement	5	0.400	0.848
Age	6	1.032	0.411
Error	76		

Hypotheses

This study focused on two sets of hypotheses. H1₀- H6₀ collectively stated that the factors (supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family income, and supervisor age) have no impact on the job satisfaction of the patrol officers. H7₀- H12₀ collectively stated that the factors (patrol officer training, patrol officer college education, patrol officer work experience, patrol officer family size, patrol officer family income, and patrol officer age) have no impact on the job satisfaction levels of patrol officers. Using ANOVA to analyze the data collected in this study allowed the researcher to differentiate between the factors that may influence job satisfaction and indicated variation in the level of satisfaction in patrol officers as explained by the independent variables in the model.

The best choice for analysis in this study was ANOVA because it allowed examination as to if each one of the independent variables in the model had a significant effect on the level of satisfaction. If a significant relationship between one and all of the variables was found to exist, then the test statistic obtained from the analysis would exceed the critical value based on the results in the ANOVA table. For ANOVA, the test statistic that is used to assess the relationship between variables is the *F*-statistic, which comes from the *F*-distribution. If the test statistic was found to be greater than a critical *F*-value on $k - 1$ and $n - p - 1$ degrees of freedom (where k is the number of categories for the independent variable, p is the number of parameters that are estimated in the model and n is the total number of observations), then the conclusion could be made that the independent variable significantly affected the level of satisfaction of patrol officers.

In order to address the null hypotheses, the information gathered from the ANOVA tables provided evidence as to if any of the independent variables have a significant effect on the level of satisfaction. In order to answer $H1_0$ - $H6_0$ the independent variable considered would be the supervisor training variable. If the test statistic for this variable was found to be greater than the critical level, then the conclusion could be made that the training of had a significant effect on the level of satisfaction in patrol officers.

To answer $H1_0$ - $H6_0$, the independent variable considered would be the amount of leadership training for the patrol officer's supervisor. If the test statistic for this variable was greater than the critical level, then the conclusion could be made that the education level of the participant significantly affected the level of satisfaction in patrol officers.

To answer $H7_0$ - $H12_0$, the independent variable that would be considered would be the education of the patrol officer. If the test statistic for this variable was greater than

the critical level, then the conclusion could be made that the education level of the participant significantly affected the level of satisfaction in patrol officers.

Additionally, in all of the hypotheses, one of the independent variables considered would be the experience of the participants. If the test statistic for this variable was greater than the critical level, then the conclusion could be made that the experience level of the participant significantly affected the level of satisfaction in patrol officers.

Another independent variable that is explored in all of the hypotheses was the size of the participant's family. If the test statistic for this variable was greater than the critical level, then the conclusion could be made that the size of the participant's family significantly affected the level of satisfaction in patrol officers.

In all of the hypotheses one of the independent variables considered was the income of the participant's family. If the test statistic for this variable was greater than the critical level, then the conclusion could be made that the income of the participant's family significantly affected the level of satisfaction in patrol officers.

Last, H_{10} - H_{12_0} explored the independent variable that would be considered would be the age of the participant. If the test statistic for this variable was greater than the critical level then the conclusion could be made that the age of the participant significantly affected the level of satisfaction in patrol officers.

The rationale for investigating other job satisfaction factors such as experience, family size, family income, and age is to isolate each potential source of job satisfaction completely. By individually examining the common factors contributing to job satisfaction, verification is made that the objective of this study, supervisor training, was examined independently of others.

H1₀- H6₀ collectively stated that the factors (supervisor training, supervisor college education, supervisor work experience, supervisor family size, supervisor family income, and supervisor age) have no impact on the job satisfaction of the patrol officers. The findings in this study indicated that supervisor training, education, and age were not significantly related to patrol officers' satisfaction for the job in general. These factors were not significantly related to satisfaction for people in terms of job, work, pay, opportunities for promotion, and supervision. H1₀- H6₀ cannot be rejected.

H7₀- H12₀ collectively stated that the factors (patrol officer training, patrol officer college education, patrol officer work experience, patrol officer family size, patrol officer family income, and patrol officer age) have no impact on the job satisfaction levels of patrol officers. Patrol officer education was the only demographic characteristic that had statistically significant findings. Therefore, H8₀ can be rejected. However, overall, no other demographic characteristics of the patrol officers had a significant impact on their satisfaction levels. H7₀, H9₀, H10₀, H11₀, and H12₀ cannot be rejected.

Chapter Summary

Chapter 4 provided an analysis of the data using the ANOVA and, when necessary, the Tukey post-hoc tests. The results were compiled from a population of 103 patrol officers and 21 supervisors who participated in an anonymous online survey available through the Internet. Chapter 5 provides a summary of the research questions, data collection and analysis processes, and an analysis of the results in the context of the existing literature. Recommendations for future studies that have surfaced from the findings are made. Chapter 5 also outlines the benefits that have occurred from this

research study, recommendations for law enforcement training organizations, future research suggestions, and the conclusion.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents the conclusions drawn from the analysis of the data. The conclusions are presented in the context of the relevant literature on the subject of job satisfaction levels in patrol officers. This chapter will be divided into four sections. The first section will discuss the findings and conclusions of the study with respect to the results presented in chapter 4 in the context of the relevant literature and the goals of the study. The second section will present recommendations and conclusions based on the findings of this study. The third section will review the implications of the study's finding for leadership. The fourth and final section will discuss the limitations of the study and will provide a guideline for further research.

