

Identifying the Correlates of Job Satisfaction for School Resource Officers

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ABSTRACT

Worker job satisfaction is a topic that drives much research in many professions. Identifying the factors that lead to a successful and gratifying work experience for workers has many positive benefits for both the worker and employer. While studies of job satisfaction have flourished since the 1930s in organizational and management literature, studies of job satisfaction for police officers began in the late 1960s. Job satisfaction studies of criminal justice personnel have typically been limited to police officers and correctional workers. Much of the scope of these studies has been limited to linking the demographic characteristics of these criminal justice personnel to job satisfaction.

This study identifies the correlates of job satisfaction for officers in a distinct role in policing, SROs. Using data from self-report surveys, 170 SROs who were members of the Ohio School Resource Officer Association as of March, 2008, revealed by an overwhelming majority that they were satisfied with this role in policing. Along with data regarding the demographic and geographic characteristics of the sample, SROs were surveyed regarding role diversity and preference for duties, according to the Triad Model for school policing. SROs demonstrated a strong preference for duties that were outside traditional law-enforcement. However, due to the nature of their role in schools, SROs find themselves typically engaged in activities more aligned with traditional policing. The effect of intrinsic and extrinsic factors on job satisfaction was explored. SROs expressed satisfaction with factors that were motivating and intrinsic in nature.

Officers in this sample were found to be satisfied with their jobs, intrinsically motivated, and did not have high levels of work stress. They were educated, male, and volunteered for the position of SRO. The effects of non-response bias, as well as the implications and suggestions for future research are discussed.

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CHAPTER 1

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

School Resource Officers (SROs) are often seen as the first line of defense in the prevention of violence in the schools. Not only are these officers called upon to respond to violent episodes in the schools, but they are also expected to develop positive relationships with students, staff, administrators, and the school community in order to make and keep the school a safe place for teaching and learning. The role of SROs in the schools can be described as a diverse, multi-faceted position that requires officers to adapt to situational changes throughout their watch. Although the primary role of SROs is that of law enforcement officer, they are also expected to function as a counselor, teacher, and mentor in the school setting. Most officers welcome the diversity of role and the opportunity to work directly with children and youth to make a positive impact upon their lives.

Job satisfaction is a topic of great interest in many professions including policing. Job satisfaction is defined as "the attitudes of an individual toward job related factors" (Seltzer, Alone, & Howard, 1996, p. 28). According to Locke (1976), job satisfaction is a pleasurable emotional state resulting "from the perception that one's job fulfills or allows the fulfillment of one's important job values." Seltzer et al. (1996) point out that "job satisfaction and morale levels of police officers clearly have a strong impact on their effectiveness (p. 29) Most of the literature concludes that job satisfaction is important for workers because

dissatisfied workers do their job in a manner that leads to negative outcomes, low morale, reduced productivity, and turnover (Buzawa, Austin, & Bannon, 1994). According to Moose, Lin-Kelly, Beedle, & Stipak, (2000) when police officers are satisfied with their jobs, they perform better and are able to support the police mission.

In policing, job satisfaction has been found to be influenced by various factors such as age, race, education, tenure in the department, and rank (Buzawa, 1994; Dantzker, 1993a, 1994a). Other researchers have found that a lack of job satisfaction can lead to cynicism (Niederhoffer, 1967) and stress (Barnes, Sheley, Logsdon, & Sutherland, 2003, Jayaratne & Chess, 1984; Martelli, Walters, & Martelli, 1989; Wolpin, Burke, & Greenglass, 1991).

Most research in the area of policing and job satisfaction has focused on patrol officers, correction officers, and police chiefs. There has been some research regarding School Resource Officers, but is usually from the perspective of an evaluation of SRO programs or the assessment of student attitudes and perceptions of having SROs in their schools (Finn, McDevitt, Lassiter, & Rich, 2005). Little research has focused on job satisfaction for officers serving in this role.

The primary problem that will be addressed by this study is whether officers who have been entrusted with protecting our children are satisfied with their work in the educational environment. A secondary and related problem is determining the components of SRO roles in schools that influence job satisfaction. If these factors can be identified it would seem that both police

organizations and school boards would be able to utilize this information to plan for optimal service delivery and training of personnel. The purpose of this study is to identify and describe the correlates of job satisfaction for School Resource Officers. If SROs can be provided with the tools and resources they need for satisfaction then all stakeholders, students as well as staff, can benefit from more efficient and effective services from SROs who truly enjoy working in the school setting. This is important because there has been much public concern regarding students' safety in schools.

ORIGINS OF SCHOOL RESOURCE OFFICERS

The alliance of police officers and schools has not been a lengthy union. The origin of police-school liaison officers can be traced to Liverpool, England in 1951 (Lawrence, 1995). The first use of police in schools in the United States was in Flint, Michigan in 1958. The first formalized program was created in Florida in the late 1950s. This program flourished in the 1960s and 70s, then languished during the 1980s (Girouard, 2001). The engagement of police officers in schools did not reach its full momentum until the mid-1990s.

The 1990s were a turning point for the concept of linking police officers with schools. The 1990s ushered in a new kind of violence in the school setting, violence that gained much media attention and generated great concern about students' safety in the school setting. School shooting incidents such the ones witnessed in Moses Lake, Washington; Jonesboro, Arkansas; Paducah, Kentucky;

and Littleton, Colorado led to a perceived need to increase school security and respond to the growing fears of imminent danger in schools. During the late 1990s crime victimization rates for school students were higher than they are at this time. In 1998, 9 out of 1,000 students were victims of serious violent crimes at school (Indicators of School Crime and Safety, 2001). A decline in this rate was noted, from recent data, in that students ages 12-18 were victims of 4 serious crimes per 1,000 students at school (*Indicators of School Crime and Safety*, 2006). During 2005, 4% of students ages 12-18 reported being victimized at school during the previous 6 months (*Indicators of School Crime and Safety*, 2006). It should be noted here that in reality schools are not particularly violent settings. According to data from the *Bureau of Justice Statistics (2006)*, the victimization rates for students ages 12 – 18 declined between 1992 and 2004 both at school and away from schools. Statistics show that students are more likely to be victims of serious violent crime away from school than at school. Also, homicides at school of youths 5 – 18 have decreased from 1992 – 2005 (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 1992 – 2005).