The main objective of this study was to determine if leadership training for police supervisors could be statistically associated with the reported job satisfaction levels of patrol officers. The objective of the study prompted the following research questions:

Research Question 1: Are there any differences between the factors (supervisor training, college education, work experience, family size, family income, and age) and the job satisfaction levels as measured by the Jobs in General scores and the (a) People at Work, (b) Work, (c) Pay, (d) Opportunities for Promotion, and (e) Supervision of patrol officers?

Research Question 2: Are there any differences between the factors (patrol officer training, college education, work experience, family size, family income, and age) and the job satisfaction levels as measured by the Jobs in General scores and the (a) People at

Work, (b) Work, (c) Pay, (d) Opportunities for Promotion, and (e) Supervision of patrol officers?

In order to answer the research questions, this study hypothesized that the supervisors' demographic factors could influence the job satisfaction levels of patrol officers. This study also hypothesized that patrol officers' demographic factors could impact the job satisfaction levels of patrol officers. The demographic factors of police supervisors and patrol officers were integrated into the analyses.

To test these hypotheses, this study conducted analysis of variance procedures, specifying a statistical significance level of 0.05. Tukey post-hoc procedures were performed when the overall effect was statistically significant. In this chapter, the results of the statistical analysis will be discussed with regard to relevant literature on the subject.

Relevant Literature and Study Findings

Supervision and leadership are not without responsibility. Historically, law enforcement leadership relied on experience and the Great Man Theory. Collins (2001) agreed that high-level leadership traits could be innate and not learnable, as suggested in the Great Man Theory (Bass, 1990). Despite the pervasive belief in the Great Man Theory of leadership, the results of this study indicate that leadership skills must be taught. Taxpayers in the community absorb the associated costs, including training costs, for law enforcement. Research by Weiss (2004) has suggested that "given the complex nature of police leadership, law enforcement organizations would do well to spend their time and money on developing those skills that seem to uniquely describe superior performance" (p. 184) of leaders. Training and education are identified through research

as influences that most affect the performance of first-line leaders (Bass; Kerr et al., 1986).

The first set of hypotheses stated that the number of hours of leadership training, level of education, amount of work experience, experience as a supervisor, gender, and age of supervisor would have no significant impact on the job satisfaction levels of patrol officers. This study categorized job satisfaction levels into six different categories: (a) the job in general, (b) people at work, (c) work, (d) pay, (e) opportunities for promotion, and (f) supervision. According to the results presented in chapter 4, supervisors' number of leadership training hours, education level, and age significantly impacted mean ratings of satisfaction about the job in general. Work experience was not a significant factor. However, post hoc procedures found that none of the four factors were found to be significantly related to the descriptive.

The second set of hypotheses stated that the number of hours of leadership training, level of education, amount of work experience, gender, and age of patrol officers would have no significant impact on the job satisfaction levels of patrol officers. These hypotheses used the same five categories to categorize factors that influence job satisfaction. According to the results presented in chapter 4, out of the five factors analyzed, only the amount of education significantly impacted mean ratings of general job satisfaction. Out of the more specific dimensions of job satisfaction, only satisfaction with regard to work was affected by one of the four factors.

Of critical importance to this study was a review of the literature addressing job satisfaction in law enforcement. Job satisfaction in law enforcement has been examined in the literature with respect to personal variables like education level, ethnicity, and

gender and with respect to work environment variables like stress, job burnout, cynicism, and alienation (Zhao et al., 1999). According to Zhao et al., environmental factors were much more significant in determining levels of satisfaction than personal factors. While the findings of this study do not compare the two different types of variables, the results address both types.

Personal variables like supervisor age, level of education, and hours of training do not significantly impacted satisfaction. These findings support the work of Reiner and Zhou (1999) in their study of satisfaction levels among United States Air Force security forces. According to their findings, while environmental factors were significantly related to job satisfaction, personal factors were not. Well-trained supervisors, however, have significant influence on the environmental factors and perceptions about those environmental factors affecting employees (Bass, 1985; Bryant, 2003; Coughlan, 2005; Moynihan, 2005).

Despite the fact that this study's post hoc findings do not support the consensus in existing literature that training of both supervisors and employees within law enforcement directly impacts levels of job satisfaction, particularly with regard to work. This study did find that leadership training hours, education level, and age significantly impacted mean ratings of satisfaction about the job in general. Many law enforcement organizations highly value training and are increasingly implementing leadership training as a prerequisite within the department (Argyris, 1976; Hassell et al., 2003). Despite this trend, however, leadership training is not required by law enforcement organizations, which instead insist that experience is sufficient (Argyris, 1962; Murphy & Drodge, 2003; Wren, 1995).

The literature suggested that employees are not satisfied by the leadership skills of supervisors without acquired leadership training (Arsenault, 2004; Hill & Stephens, 2003; Murphy & Drodge). In addition, the literature suggested that inadequate leadership training negatively affected satisfaction (Herzberg, 1959; Isaac et al., 2001). The results of this study support the conclusions of these authors in the specific context of the job satisfaction of patrol officers, as the data indicates that, in general, increased training results in higher job satisfaction at work.

In addition to reviewing the literature surrounding leadership training, this study addressed the literature with regard to job satisfaction. Herzberg defined the intrinsic factors of satisfaction as achievement, recognition for achievement, the work itself, responsibility, and growth or advancement (Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Herzberg; Maslow, 1954). Barrick and Mount's (1991) Big Five personality framework: extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience, was tested for correlation to Herzberg's intrinsic factors, producing a 0.41 correlation.

Job satisfaction is significant because of its relationship to retention and performance. Herzberg et al. (1959) found that high levels of job satisfaction are directly related to the likelihood of changing jobs. Findings confirmed that job satisfaction was significantly and positively related to the overall performance of an organization (Murphy & Southey, 2003; O'Connell et al., 2002; Ostroff). However, Cropanzano and Wright (2000) found that psychological well-being must also be taken into account when addressing performance.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Law enforcement agencies are pressed to recruit, hire, and retain law enforcement officer who are able to do their job effectively. Job satisfaction contributes to employee tenure and performance accomplishments (Castenda & Nahavandi, 1991). Leadership training provides an assurance regarding the consistency and effectiveness of leadership skills used by law enforcement supervisors. These skills include motivation, support, and adaptation skills, among many others (Moynihan, 2005). The impact of first-line supervisor training warranted research to determine its impact on the reported level of job satisfaction from the patrol officers they supervise. However, the field of training and education in law enforcement is broad and nebulous, especially for supervisors.

This study's findings help to fill the literature gap in determining the factors, with particular emphasis on leadership training, that impact job satisfaction among patrol officers. This study proved the first null hypothesis to be false; levels of job satisfaction, particularly general job satisfaction, were significantly impacted by supervisors' hours of leadership training, level of education, and age. According to the findings of this study, which are supported by relevant literature, this study recommends that law enforcement organizations continue to develop leadership training programs. Increased exposure to leadership methods and leadership experience should help supervisors within law enforcement. Increased satisfaction among police patrol officers, according to the literature, should have benefits such as increased retention and productivity rates. Additionally, none of the more specific aspects of job satisfaction, however, were significantly impacted by these factors.

The results of this study indicated that the first set of null hypotheses was proven false; the second set of null hypotheses was proven false, except for one factor addressing one dimension. The level of satisfaction by patrol officers, as measured by job satisfaction in general, was significantly impacted by the educational level of patrol officers. The implications of this study are of significant importance, because they signify obvious ways for law enforcement organizations to enhance productivity and retention rates. In addition, this notion runs counter to beliefs held by many law enforcement organizations that job experience alone is sufficient for a successful program. This study recommends that law enforcement organizations continue to emphasize and expand their training programs, especially in accordance to the literature that suggests that satisfaction and productivity run hand in hand. None of the other factors in this study, however, significantly impacted any of the levels of satisfaction. Additionally, the results of this study indicate that environmental factors within the organization may be a source of frustration for patrol officers with higher levels of education and, as a result, create lower levels of job satisfaction. Senge (1994) conducted research the need for administrators to create the environment of a *learning organization* that supports and rises to meet the demands of education and training acquired by its members. This information will empower law enforcement agencies to allocate time and funds to support leadership training appropriately for first-line law enforcement supervisors.

Implications of the Study

The results of this study prompted several implications for leadership. The relationship between job satisfaction and job performance as goals of training is reflected in an organization's goal to improve overall effectiveness (Acemoglu & Piske, 1998;

Alavi & Askaripur, 2003; Bennis, 1994). Acemoglu and Pisce's study, "Why Do Firms Train? Theory and Evidence," finds that one of the main forces driving job-sponsored training is that in equilibrium, training makes the difference in employees increasing performance. In the context of the findings of Acemoglu and Pisce's study, the results from the present study imply that increased training of patrol officers could benefit the performance of law enforcement via the improvement of patrol officer job satisfaction. If the police department devoted additional time to in-house training of patrol officers and their supervisors, it could increase the quality of law enforcement in practice, which could benefit the safety of taxpayers.

According to Baehr et al. (1968), Gordon (2002), and Weiskittel (1999), lack of leadership training, especially the training of supervisors, has been found to often lead to a false understanding of actual responsibilities and legal implications. The results of this study imply that there may be a relationship between the education level of patrol officers and their supervisors, job satisfaction levels of patrol officers, and their ability to do their jobs well. If patrol officers are unclear on their job responsibilities and the legal implications of those responsibilities as a result of inadequate training, they may perform their job incorrectly, which could have a negative affect on job satisfaction, particularly in the dimension of work as identified by the results of this study.

Limitations, Delimitations, and Opportunities for Further Research

Limitations

This quantitative comparative study has limitations and exceptions that prohibit this study from being generalized to all law enforcement organizations. This study includes only patrol officers who have completed their probationary period and therefore

have at least 18 months of law enforcement training and experience. This study is limited to law enforcement professionals employed as patrol officers and supervisor or first-line supervisors in a large-sized law enforcement agency in southern Nevada. Only the OnlineSurveys.com survey was used to collect data. Last, the results of this study are based upon the results of the participants' responses indicating their perceptions at the time the survey was given.

This quantitative study was limited by the assumption that the participants honestly answered all questions that they accessed online via a self-administered survey instrument. Limitations are present in the assumption that the participants accurately linked leadership skills exhibited by their most recent supervisor to the job satisfaction indicators on the OnlineSurvey.com survey instrument and answered relative to their current environment and standards.

The option of choosing “?” indicating *I don't know* was an option for each question and participants were encouraged to choose this option if they were unsure or believed the response solicited to be irrelevant. Participants were requested to provide responses from their own experiences and not from things that they may have heard or seen with regard to others. The participants completed the surveys in the absence of their supervisors from a secure Internet server, without outside resources, and were asked not to collaborate, share, or communicate their answers at anytime during or upon completing the survey.

Delimitations

This research was confined to surveying participants of a large-sized law enforcement agency in southern Nevada. Only patrol officers and first-line police

supervisors will be surveyed for self-reported beliefs, which respectfully excluded probationary officers whose job status is “at will,” as well as key stakeholders, also known as police administration. Only patrol officers who were hired as law enforcement officers after September 2006 and first-line police supervisors were included in this study. To ensure anonymity, generalized groups were specified rather than identifying and comparing specific individuals, groups, or participants.