The response of some school systems to the growing concerns and perceptions of escalating violence in the schools led some school systems to develop their own internal security forces, and others to employ police officers from local law enforcement agencies to provide traditional law enforcement functions. In some school settings, the potential for violence justifies the presence of a law-enforcement officer (Frisby & Beckham, 1993). Research indicates that the most problematic areas of schools, where drugs and gang-

related activities flourish, are areas that are not consistently monitored. The need for constant regulatory checks before, during, and after school led some school officials to take a proactive approach to school violence by incorporating a police model into their crime-prevention strategies (Johnson, 1999).

The marriage of police officers and schools received congressional support via an amendment to the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968 (PL105-302). This amendment, enacted in 1998, established school-based partnerships between local law enforcement agencies and local school systems “by using school resource officers who operate in and around elementary and secondary schools to combat school-related crime and disorder problems, gangs, and drug activities”. Part Q of Title I of the 1968 act, defined the SRO as “a career law enforcement officer, with sworn authority, deployed in community-oriented policing, and assigned by the employing police department or agency to work in collaboration with school and community-based organizations” (Amendment to the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, SEC 1,42 USC 2796dd, 1998). Officers in SRO roles were not only commissioned to address crime and disorder, gangs, and drug activities affecting or occurring in or around elementary or secondary schools, but had several other functions to fulfill:

1. Develop or expand crime prevention efforts for students.
2. Educate likely school-age victims in crime prevention and safety.
3. Develop or expand community justice initiatives for students.

4. Train students in conflict resolution, restorative justice, and crime awareness.
5. Assist in the identification of physical changes in the environment that may reduce crime in or around the school.
6. Assist in developing school policy that addresses crime and recommend procedural changes (Amendment to the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, PL 105-302, 1998).

In 2000, the Department of Justice announced that the Community Oriented Policing Services (COPS) in schools program of its Office of Community Oriented Policing Services would award \$68 million in grants to fund SRO placements in 289 communities across the US. Approximately 600 SROs were to be hired and trained (Girouard, 2001). These officers would serve in multifaceted roles that would link communities, schools, families, and law enforcement together and would encourage working relationships between police and schools. School resource officers would work in the area where education, delinquency prevention, and school security intersect (Griffin, 1999).

Effective control of school crime requires cooperation between schools and juvenile justice officials and the community (Lawrence, 1995). This brings the principles and philosophy of community policing directly into the school environment (Girouard, 2001).

BENEFITS OF A SCHOOL-BASED PARTNERSHIP

The partnership between schools, communities, and police departments recognizes that school violence is not just a school problem but a community problem as well (Johnson, 1999). Problems that occur in the community often find their way into the school environment, so it appears natural that both community forces and law-enforcement would unite to find ways to prevent school violence. The partnership established between the police and community would lead to a reduction in crime, as the direct result of more crime prevention efforts, a reduction in fear of crime among community residents, as residents would feel that police are responding to their concerns. This would lead to more effective law-enforcement due to cooperation between the police and citizens (Langworthy & Travis, 2003).

The placement of police officers in schools means that crimes that take place on school grounds have a greater likelihood of being detected, reported, recorded, and processed, by virtue of having law enforcement officers assigned to schools (Johnson, 1999). Reporting school crime to law enforcement officers, may serve as a deterrent. In fact, the mere presence of uniformed police officers in schools can have a positive impact on reducing school violence (Kipper, 1996).

Overall, having a SRO program can address the problem of school violence by means of providing prevention as well as intervention strategies. The presence of

an SRO on a school campus can prevent problems from occurring and if problems do arise, they are able to respond in a timely fashion. This provides for a safe learning environment for students, staff, and teachers. The entire community reaps the benefits of having the services of a SRO in that the programs that appear to be the most successful emphasize close working relationships among police, school staff and students and emphasize clear communication regarding the police role, policies, and actions to be taken when crime occurs (Lawrence, 1995). Learning is more likely to occur in such an environment in which students feel safe (Garrett, 2001).

DISADVANTAGES OF A SCHOOL-BASED PARTNERSHIP

Literature that expressly opposes the use of police officers in school settings is minimal. Most concerns relate to the presence of armed law-enforcement officers and whether there is need for them to be armed while working in schools (NASRO , 2001). Other areas of concern regarding the school-based partnership have to do with financial constraints, politics, personnel selection, reporting, and supervision issues (Trump, 1998).

There are some that believe that "the use of uniformed police officers may alienate or antagonize some students and make the school seem like an armed camp" (Rich, 1992, p.36). The negative attitudes many youth have against police officers in the community can transfer to police officers in school settings. Having police officers in schools is seen as invasive and contributes to a "lock down" mentality for some students, given the various procedures used by these

officers, such as the use of metal detectors and surveillance cameras (Devine, 1996, p. 76). Some educators and researchers have argued that schools use punishment and surveillance instead of prevention and humanistic interventions when attending to troubled youth and that school policing epitomizes this problem (Casella, 2001).

School police are often seen as an enforcer of social control for young people. They provide safety and security in the school setting by promoting conformity and regulation among students. Students who engage in self-expression and who do not easily adapt to the regimented procedures of school rules might find themselves in constant turmoil with these officers whose primary goal is school control and discipline.

A FRAMEWORK FOR COLLABORATION BETWEEN POLICE AND SCHOOLS

School districts and police agencies must collaborate in order to attain the goals of safety and security in the school setting. With both entities seeking the same goals it is important that they jointly develop a plan of action. This common purpose is the basis for motivating and structuring the collaborative endeavor (Berman, 2006). The realization that school violence is a community problem, not a school problem, is necessary to develop interdisciplinary strategies that will have a positive effect on school violence (Johnson, 1999). A study on patterns of inter-organizational relationships among agencies that deal with troubled youth found that school systems and the juvenile police had the

highest level of coordination and the least conflict (Hall, Clark, Giordano, Johnson, and Van Roekel, 1977). The results indicate that inter-organizational coordination was more likely to occur when the organizations were viewed positively in terms of personnel competence, performance, quality of communications, and compatibility of philosophy (Hall et al., 1977).

SELECTION AND TRAINING OF OFFICERS FOR SRO POSITIONS

The selection of officers to serve as SROs varies from police agency to agency, locality to locality. Approximately 87% of the SROs that participated in the 2001 NASRO Survey indicated that they had either volunteered or applied for the SRO position. Some police officers volunteer because they have an interest in working with youth and desire to be a role model and mentor to school children. Others volunteer because of a prior involvement with schools through programs such as DARE and naturally opt to become SROs. One of the findings of a detailed analysis of several SRO programs was that "allowing officers to volunteer to serve as SROs seems to result in a higher level of commitment to the program" (Finn et al. 2005, p. 36).