Further Research

Future research should take the limitations and delimitations of this study into account when developing a research methodology. In order to conduct a study that can be further generalized, future studies should consider pursuing participants from multiple or other geographic regions of the United States. Patrol officers in southern Nevada may not accurately represent the views of patrol officers across the country. Future studies may also look at other members of law enforcement beyond supervisor and patrol officers. Future research could also examine at the relationship between a three-fold relationship of leadership training, job satisfaction, and job productivity.

The connection between job satisfaction, motivation, and productivity has been researched to show positive results for the organization as a whole. In the field of law enforcement, research can be conducted to identify the connection between job satisfaction and job performance and the resulting influence of crime rates. These relationships have been studied in the literature individually. Given the geographic and time-based limitations of the research, benefits would be obtained by conducting as study that could make explicit connections, rather than implicit connections, between these three variables. Future research could also address these variables through qualitative

analysis, with personalized interviews regarding perceptions of leadership training and satisfaction. While such an approach may be difficult to employ, additional insight would be provided for these relationships as the surveys used in this study were limited in their questioning and scope.

In addition, future research should investigate other variables beyond age, education level, and work experience in addition to leadership training hours when studying job satisfaction. Other variables could include personality traits and a test to determine psychological well-being. The implications for future research are vast. A significant amount of literature addressing leadership training and satisfaction exist, however, a gap exists in the area addressing these variables within the scope of law enforcement. Improving our collective understanding of job satisfaction and leadership should lead to enhanced employment opportunities and better functioning law enforcement organizations.

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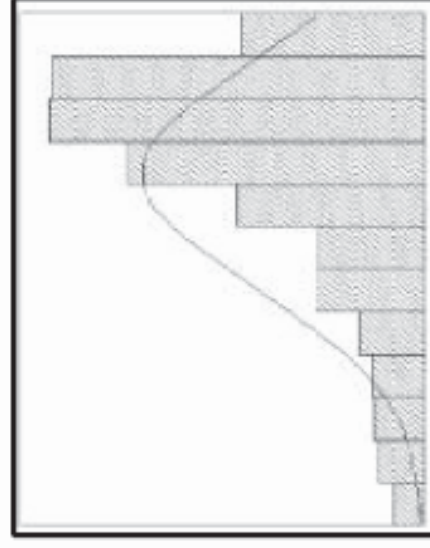
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APPENDIX A: COPY OF SURVEY INSTRUMENT

THE JOB DESCRIPTIVE



INDEX

including

The Job in General Scale
(1997 Revision)



People on Your Present Job

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

Y for "Yes" if it describes the people with whom you work
N for "No" if it does not describe them
? for "?" if you cannot decide

.....

Stimulating

Boring

Slow

Helpful

Stupid

Responsible

Fast

Intelligent

Easy to make enemies

Talk too much

Smart

Lazy

Unpleasant

Gossipy

Active

Narrow interests

Loyal

Stubborn

Job in General

Think of your job in general. All in all, what is it like most of the time? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y for "Yes" if it describes your job
N for "No" if it does not describe it
? for "?" if you cannot decide

.....

Pleasant

Bad

Ideal

Waste of time

Good

Undesirable

Worthwhile

Worse than most

Acceptable

Superior

Better than most

Disagreeable

Makes me content

Inadequate

Excellent

Rotten

Enjoyable

Poor

Work on Present Job	Pay	Opportunities for Promotion	Supervision
<p>Think of the work you do at present. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your work? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write</p> <p>Y for "Yes" if it describes your work N for "No" if it does not describe it ? for "?" if you cannot decide</p> <p>.....</p> <p>Fascinating _____ Routine _____ Satisfying _____ Boring _____ Good _____ Gives sense of accomplishment _____ Respected _____ Uncomfortable _____ Pleasant _____ Useful _____ Challenging _____ Simple _____ Repetitive _____ Creative _____ Dull _____ Uninteresting _____ Can see results _____ Uses my abilities _____</p>	<p>Think of the pay you get now. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your present pay? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write</p> <p>Y for "Yes" if it describes your pay N for "No" if it does not describe it ? for "?" if you cannot decide</p> <p>.....</p> <p>Income adequate for normal expenses _____ Fair _____ Barely live on income _____ Bad _____ Income provides luxuries _____ Less than I deserve _____ Well paid _____ Insecure _____ Underpaid _____</p>	<p>Think of the opportunities for promotion that you have now. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe these? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write</p> <p>Y for "Yes" if it describes your opportunities for promotion N for "No" if it does not describe them ? for "?" if you cannot decide</p> <p>.....</p> <p>Good opportunities for promotion _____ Opportunities somewhat limited _____ Promotion on ability _____ Dead-end job _____ Good chance for promotion _____ Unfair promotion policy _____ Infrequent promotions _____ Regular promotions _____ Fairly good chance for promotion _____</p>	<p>Think of the kind of supervision that you get on your job. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe this? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write</p> <p>Y for "Yes" if it describes the supervision you get on the job N for "No" if it does not describe it ? for "?" if you cannot decide</p> <p>.....</p> <p>Ask my advice _____ Hard to please _____ Impolite _____ Praises good work _____ Tactful _____ Influential _____ Up-to-date _____ Doesn't supervise enough _____ Has favorites _____ Tells me where I stand _____ Annoying _____ Stubborn _____ Knows job well _____ Bad _____ Intelligent _____ Poor planner _____ Around when needed _____ Lazy _____</p>

APPENDIX B: INFORMED CONSENT

Dear participant

I am a student at the University of Phoenix working on a Doctoral Degree in Educational Leadership. I am conducting a research study entitled: The Relationship Between Police Supervisor Training and Job Satisfaction Levels as Reported by Patrol Officers.

The purpose of the research study is to investigate relationship between training, the predictor variable, completed by first line law enforcement supervisors and the job satisfaction levels, criterion variable, of patrol officers who report to them in large sized police department of over 300 commissioned officers located in southern Nevada.

Your participation will involve filling out an anonymous online survey which will take approximately 15 minutes. Your participation in this study is voluntary. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, you can do so without penalty or loss of benefit to yourself. The results of the research study may be published but your name will not be used and your results will be maintained in confidence.

In this research, there are no foreseeable risks to you.

Although there may be no direct benefit to you, the possible benefit of your participation is aid in research aimed to identify the influence of supervisor training on job satisfaction levels of patrol officers. There is minimal to no benefit to you for participating in the study except for the benefit provided by the study itself. This study is directed towards describing (a) the relationship between supervisor skills and job satisfaction, (b) the relationship between supervisor training and supervisor skills, and (c) the relationship between supervision and overall job satisfaction. This will empower law enforcement agencies to allocate time and funds to appropriately support leadership training for first line law enforcement supervisors.

If you have any questions concerning the research study, please call me at

You will be completing an anonymous questionnaire. The questionnaire will not contain your name or specific identifying information. Therefore, return of the questionnaire will be considered consent to participate in this study.

Sincerely,

Signature of Participant



Lynn DeSpain

Printed Name of Participant

**UNIVERSITY OF PHOENIX
INTRODUCTORY LETTER**

If you have any questions concerning the research study, please call me at

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read "Lynn DeSpain", is written over a horizontal line. The signature is fluid and cursive, with the first name "Lynn" being more prominent and the last name "DeSpain" following in a similar style.

Lynn DeSpain

APPENDIX C: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR JOB SATISFACTION

Means and Standard Deviations for Job Satisfaction

Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations for Satisfaction about the Job in General

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Hours of leadership training			
0 to 5	15	31.27	4.76
35 to 40	9	29.67	10.83
40 to 50	20	32.70	3.06
More than 100 hours	25	30.92	4.79
More than 200 hours	15	31.73	2.69
More than 300 hours	12	33.67	1.87
More than 400 hours	7	31.43	3.64
Education			
Less than 1 year of college	8	33.50	1.51
Less than 2 years of college	9	33.33	1.94
Less than 3 years of college	3	32.67	.58
Less than 4 years of college	17	32.82	2.46
Bachelors degree	59	30.81	5.89
Masters degree	7	31.57	2.94

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Years in law enforcement			
5 to 10	35	31.80	3.39
10 to 15	49	32.27	6.10
15 to 20	12	33.25	1.86
20 to 25	7	31.29	3.50
Age			
31 to 35	32	32.97	2.31
36 to 40	56	30.92	5.96
41 to 45	2	33.50	.71
46 to 50	13	31.23	3.14

APPENDIX D: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR SATISFACTION
ABOUT PEOPLE AT WORK

Means and Standard Deviations for Satisfaction about People at Work

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Hours of leadership training			
0 to 5	15	29.40	9.27
35 to 40	9	31.33	6.06
40 to 50	20	30.30	4.66
More than 100 hours	25	29.56	6.46
More than 200 hours	15	31.27	4.77
More than 300 hours	12	34.00	2.26
More than 400 hours	7	30.43	6.73
Education			
Less than 1 year of college	8	32.75	2.31
Less than 2 years of college	9	33.44	2.74
Less than 3 years of college	3	34.00	1.73
Less than 4 years of college	17	32.88	4.14
Bachelors degree	59	26.69	6.66
Masters degree	7	26.00	7.92

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Years in law enforcement			
5 to 10	35	29.74	5.83
10 to 15	49	30.65	6.69
15 to 20	12	33.42	2.23
20 to 25	7	30.57	6.80
Age			
31 to 35	32	32.09	4.07
36 to 40	56	30.34	6.52
41 to 45	2	35.00	1.41
46 to 50	13	27.85	7.59

APPENDIX E: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR SATISFACTION
ABOUT WORK

Means and Standard Deviations for Satisfaction about Work

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Hours of leadership training			
0 to 5	15	30.67	5.55
35 to 40	9	33.11	1.67
40 to 50	20	31.25	3.58
More than 100 hours	25	30.52	5.22
More than 200 hours	15	33.13	3.29
More than 300 hours	12	33.67	1.07
More than 400 hours	7	30.57	4.76
Education			
Less than 1 year of college	8	31.25	4.06
Less than 2 years of college	9	32.67	3.35
Less than 3 years of college	3	32.00	1.00
Less than 4 years of college	17	33.94	1.09
Bachelors degree	59	30.95	4.79
Masters degree	7	31.14	4.34

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Years in law enforcement			
5 to 10	35	31.71	3.12
10 to 15	49	31.92	4.86
15 to 20	12	32.00	3.57
20 to 25	7	29.00	4.86
Age			
31 to 35	32	33.09	2.62
36 to 40	56	31.25	4.68
41 to 45	2	27.50	4.95
46 to 50	13	30.54	4.39

APPENDIX F: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR SATISFACTION
ABOUT PAY