Many officers that fill SRO positions are well-seasoned officers with double-digit years of overall experience as a police officer (NASRO, 2001). The police officers that are selected to serve as SROs are expected to represent the police department in an exemplary fashion and show a demonstrated interest in working with young people (Garrett, 2001). Finn et al., (2005) reported that

there are basic competencies that are suggested for officers who want to be considered for an SRO position:

- Likes and cares about kids
- Communicates well
- Has the ability to teach or the capacity to learn how to
- Has the flexibility to work with school administrators
- Has the capacity to work independently (especially important for SROS in rural areas)
- Is not a rookie.

According to the 2002 NASRO School Resource Officer Survey, most of the SROs reported that they had received specialized training for their position. Fewer than 10% reported no training for this position. However, of the SROs surveyed “between 17% to 34% have not received specialized training in topics such as adolescent child behavior, counseling skills, instructor/teaching skills, school crisis planning, school security assessments and related issues”.

Many officers, during the course of obtaining a college degree, may opt to take electives in social science and child development. Specialized training that some police agencies utilize in training officers for SRO duties is based upon the “Florida” Model. This curriculum provides topics regarding Community Resource and Resource Development, Exceptional Children and Dysfunctional Families, and Counseling Techniques (Garrett, 2001). A majority of officers (64%) report that their local law-enforcement department offered specialized training to prepare them to be SROs (NASRO, 2001).

ROLE OF A SCHOOL RESOURCE OFFICER

In some school systems, SROs are able to negotiate their roles in the schools. In other school systems the role is pre-determined by school board members in collaboration with police departments. The SROs duties and responsibilities are often detailed in a “memorandum of understanding”. According to Finn et al., (2005), this document serves to minimize conflict related to:

- Who is in charge of the SRO
- Who pays the SRO salaries, training, and equipment
- When SROs are expected to be in school
- Who evaluates the SROs (and how)
- How conflicts will be resolved (p. 14).

Typically, SRO programs offer a range of duties that reflect the “Triad” model of school policing: law enforcement officer, law-related counselor, and law-related classroom instructor (Center for the Prevention of School Violence, 2001). According to a survey conducted by CPSV, SROs reported the time spent engaged in the various duties of the Triad model. The sample of SROs reported that 50% of their time was spent on law enforcement duties, 30% of time spent on law-related counseling/advising, and 20% identified as being spent on law-related teaching. The percent of time spent in each duty varies from school-to-school or district-to-district, as some officers reported 100% of their time spent

in law-enforcement duties while other officers reported 80% of the time spent engaged in teaching and mentoring students (CPSV, 2001).

Even though the initial focus of many SRO programs is law-enforcement SRO roles tend to become more balanced over a period of time (Finn, et al., 2005). According to Finn et al., (2005), certain considerations should be addressed in order to determine the allocation of time spent in each role:

- Level of crime and disorder
- Wishes and culture of the school
- Personality and skills of the SRO
- Training

The level of crime and disorder in the school would support more engagement in a law-enforcement role for the SRO. Schools in which fights and assaults are a common occurrence might require that SROs address misconduct and restore order and control by citing and arresting disruptive students. Later, SROs may have the opportunity to mentor and counsel these students.

The unique wishes and culture of the school need to be considered in order to address time allocation issues. Initially, administrators may want SROs to fill a particular role, that of law-enforcement, but as relationships are developed between administrators and SROs, opportunities to provide other services might emerge.

The personality and skill level of the SRO are other important considerations related to time allocation. Some officers may feel comfortable in a school setting

and genuinely like working with kids while others may possess the skills and demeanor for working with particular age groups of students.

Some officers may have training in child and adolescent development which may lead the SRO to a role in which more time is allotted for counseling and mentoring duties.

According to the report, training in teaching and mentoring help support SROs have a balanced role. However, these skills take time to develop and need to be rigorously addressed through training.

ADAPTING TO A SCHOOL-BASED CULTURE

Finn et al. (2005) point out “that law-enforcement agencies and school systems function in different worlds with different communication patterns, objectives, and methods” (p. 42 This might make it difficult for an SRO to adjust to a school-based culture. Casella (2001) notes that some SROs feel a sense of alienation when they are in their roles as part law-enforcement officer and part school personnel and this in turn has an effect upon their interactions with students and staff and may have an effect upon job performance. Some officers feel detached as they serve in a capacity that isolates them from other police officers and offers them little contact with fellow officers during the school day. According to Casella (2001) officers are forced to form uneasy alliances with students and staff members to meet the needs of the school and the law-enforcement aspects of their job. Officers feel caught in the middle in that they

are accountable to both the police department and school system and they have to be able to navigate both systems in order to survive in their SRO position.

ROLE DEFINITION AND REALITY FOR SCHOOL RESOURCE OFFICERS

The School Resource Officers' primary role is that of law enforcement and first responder to school violence incidents. However, it has been noted that schools are relatively safe places with declining levels of violence and victimizations (*Indicator of School Crime and Safety, 2006*). Officers, while being in schools to provide a presumption of safety, are often placed in roles that are much different than the actual job description. Some officers report being engaged in lunchroom and bus duties (NASRO, 2001). Sometimes they are asked to monitor physical education classes and classrooms when teachers and/or substitute teachers are not available. For an officer who goes into this position and is placed in the position of having to take on these activities when his or her understanding of the job description is more in line with crime fighting or the "Triad" Model of service, the SRO may experience some internal conflict or dissatisfaction in his or her role. The effects of this mismatch between the perception of the job and the reality of the position can certainly adversely affect satisfaction.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this research study is to identify and describe the correlates of job satisfaction for School Resource Officers. This dissertation will extend the existing literature by addressing the following issues. First, it will identify the correlates of job satisfaction for an under-studied group of law-enforcement personnel (School Resource Officers). Second, this research will identify whether SROs are generally satisfied in their jobs. Thirdly, the research will examine role definition to determine if it is a correlate of job satisfaction. The importance of this study is to assist in providing personnel and resources that are truly knowledgeable and dedicated to a safe school environment.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER

The deployment of police officers in schools is a relatively modern phenomenon. School Resource Officers are placed in schools to provide law-enforcement and violence prevention services, so that learning can take place in a safe and orderly environment. School policing has its origins in community-oriented policing. Community, school, and law-enforcement collaboration is at the core of this phenomenon. Officers' roles in the school is not always within the locus their control and problems related to training, preparation, and selection may cause officers to experience dissatisfaction with the job and negatively

affect job performance. Though there has been some research on the subject of job satisfaction for police officers as a group, job satisfaction studies for this particular group of police officers is virtually non-existent. The importance of research in this area is that by uncovering the correlates of job satisfaction for School Resource Officers, the most efficient and effective service delivery can be achieved for the ultimate goal of providing schools and the community with a safe learning environment for students.

This dissertation will proceed in Chapter 2 to review the literature on job satisfaction research and how this construct has been previously measured for police officers. Correlates of job satisfaction that have been identified in previous studies of police will be critically reviewed as well as the limitations of these studies. Chapter 3 will identify the methodology that will be utilized for this study and the research questions that will drive the focus of this dissertation.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction: Exploring the Concept of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a concept that has been widely studied in work and management literature. Job satisfaction refers to the extent to which an individual is content with a job (Manzoni & Eisner, 2006). According to Lambert, Hogan, & Barton (2002), job satisfaction “is a subjective, individual-level feeling reflecting whether a person’s needs are or are not being met by a particular job” (p. 116). Employees who are satisfied with their jobs bring benefits to both the employer and the employee. Lower job turnover rates, decreased absenteeism, and increased productivity are some of the identified benefits of satisfaction with one’s job (Buzawa et al. 1994; Dantzker, 1994a; Halsted et al., 2000). Job satisfaction has been recognized in private industry as a prerequisite for successful job performance (Griffin, Dunbar, & McGill, 1978). Kalleberg (1977) notes that “the concept of job satisfaction traditionally has been of great interest to social scientists concerned with the problems of work in an industrial society” (p. 124). According to Dantzker (1994) the exploration of job satisfaction became a legitimate area of research in the 1930s. Since that time “job satisfaction has become one of the most widely researched areas in organizational psychology perhaps because of the tremendous effect job satisfaction can have on an organization” (Dantzer, 1997, p. 97).

Though the research literature on job satisfaction in the social sciences is quite extensive (e.g., Gruenberg, 1980; Quinn & Staines, 1979), the exploration of job satisfaction for criminal justice personnel has not been as widely researched. According to Buzawa (1984), "studying patterns of officer's job satisfaction is important due to their correlation with important employee behavioral characteristics and potentially dramatic effects on overall performance of the organization". Sheley and Nock (1979) articulated that job satisfaction was especially crucial to police work. It would appear that police organizations might have an interest in job satisfaction for their officers, as it would be beneficial to both police organizations and administrators to be knowledgeable of factors that characterize a satisfied work force (Dantzker, 1994a). However, research on job satisfaction for police officers lagged until the mid 1980s and was methodologically and topically limited (Dantzker, 1994a). Past studies of job satisfaction for law enforcement personnel have investigated attributes of job satisfaction such as *stress* (Anshel, 2000; Armstrong & Griffin, 2004; Barnes et al., 2003; Davey, Obst, & Sheehan, 2001; Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2004; Manzoni & Eisner, 2006, Wolpin et al., 1991; *communication* Gorenak, 2004, Hochstedler & Dunning, 1983; *cynicism* (Lester, 1987; Regoli, Crank, & Culbertson, 1989; Travis & Vukovich, 1990), *skill utilization* (Grant, Garrison, & McCormick, 1990), *community-oriented policing* (Halsted et al., 2000, Mastrofski, 1992; Lawton, Hickman, Piquero, & Green, 2000; Vardalis, 1992; *Family-Work Conflict* (Howard, Donofrio, & Boles, 2004), and *organizational commitment* (Ford, Weussbein & Plamondon, 2003).

Inconsistent results of research studies on job satisfaction for police officers have led to confusion as to whether police officers are actually satisfied with their jobs. Some studies found that police officers were generally satisfied with their jobs, yet others have indicated that they are not (Slovak, 1978). Conflicting findings in terms of the correlates associated with job satisfaction have made it difficult to generalize to policing as a whole. The inconsistency in the results has been attributed to the use of different research techniques and measuring instruments that lead to non-comparable results (Slovak, 1978). Buzawa (1984) cites in her analysis that "existing literature abounds in conflicting theoretical and operational definitions" for the construct of job satisfaction (p. 62). According to Lambert et al. (2002), inconsistent methods used to examine the concept of job satisfaction in policing might result in dissimilarities in the kind of job satisfaction assessed and could affect the relationships that were being examined. Dantzker (1993a) developed a "general purpose" police job satisfaction measure due to his concern that other previously developed measures were too agency specific. Some researchers of job satisfaction for law enforcement officers advocated the use of "global" or general measures in the assessment yet others have argued for the use of "faceted" measures which focus on specific areas of the job (Lambert et al., 2002). Regardless of the method used the exploration of job satisfaction for law enforcement officers, research continues to investigate this phenomenon.

Focus of Chapter

The remainder of this chapter will be a critical analysis of the literature that is pertinent to this investigation of job satisfaction for police officers. Previous methods and procedures related to gathering of data will be reviewed and critiqued. The final part of this chapter will discuss what this study will add to the existing knowledge base of research in the area of job satisfaction along with recommendations for improvements to increase our understanding job satisfaction for police officers serving as SROs.

IDENTIFYING CORRELATES OF JOB SATISFACTION IN POLICING: GENERAL STUDIES

In any work setting it can be acknowledged that satisfied workers generally are productive workers. This is especially true for police officers. According to Sheley and Nock (1979), "knowing the factors that affect or contribute to job satisfaction for police officers can make the difference in the retention of professional, veteran police officers or an ever changing group on new recruits" (p. 53). Much of the research has focused on demographic characteristics of job satisfaction such as age, race, gender, education, and years of service and/or rank (Buzawa et al. 1994b; Dantzker, 1994, 1997; Forsyth & Copes, 1994; Halsted et al. 2000, Zhao, Quint, & He, 1999). Some research studies have attempted to identify not only the demographic factors that correlate with job satisfaction but other factors related to policing that may account for satisfied

police officers. The first section of this review will focus on the more general studies that attempted to explain job-specific factors related to job satisfaction and the methodology used to gather the data in these studies of police officer job satisfaction.

An early study by Reiss (1967) investigated job satisfaction for police officers with the focus on identifying factors that influence this phenomenon. Reiss (1967) surveyed 204 police officers from precincts in Washington, Boston, and Chicago regarding career orientation and satisfaction with their job and their assignment. Reiss (1967) assessed the major features of salary and service rewards, opportunity for and rate of promotion, supervision and the effect of rules and regulations of the department on the officer in relation to officer satisfaction with them. Job satisfaction was found to be common aspects of policing, such as being respected by the community, promotions, pay, work hours, and supervisory concerns. Reiss (1967) noted that factors such as the social contribution of police work (i.e., "helping others") and variety in duty assignment were factors important to job satisfaction. A limitation of this study was that it did not include questions relating to officers' decision-making autonomy nor the hazards associated with police work (Sheley & Nock, 1979).