Means and Standard Deviations for Satisfaction about Pay

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Hours of leadership training			
0 to 5	15	13.07	4.43
35 to 40	9	14.89	3.30
40 to 50	20	14.80	2.14
More than 100 hours	25	15.24	2.71
More than 200 hours	15	15.87	2.75
More than 300 hours	12	14.67	2.96
More than 400 hours	7	16.29	1.70
Education			
Less than 1 year of college	8	16.00	2.73
Less than 2 years of college	9	15.00	3.04
Less than 3 years of college	3	17.00	1.00
Less than 4 years of college	17	15.41	2.37
Bachelors degree	59	14.59	3.15
Masters degree	7	14.00	3.96

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Years in law enforcement			
5 to 10	35	14.77	2.37
10 to 15	49	14.69	3.55
15 to 20	12	15.42	2.97
20 to 25	7	16.14	1.77
Age			
31 to 35	32	15.38	2.41
36 to 40	56	14.57	3.31
41 to 45	2	15.50	.71
46 to 50	13	15.08	3.28

APPENDIX G: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR SATISFACTION
ABOUT OPPORTUNITIES FOR PROMOTION

Means and Standard Deviations for Satisfaction about Opportunities for Promotion

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Hours of leadership training			
0 to 5	15	9.47	4.93
35 to 40	9	10.56	2.55
40 to 50	20	9.85	3.48
More than 100 hours	25	10.16	3.04
More than 200 hours	15	11.33	3.15
More than 300 hours	12	10.75	2.93
More than 400 hours	7	9.71	5.09
Education			
Less than 1 year of college	8	10.63	2.92
Less than 2 years of college	9	10.89	3.48
Less than 3 years of college	3	12.33	.58
Less than 4 years of college	17	11.29	2.28
Bachelors degree	59	9.68	3.87
Masters degree	7	10.29	4.19

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Years in law enforcement			
5 to 10	35	10.66	2.95
10 to 15	49	9.98	3.77
15 to 20	12	10.50	3.45
20 to 25	7	9.57	4.96
Age			
31 to 35	32	10.66	3.10
36 to 40	56	10.04	3.57
41 to 45	2	13.00	.00
46 to 50	13	9.69	4.52

APPENDIX H: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR SATISFACTION
ABOUT SUPERVISION

Means and Standard Deviations for Satisfaction about Supervision

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Hours of leadership training			
0 to 5	15	31.40	10.03
35 to 40	9	31.00	6.38
40 to 50	20	33.10	3.13
More than 100 hours	25	30.68	6.56
More than 200 hours	15	31.47	5.59
More than 300 hours	12	32.50	4.25
More than 400 hours	7	29.57	5.32
Education			
Less than 1 year of college	8	33.13	3.04
Less than 2 years of college	9	32.11	4.28
Less than 3 years of college	3	32.33	4.04
Less than 4 years of college	17	32.65	4.86
Bachelors degree	59	30.48	7.22
Masters degree	7	34.86	2.27

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Years in law enforcement			
5 to 10	35	33.20	3.96
10 to 15	49	30.31	7.66
15 to 20	12	32.75	3.36
20 to 25	7	29.71	5.47
Age			
31 to 35	32	32.13	4.70
36 to 40	56	30.93	7.16
41 to 45	2	35.50	.71
46 to 50	13	32.08	4.96

APPENDIX I: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR SATISFACTION
ABOUT THE JOB IN GENERAL

Means and Standard Deviations for Satisfaction about the Job in General

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Hours of leadership training			
0 to 5	35	33.06	2.85
5 to 10	3	32.00	3.61
10 to 15	8	29.25	4.43
15 to 20	4	31.25	1.50
25 to 30	4	29.25	7.23
35 to 40	6	32.67	2.34
40 to 50	9	32.78	2.39
More than 100 hours	10	31.50	2.37
More than 200 hours	23	30.22	7.95
Education			
High school	4	32.50	1.29
Less than 1 year of college	11	32.55	3.05
Less than 2 years of college	16	31.81	4.56
Less than 3 years of college	16	34.06	1.44
Less than 4 years of college	20	31.35	3.44
Bachelors degree	27	32.07	3.88
Masters degree	9	25.33	9.97

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Years in law enforcement			
18 months to 2 years	18	33.44	2.31
2 to 5	22	30.41	5.68
5 to 10	27	32.11	3.45
10 to 15	23	30.30	6.85
15 to 20	11	33.27	2.15
20 to 25	2	31.00	1.41
Age			
21 to 25	7	33.29	2.87
26 to 30	17	28.88	6.37
31 to 35	26	32.88	1.93
36 to 40	26	32.04	6.76
41 to 45	17	31.53	3.00
46 to 50	7	30.86	2.19
51 to 55	3	33.00	2.65

APPENDIX J: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR SATISFACTION
ABOUT THE PEOPLE AT WORK

Means and Standard Deviations for Satisfaction about the People at Work

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Hours of leadership training			
0 to 5	35	32.14	4.08
5 to 10	3	31.00	6.08
10 to 15	8	27.88	6.53
15 to 20	4	29.50	5.00
25 to 30	4	29.25	7.27
35 to 40	6	31.50	5.05
40 to 50	9	31.44	4.36
More than 100 hours	10	29.30	7.24
More than 200 hours	23	30.22	8.45
Education			
High school	4	32.75	3.20
Less than 1 year of college	11	30.27	6.86
Less than 2 years of college	16	31.69	4.21
Less than 3 years of college	16	33.13	4.13
Less than 4 years of college	20	30.90	4.83
Bachelors degree	27	29.37	7.86
Masters degree	9	27.33	7.12