Sheley and Nock (1979) extended the Reiss (1967) study to include two additional variables that they postulated were very much related to police officer job satisfaction: years of services as a police officer and years in current rank. Using a secondary data set, Sheley and Nock (1979) studied eleven variables, seven of which related to officer perceptions of issues and situations related to

police work (i. e., salary, on the job danger, adequacy of police training) and four that pertained to the officer's status within his department (i. e., current rank, years of police service, years at current rank). Surveys were distributed by intermediaries to officers, given by instructors to veteran officers attending training at a police academy, or given to officers working in nearby urban departments by the shift commander. Officers were told the surveys were anonymous and voluntary. A sample of 105 officers completed the survey for a seventy percent response rate.

Officers responded to items on the survey on a Likert-type scale for items that measured perceptions of situations and issues related to police work. These items were considered as interval measures. On items related to status constructs, rank and assignment were identified as actual values and were considered as nominal variables. General job satisfaction was measured by two items rated on a Likert scale and was similar in content to those used in the Reiss (1967) study:

- (1) If your son or someone close to you, displayed an interest in police work, you would discourage his interest (referred to as "discouragement of enlistment")
- (2) Given the opportunity, you would work outside law enforcement, assuming all work benefits to be equal (referred to as "willingness to defect") (p.51).

Job satisfaction was measured as a function of the best linear combination of perceptual and status variables within a multiple regression equation. The results

revealed that four variables were independently related to job satisfaction: years in rank, rank of officer, community confidence in police, and recognition of individual efforts by superiors. According to Sheley and Nock (1967) "the satisfied patrolman is one who has not long held that rank, who feels his superiors appreciate his work, and who feels the public has confidence in the police" (p. 53). The significance of this study was threefold in that it: (a) supported the findings identified by Reiss (1967) study, (b) identified additional variables and found that number of years in current rank was important in defining job satisfaction, and(c) used regression analysis to explain a relatively large amount of variance in police job satisfaction.

Consistent with previous studies of job satisfaction correlates, Griffin, et al. (1978) utilized a job satisfaction questionnaire to ascertain factors related to this construct. Job satisfaction was operationalized by questions related to the officer's feelings of being in control of his job, seeing the job as enforcing justice, whether his supervisor did a good job, and police contribution to the community. A total of 756 officers from a large metropolitan police department participated in the study. The response rate was 45%. Questions on the survey related to: officer feelings of control of his job performance, the officer's role in enforcing justice, the officer's perception of his superiors' performance, and whether the officer felt police made a valuable contribution to the community (Griffin et al., 1978). All of the variables were found to be positively associated with job satisfaction. Further analyses of the data were made based on the age group of the respondent. According to Griffin et al., (1978), 25% of the variance was

explained among the respondents in the 33 - 39 year old group. This was the greatest amount of variance explained for any age group. The researchers concluded that future studies should explore differences between the age groups as factors relating to age as it may present a better explanation of job satisfaction for police officers.

It is clear from these studies of the correlates of job satisfaction that survey research is pertinent in determining these factors. Some researchers developed their own measures to address concerns regarding their applicability across police departments. In an effort to "maximize the comparability of results", Slovak (1978) constructed a survey that focused more on the organizational components of policing rather than on psychological or theoretical constructs. Slovak (1978) surveyed police officers from eight departments in six Mid-west and Western states and most of the officers responding were White males, in the 30 – 39 age group and had been police officers for 7 to 8 years. The agencies surveyed were characterized by a small sample size, with a maximum of 83 sworn officers for each of the eight departments. The response rate for this self-administered survey was between 62 - 94%. The officers responded to closed-ended questions on a continuum that ranged from highly dissatisfied to highly satisfied, on ten elements of policing (salaries, fringe benefits, promotional opportunities, facilities, equipment, policies & procedures, supervision, internal communications, training, and executive leadership). Using factor analysis, Slovak (1978) found that job satisfaction was not a general,

un-idimensional characteristic but that it was a highly structured construct made up of specific components that tended to be independent of each other.

In keeping with developing a global instrument to measure job satisfaction, Dantzker (1993a) created a "general purpose" instrument to measure job satisfaction as he felt that instruments previously used in other studies were specifically directed to the agency being studied and were not reliable for studies of other police agencies. The questionnaire was comprised of 23 job specific items that were most frequently cited in the job satisfaction and organizational behavior literature and 3 items related to overall job satisfaction. The responses to statements were rated using a 5-point Likert scale format. Included in the questionnaire was a demographic component (gender, age, race, education, rank, and years of service). Also, three items that were considered universal to work settings were included:

1. How satisfied are you with your job?
2. If I could change departments without losing seniority, I would!
3. If I received an offer outside of policing, I would accept it.

This questionnaire was then used to obtain a measure of job satisfaction for police officers from six states. Analysis of data from one of the cities in the sample reported that 552 of 752 officers responded (72% response rate) to the questionnaire. Data from the sample indicated that 57% of these respondents were officers and 80% were male. Dantzker (1994b) cited that the percentages of the represented in the sample were consistent with the percentage of each group found in the department based on ethnic group, sex, and race. Results of

this analysis of the data revealed that police officers between the ages of 20 and 25 reported the highest levels of job satisfaction. This age group reported high levels of satisfaction with over 18 of 23 police job specific variables, such as promotion, supervisor support, pay, community relations, and supervisor assistance. Overall, police officers in this particular police department were satisfied, black officers experienced more satisfaction than white officers, males reported more job satisfaction, and sergeants were the only rank in the study with low job satisfaction.

Buzawa (1984) surveyed 170 police officers in Oakland, California and Detroit, Michigan regarding demographic characteristics and specific job attitudinal aspects relevant to the prediction of job satisfaction. Buzawa (1984) developed a 5-point Likert scale questionnaire that had a job specific format in order to gather data on officer work attitudes that was designed to capture the predominant factors related to policing. The questionnaire focused on seven areas: adequacy of benefits, perceived occupational prestige, quality of supervision, amount of stress, effect upon family relations, self-fulfillment, and overall job satisfaction. Buzawa (1984) noted that lengthy questionnaires have resulted from the attempt by many researchers to operationalize job satisfaction, so to counteract these six questions from the *Job Satisfaction Index (JDI)* to operationalize the construct of job satisfaction. Buzawa (1984) conducted structured interviews with the officers, their immediate supervisors, and command officials. A 70% response rate was noted. The findings from this study revealed that police officers from Oakland experienced job satisfaction

when they felt that "the profession allowed opportunities for self-fulfillment, an equitable chance for advancement and were held in respect by the community, positive job satisfaction was far more likely to occur regardless of demographic factors or other attitudes toward employment" (Buzawa et al,1984, p. 56).

For officers in Detroit, the variables of race and years in policing were the most important in defining job satisfaction. Buzawa (1984) concluded that for officers in the Detroit sample, job satisfaction was a "situationally determined construct and closely related to the implementation of affirmative action policies" (p. 78). It was noted that for the Detroit sample job satisfaction was related to departmental factors than to motivational factors (Buzawa, 1984).

A 10-year follow-up study was conducted on the Detroit sample. Buzawa et al. (1994) surveyed 400 officers using the questionnaire she had developed for the initial 1978 study, with slight changes to the instrument. According to Buzawa (1994) several changes from the original sample were noted: greater number of officers ages 35 and over in the 1988 sample, an increase in the number of non-white officers with the corresponding decrease in the number of white officers, an increase in the number of women in the sample, an increase in the number of officers with college degrees, and an increase in the percentage of officers with ten or more years of experience. A higher rate of response was noted in that 81% of the officers responded, as the department gave officers time to complete the questionnaire and affirmed confidentiality.

Utilizing the same analysis as in the 1978 study, Buzawa (1984) noted a decline in overall job satisfaction from the 1978 study, which may have been due

to low morale and a decrease in satisfaction for job-related factors, especially on the supervision and advancement indices. As in the 1978 study, race was found to be a significant factor as more blacks reported greater satisfaction and years of experience continued to be inversely correlated to job satisfaction. Women were found to be less dissatisfied than males but it was not known whether this was related to situational factors. Buzawa (1994) recommended future study relating to gender of the officer. It was also concluded that demographic factors in particular departments were highly situational in nature, yet other factors such as the negative impact of tenure on the force related more to the fundamental aspects of policing (Buzawa, 1994).

In sum, variables related to demographic and organizational features of police departments, have been studied to gain knowledge of the general factors most relevant to police officers relative to job satisfaction. A common theme emerged in the finding that job satisfaction is not a one-dimensional concept but rather a multi-dimensional construct. As Griffin et al. (1978) noted, factors that reduce the level of the uncertainty of police work contribute to police officer job satisfaction. Self-administered surveys and questionnaires with responses on a 5-point Likert scale were routinely utilized to gather data on this construct as well as interviews. Surveys constructed by Buzawa and Dantzker appeared to be especially useful in that they were designed to capture the salient features of policing, both blacks and females were represented in the sample in proportion to their numbers in the police ranks, and each had a high rate of response. Global questions regarding job satisfaction were typically taken from the *Job*

Descriptive Index and were used to approximate general job satisfaction. Limitations related to consistency of measures used in studies and their applicability across various police agencies (Dantzker, 1993a).

PART I: DEMOGRAPHIC STUDIES OF JOB SATISFACTION

A large portion of the research on job satisfaction for police officers has focused on the effects of various demographic characteristics on job satisfaction (Griffin et al., 1978; Jacobs & Cohen, 1978; Lefkowitz, 1974). The most commonly explored demographic characteristics are: education, race, gender, and length of service/rank. Inconsistent results have clouded much of the research findings that relate demographic factors to job satisfaction for law enforcement personnel.

Education. Early studies of education and job satisfaction were influenced by two presidential commissions of the late 1960s and early 1970s, which posited that education was important in doing police work in American society (National Advisory Commission, 1973; President's Commission, 1967). These reports supported the notion that increasing a law enforcement officer's educational level would increase that officer's ability to be more empathetic in his interactions with citizens from diverse backgrounds (Goldstein, 1977). Although it has been the common perception that education and job satisfaction were positively correlated, some researchers have had concerns about the validity of this supposed association. As noted by Swanson (1977) "the literature on police

education is extensive, but it often appears bent on sustaining the notion that education for the police is good rather than on offering empirical evidence" (p. 312) (also see Carter, Jamieson, & Sapp, 1978).

Education has emerged as an important variable in the study of job satisfaction for police officers. As police officers have sought to professionalize policing, education has been seen as the key to attain that goal. Lynch (1976) notes that the "college-educated officer could be expected to be fairer in his interactions with the public, more honest, which would result in more effective police work" (p. 44). However, Swanson (1977) postulated that college-educated police officers would experience greater job dissatisfaction as the officer would be "under-stimulated by the work and might encounter related problems with morale" (p.15). It was concluded, after a review of records of 5000 police officers who had resigned from policing, that police organizations were not able to meet the needs of more educated officers. Prior studies of the relationship have indicated that police with higher education levels displayed a more effective job performance but experienced lower job satisfaction, as noted in Griffin et al. (1978).

In studies of the correlation between job satisfaction and education, several studies found that college-educated police officers experienced decreased job satisfaction because the more highly educated police officers experienced frustration in working in a rigid setting (Cohen & Chaiken, 1972; Griffin et al., 1978). It was also postulated that as the level of education increased for police officers, they would become disenchanting and feel less challenged by their jobs

thereby leading them to decreased job satisfaction (Cohen & Chaiken, 1972). Also, low levels of positive attitudes toward jobs in policing were noted from studies of officers with a master's level education that indicated that education and job satisfaction were inversely related (Forsyth & Copes, 1994; Lefkowitz, 1974).

Other influences may impact the relationship between education and job satisfaction. Buzawa (1984) noted that one of the reasons educated officers leave policing is related to various opportunities for alternative employment rather than being caused by an increase in frustration with the job. As officers increased their educational levels they developed higher standards of self-control, which led to increased job satisfaction (Griffin et al., 1978). They also cited that "as the educational level increased, the sources for job satisfaction changed" (p.85).

Higher levels of education among correctional officers were consistently found by several researchers to be correlated to lower levels of job satisfaction (Cullen, Link, Wolfe, & Frank, 1985; Cullen et al., 1989; Jurik & Halemba, 1984; Jurik, Halemba, Musheno, & Boyle, 1987; Jurik & Musheno, 1986;). However, a positive relationship between levels of education and job satisfaction for correctional officers was supported by Grossi and Berg (1991). Rogers (1991) concluded that correction officers with some college reported lower feelings of job satisfaction than officers who had obtained a college degree or who had no college experience.