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Years in law enforcement			
18 months to 2 years	18	33.94	1.98
2 to 5	22	29.36	5.69
5 to 10	27	29.89	8.09
10 to 15	23	29.61	6.23
15 to 20	11	32.27	2.76
20 to 25	2	29.00	8.49
Age			
21 to 25	7	34.71	1.70
26 to 30	17	28.88	5.70
31 to 35	26	31.77	4.48
36 to 40	26	30.19	8.04
41 to 45	17	30.59	5.95
46 to 50	7	29.29	6.13
51 to 55	3	29.33	6.51

APPENDIX K: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR SATISFACTION
ABOUT WORK

Means and Standard Deviations for Satisfaction about Work

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Hours of leadership training			
0 to 5	35	33.03	2.85
5 to 10	3	33.67	2.31
10 to 15	8	29.25	5.31
15 to 20	4	32.75	.96
25 to 30	4	28.00	6.98
35 to 40	6	32.67	1.75
40 to 50	9	30.22	4.49
More than 100 hours	10	32.10	3.41
More than 200 hours	23	30.65	5.43
Education			
High school	4	32.00	1.83
Less than 1 year of college	11	31.36	4.86
Less than 2 years of college	16	31.00	5.09
Less than 3 years of college	16	33.50	2.19
Less than 4 years of college	20	30.95	4.63
Bachelors degree	27	31.33	4.04
Masters degree	9	32.33	4.77

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Years in law enforcement			
18 months to 2 years	18	32.72	4.06
2 to 5	22	30.68	5.87
5 to 10	27	31.81	3.40
10 to 15	23	30.43	3.98
15 to 20	11	33.82	1.25
20 to 25	2	33.00	1.41
Age			
21 to 25	7	33.00	4.86
26 to 30	17	29.06	6.68
31 to 35	26	32.46	3.00
36 to 40	26	32.00	3.41
41 to 45	17	31.06	3.88
46 to 50	7	32.86	.38
51 to 55	3	34.00	1.73

APPENDIX L: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR SATISFACTION
ABOUT THE PEOPLE AT WORK

Means and Standard Deviations for Satisfaction about Pay

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Hours of leadership training			
0 to 5	35	15.49	2.44
5 to 10	3	16.00	2.00
10 to 15	8	12.00	2.27
15 to 20	4	15.00	2.71
25 to 30	4	13.00	4.32
35 to 40	6	14.67	2.94
40 to 50	9	14.22	2.44
More than 100 hours	10	16.40	1.58
More than 200 hours	23	14.74	4.01
Education			
High school	4	14.50	3.42
Less than 1 year of college	11	15.91	2.66
Less than 2 years of college	16	13.31	4.14
Less than 3 years of college	16	15.50	2.03
Less than 4 years of college	20	14.20	3.62
Bachelors degree	27	15.59	2.21
Masters degree	9	15.11	2.37

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Years in law enforcement			
18 months to 2 years	18	14.22	3.34
2 to 5	22	14.59	4.01
5 to 10	27	15.07	2.84
10 to 15	23	15.30	2.08
15 to 20	11	15.64	2.42
20 to 25	2	13.50	3.54
Age			
21 to 25	7	14.57	4.16
26 to 30	17	14.06	4.22
31 to 35	26	14.62	2.71
36 to 40	26	15.19	2.65
41 to 45	17	15.06	2.86
46 to 50	7	16.29	1.25
51 to 55	3	16.33	.58

APPENDIX M: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR SATISFACTION
ABOUT OPPORTUNITIES FOR PROMOTION

Means and Standard Deviations for Satisfaction about Opportunities for Promotion

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Hours of leadership training			
0 to 5	35	10.37	3.93
5 to 10	3	11.33	3.06
10 to 15	8	8.13	1.13
15 to 20	4	10.25	2.63
25 to 30	4	8.25	6.95
35 to 40	6	11.50	3.21
40 to 50	9	10.00	2.69
More than 100 hours	10	11.80	2.78
More than 200 hours	23	9.91	3.48
Education			
High school	4	10.25	2.75
Less than 1 year of college	11	9.73	3.90
Less than 2 years of college	16	10.50	3.29
Less than 3 years of college	16	10.88	3.44
Less than 4 years of college	20	9.65	4.20
Bachelors degree	27	10.74	3.48
Masters degree	9	9.11	2.93

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Years in law enforcement			
18 months to 2 years	18	10.11	4.81
2 to 5	22	10.77	3.45
5 to 10	27	10.26	3.19
10 to 15	23	9.87	3.05
15 to 20	11	10.45	3.72
20 to 25	2	8.50	.71
Age			
21 to 25	7	9.43	5.88
26 to 30	17	9.71	3.16
31 to 35	26	10.77	3.28
36 to 40	26	10.85	3.78
41 to 45	17	9.76	3.65
46 to 50	7	9.43	1.51
51 to 55	3	10.00	2.65

APPENDIX N: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR SATISFACTION
ABOUT SUPERVISION

Means and Standard Deviations for Satisfaction about Supervision

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Hours of leadership training			
0 to 5	35	33.74	2.97
5 to 10	3	30.67	4.16
10 to 15	8	27.88	7.20
15 to 20	4	32.25	3.77
25 to 30	4	26.25	9.22
35 to 40	6	30.33	6.59
40 to 50	9	31.00	5.02
More than 100 hours	10	33.10	3.51
More than 200 hours	23	30.26	9.23
Education			
High school	4	32.50	4.36
Less than 1 year of college	11	31.27	5.93
Less than 2 years of college	16	32.13	5.45
Less than 3 years of college	16	34.13	2.96
Less than 4 years of college	20	32.65	4.88
Bachelors degree	27	29.41	8.44
Masters degree	9	29.67	5.92