In some studies, education has been found to exert no effect upon job satisfaction. Findings from Buzawa et al. (1994) revealed that “the role of education as a predictor of higher levels of job satisfaction was not clearly demonstrated” (p. 73). No correlation between the two variables was found in her study of police officers in Detroit. Discontentment with the job did not increase with education (Buzawa et al. 1994). However, in an earlier study it was determined that the highest educated officers were also the most satisfied officers in her study of officers in Oakland, California (Buzawa, 1984).

In a review of research studies by Dantzker (1993a, 1994a) that explored the correlation of job satisfaction and education, the conclusive finding was that there was a positive correlation between officer’s job satisfaction and level of education. Dantzker (1992) reported a positive finding in that the higher the level of education the more satisfied the police officers. However, Dantzker (1992) noted that this correlation was only applicable to officers with up to five years of experience. For officers with service of more than five years, job satisfaction decreased with educational level.

Age. Age has generally been one of the demographic variables used job satisfaction studies. In studies that incorporated age as a possible correlate of job satisfaction mixed results have been noted. Age was found to be positively correlated with job satisfaction among police officers (Buzawa, 1984; Hunt & McCadden, 1985; Lefkowitz, 1974). In the fore-mentioned survey analysis by Griffin et al. (1978) age played a significant part in the explanation of job satisfaction when analyzed by age group. Officers in the 33 – 39 year old group

were significantly more satisfied than any other age group in the analysis. Griffin et al., (1978) suggested that differences between age groups be more closely examined as it might better identify differences in levels of satisfaction. A similar finding relative to age was noted by Dantzker (1994b) but in his fore-mentioned analysis younger officers between the ages of 20 and 25 were found to experience the most satisfaction in their jobs. It was also noted from the Buzawa study (1984) that the 20 – 25 year old group had the highest mean scores for job satisfaction.

The inclusion of age in analyses of job satisfaction was particularly relevant in that this variable often related to other key organizational and attitudinal variables, such as promotional opportunities, number of years on the force, and increasing cynicism during various phases of an officer's career (Dantzker, 1994b; Griffin et al., 1978; Niederhoffer, 1967). Griffin et al. noted that younger police officers experienced greater satisfaction with their job when they understood the rationale for command decisions and saw themselves as included in decision-making.

Gender. Some researchers reported no gender differences in overall job satisfaction (Fry and Greensfield, 1989; Weaver, 1980) in Dantzker (1998). Other studies revealed correlations between job satisfaction and gender (Mannheim, 1983).

For female law enforcement officers most of the literature regarding job satisfaction and gender has indicated similar inconsistent findings (Buzawa, 1984; Felkenes and Lasley, 1992; Fry and Greensfield, 1980; Zhao et al. 1999).

Minority and female police officers had the lowest level of job satisfaction in the Oakland sample, while female officers in the Detroit sample were more satisfied (Buzawa, 1984; Buzawa et al., 1994). These contradictory findings attributed to the different levels of affirmative action policies in the two departments. Belknap and Sheley (1992) pointed out that any relationship between gender and job satisfaction might be reliant upon the number of female law enforcement officers within the agency (cited in Zhao, 1999). High number of females in the agency resulted in greater overall job satisfaction for the female officers.

Some studies have concluded that there was no difference in the level of job satisfaction for both male and female law enforcement officers (Dantzker and Kubin, 1998). Utilizing the same data set from his 1994 study, Dantzker and Kubin (1998) focused on gender differences and job satisfaction. (The methodology utilized was detailed earlier in this chapter). Male and female officers from 14 municipal police agencies in 7 states participated in this study for a total of over 4700 police officers. A response rate of 60% was obtained. Female officers made up 11.3% of the sample, which reflected an overrepresentation of women based on national sample of 8.8% in 1993. Their findings revealed that gender was not related to job satisfaction. However, it was noted that gender might prove to have a relationship to job satisfaction when combined with variables such as rank, race, age education, and years of experience. Dantzker and Kubin (1998) suggested future research focus on gender in combination with the fore-mentioned demographic variables and organizational factors. Findings of no gender differences were also noted in

several other studies (Felkenes and Lasley, 1992; Fry and Greensfield, 1980; Singer and Love, 1988).

Generally, survey methodology has been used to study the relationship between gender and job satisfaction. Weisheit (1987) surveyed female officers of the Illinois State Police and found that 86% of the female police officers would encourage their son or daughter to go into policing. This was interpreted as having overall job satisfaction (cited in Dantzker and Kubin, 1998). Perlstein (1972) surveyed 138 female police officers in 14 police departments regarding job satisfaction. The data from female respondents yielded a median score of 38.7 out of a possible 45 on a job satisfaction index which suggested that the female police officers were generally satisfied with their jobs.

Some female police officers perceive police departments underutilize them in police work. According to Grant, Garrison, and McCormick (1990) workers who feel their abilities and skills are used on the job are more satisfied than workers who perceive that they are underutilized. Grant et al. (1990) studied the relationship between utilization and job satisfaction for policewomen. Self-report questionnaires were mailed to 1,500 members of the International Association of Women Police. A low response rate was noted as only 180 female officers completed the one page, forty-one item survey. In order to assess the degree to which the female officers felt they were utilized, two questions were asked:

1. Are you properly utilized?
2. Do you use all your skills on the job?

In order to measure female police officers' satisfaction with their career choice, two questions were developed:

1. Are you considering a career change?
2. Would you recommend police work as a career for other women?

The Spearman's nonparametric correlation indicated that a statistically significant correlation ($r = .38$) existed between perceived utilization and job satisfaction ($p < .150$). The overall findings from this study revealed that the more a police woman perceived herself as being properly utilized on the job, the greater job satisfaction she experienced. Limitations of the study included a low response rate and that the conclusion measured only perception and not actuality ($p < .150$). Grant et al. (1990) pointed out that this was due to the fact that there was no way to identify, standardize, or compare the responses due to differences in the level of maximum utilization from department to department.

Race. Most studies of race and job satisfaction in policing have provided inconclusive and inconsistent findings (Buzawa, 1984; Lambert et al. 2002; Zhao et al. 1999). Dantzker (1994b) found that Black officers experienced higher levels of satisfaction than did White officers in his analysis. Yet, Zhao (1999) cited that discrimination practices that affect both minority and female officers in police departments might account for lower levels of job satisfaction for these groups in general. Buzawa (1984) cited that police literature has indicated that Black officers were less satisfied in their jobs than White officers due to problems related to social isolation from predominantly White police agencies and the

Black community, as well as difficulties related to affirmative action and layoffs. Research of correctional officers in relation to race has found that non-White officers were less satisfied with their work (Cullen et al. 1989; Cullen, Link, Cullen, & Wolfe 1990; Jacobs & Kraft, 1978; Jurik et al., 1987; Toch & Klofas, 1982;).