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Years in law enforcement			
18 months to 2 years	18	33.61	4.85
2 to 5	22	31.55	5.24
5 to 10	27	30.85	8.02
10 to 15	23	31.09	5.12
15 to 20	11	30.45	7.26
20 to 25	2	33.00	.00
Age			
21 to 25	7	31.71	7.06
26 to 30	17	29.82	5.66
31 to 35	26	32.92	4.44
36 to 40	26	31.85	8.01
41 to 45	17	32.06	4.53
46 to 50	7	29.86	4.10
51 to 55	3	27.00	13.08

APPENDIX O: COPYRIGHT PERMISSION FOR SURVEY



BOWLING GREEN STATE UNIVERSITY

Department of Psychology

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APPENDIX P: PERMISSION TO USE PREMISE

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INFORMED CONSENT: PERMISSION TO USE PREMISES, NAME, AND/OR SUBJECTS

(Facility, Organization, University, Institution, or Association)

City of Henderson Police Department

Name of Facility, Organization, University, Institution, or Association


I hereby authorize Lynn DeSpain, student of University of Phoenix, to use the premises, name and/or subjects requested to conduct a study entitled THE EFFECT OF EDUCATION FOR POLICE SUPERVISORS ON POLICE OFFICER LEVELS OF JOBS SATISFACTION: A QUANTITATIVE STUDY.

Problem Statement:

In 1967 President Johnson's tasked the President's Commission on Law Enforcement to research the impact of education in the field of law enforcement. The Commission's findings reported, "The quality of police service will not significantly improve until higher educational requirements are established for its personnel" (idalest.org, 2006). Cross and Wyman (2006) used the Theory of Self-Determination and its application to training and education to determine levels of job satisfaction and its association with employee retention. Rosen, Levy, and Hall (2006) published research supporting the theory that a more engaged employee is also a more productive employee. Job satisfaction, employee retention, and productivity are all important factors in any organization, including law enforcement. The assessment of job satisfaction for police officers with varying amounts of college education and the supervisors who lead them after attending various amounts of college and leadership training can provide insight to the roll that education plays in job satisfaction and, therefore, retention of police employees. Assessment using the XYZ survey to collect data will be used in conjunction with questionnaires to collect descriptive data from police personnel bearing the ranks of police officer and police sergeant who are assigned to the patrol division of a large sized police department in Southern Nevada.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study is to assess the impact of college education and leadership training for supervisors on the levels of job satisfaction for police officers with varying levels of post-secondary education.



Signature

12-21-06

Date

Chief of Police
Title

City of Henderson Police Department
Name of Facility

APPENDIX Q: INTRODUCTORY LETTER

INTRODUCTORY LETTER

Dear Participant,

I am a student at the University of Phoenix working on a Doctoral Degree in Educational Leadership. I am conducting a research study entitled *The Relationship Between Police Supervisor Training and Job Satisfaction Levels as Reported by Patrol Officers*. The purpose of the research study is to investigate relationship between training, the predictor variable, completed by first line law enforcement supervisors and the job satisfaction levels, criterion variable, of patrol officers who report to them in large sized police department of over 300 commissioned officers located in southern Nevada.

The purpose of this nonexperimental, quantitative, correlational research study is to investigate relationship between training, the predictor variable, completed by first line law enforcement supervisors and the job satisfaction levels, criterion variable, of patrol officers who report to them in large sized police department of over 300 commissioned officers located in southern Nevada, using a convenience sampling strategy. The survey that is provided to the individuals has a Likert type scale that is provided to them via a web based application. Participants will be invited to identify factors that influence their level of job satisfaction to identify an overall level of job satisfaction which will be compared to levels of education held by their supervisors. Training levels of supervisors will be investigated considering the following leadership training variables: (a) level of formal education, (b) hours of supervisor training, (c) tenure as a supervisor. Job satisfaction levels will be identified relative to the patrol officer's current supervisor. Job satisfaction will be investigated considering the following variables: (a) job in general (b) people, (c) work, (d) pay, (e) promotional opportunities, and (f) supervision. These leadership training variables and job satisfaction variables correlations will be calculated to identify their degree of association between the three leadership training variables (independent variables) and the six job satisfaction variables (dependent variables).

In this research, there are no foreseeable risks to you.

There is minimal to no benefit to you for participating in this study except for the benefit provided by the study itself. Although there may be no direct benefit to you, the possible benefit of your participation is aid in research aimed to identify the influence of supervisor training on job satisfaction levels of patrol officers. This study is directed towards describing (a) the relationship between supervisor skills and job satisfaction, (b) the relationship between supervisor training and supervisor skills, and (c) the relationship between supervision and overall job satisfaction. This will empower law enforcement agencies to allocate time and funds to appropriately support leadership training for first line law enforcement supervisors I am requesting your participation in this short survey in order to collect data anonymous data for statistical analysis. Once the survey has been administered via the online link and the information has been returned to the researcher, the data will then be compiled in an EXCEL spreadsheet. In the spreadsheet each of the observations are placed into a row with that correspond to an individual participant's response. The columns in the spreadsheet then represent the selected answers for each one of the items on the questionnaire. Once the data has been input into the spreadsheet the participants' names and any other information that could potentially reveal the participants identity was removed and replaced by a numeric identification number. All of the data that was collected is then immediately secured for analysis by the researcher by placing them into a locked file drawer to ensure security of the responses.

INTRODUCTORY LETTER

If you have any questions concerning the research study, please call me at (702) 596-9134

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read "Lynn DeSpain", is written over a horizontal line.

Lynn DeSpain