Buzawa (1984) analyzed factors of job satisfaction for police officers in Oakland and Detroit. The findings of the study reported lower job satisfaction for White officers than Black officers. The implication of this finding was that race was the more important factor in the prediction of job satisfaction in Detroit than in Oakland. Buzawa (1984) accounted for the finding by citing the divisive racial conflicts in Detroit and the aggressive implementation of the department's recent affirmative action program. A follow-up study by Buzawa et al. (1994) provided additional support for this result as the Black officers in the sample were still more satisfied with the department than Whites. Buzawa et al. (1994) cited continuing disenchantment with the affirmative action policies and the disparity in promotional opportunities.

Years of Service/Rank. Demographic characteristics such as years of service and rank have been used as variables in the analysis of job satisfaction studies of police officers. Various research studies have found that officers new to the force have the highest level of job satisfaction of any other group in the police ranks (Buzawa et al. 1994; Forsyth & Copes, 1994; Reiss, 1967; Sheley & Nock, 1979). As pointed out in the analysis by Sheley and Nock (1979), "the satisfied officer is the naïve rookie" (p.54).

The literature appears to support the notion that over time as police officers become cynical about their jobs, job satisfaction declines (Forsyth & Copes, 1994). Reiss (1967) concluded that the longer the police officer worked in a police department, the lower his job satisfaction. Sheley & Nock (1979) extended Reiss' (1967) study to explore the relationship between years on the force and years in current rank on job satisfaction. Their results replicated and supported the findings of the Reiss' (1967) study and found that "years in current rank" was an important variable in explaining police officer job satisfaction. This decrease in job satisfaction over time might be linked to an officer's inability to make promotional gains as quickly as he would like or a non-attainment of the social contributions of police work (Sheley & Nock, 1979).

Most studies of the relationship between rank/years of service concluded that these variables were negatively correlated with job satisfaction (Barnes et al. 2003; Buzawa, 1984; Zhao, 1999). However, this negative relationship was not linear, as the rate of decrease leveled off between six and ten years of service (Neiderhoffer, 1967).

Although, much of the literature has not particularly focused on specific ranks within the police agency and the correlation with job satisfaction, Dantzker (1994b) found that police sergeants were the only police group (officers, lieutenants, others) that did not report high satisfaction with their jobs. This was felt to be an important finding in that sergeants were the link between the administration and field staff in police departments and their behavior could

influence the effectiveness of police agencies and the attitudes of officers under their supervision.

PART II: ATTITUDINAL FACTORS AND JOB SATISFACTION

Stress, Tension, and Burnout. Early studies of police stress determined that occupational stress was negatively related to job satisfaction and led to low levels of job performance and job effectiveness (House & Rizzo, 1972). With this in mind, decreased opportunities for stress might lead to greater job satisfaction along with increased productivity and overall organizational functioning (Barnes, Sheley, Logsdon, & Sutherland, 2003). Studies of police stress have identified it as a multi-dimensional construct, composed of positive and negative factors within the work environment (Barnes et al., 2003).

According to Manzoni and Eisner (2006) "police work is among the most demanding and dangerous occupations in modern civil society, holding a large potential for stressful experiences among its workforce" (p. 23). Sources of stress have been generally identified as those stressors related to the nature of policing (i.e., exposure to danger, facing the unknown, unpredictable situations, confronting hostility) and the stressors related to the nature of the police organization (i.e., rules, regulations, disagreeable job assignments, and limited promotional opportunities) (Martelli, Waters, & Martelli, 1989). The effects of stress also adversely affect police-community relations due to quality police work that lead to numerous citizen complaints (Manzoni & Eisner, 2006).

Kroes, Margolis, & Hurrell (1974) initiated one of the first empirical studies of police stress. Kroes et al. (1974) interviewed 30 police administrators and noted that sources of stress arose from community relations, administration, courts, equipment, manpower, and ambiguity in work. Factors such as administration, courts, community relations, equipment, changing shift routine, and isolation/boredom were identified as sources of stress in their interviews with 100 patrol car policemen. Kroes et al. (1974) concluded that there were two dimensions of stress for police officers, the first being the inherent nature of police work, and the second related to the administrative structure of the police organization.

The Police Stress Survey was developed by Spielberger, Westberry, Grier, and Greenfield (1981) in order to assess police stress. This 60-item survey was used to determine components related to police stress based on two factors: administrative/organizational factors (i. e., court decisions restricting police, lack of recognition for good work, disagreeable duties, disagreeable department regulations, lack of participation in decision-making, and excessive discipline) and physical/psychological threats (i.e., responding to a felony in progress, high-speed chases, dealing with crisis, physical attacks on one's person, use of force, and making arrests alone). A positive correlation was found between satisfaction with promotion and the perception of stress, that is, officers who were reported satisfaction with the promotional aspects of their jobs indicated higher stress levels.

In order to test the reliability of the *Police Stress Survey* and to evaluate its relationship to job satisfaction and organizational commitment, Martelli et al. (1989) designed a study that would assess the survey's usefulness in identifying stress in police officers. The survey was completed by 99 metropolitan police officers for a response rate of 53%. Most of the officers worked in a middle-sized metropolitan city, and the remaining officers worked in suburban police departments. The sample included 91 males, with the mean age of 36 years. More than half of the sample was comprised of patrol officers and most had been on the force for 6 – 13 years. The surveys were given to the participants at roll call by their supervisors. Each survey booklet included a letter indicating that permission had been given for the study as well instructions as to the disposition of the completed studies. Officers responded to items on a 60-point scale, which were to be rated from 0 to 100 points. The initial item on the survey "assignment of disagreeable duties" was given an arbitrary rating of 50 points. Respondents were instructed to rate subsequent items in comparison to this item.

A six-item job satisfaction scale developed by Martelli et al. (1989) was also included for completion. Responses to the items related to satisfaction with salary, co-workers, promotion, supervision, work and overall job satisfaction, were rated on a 7-point scale (extremes were identified as "very satisfied" to "very dissatisfied"). The commitment of officers to the organization was evaluated by the *Organizational Commitment Questionnaire* (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974), which utilized the 7-point Likert format and consisted of 15 items. The results provided evidence that the *Police Stress Survey* was a

reliable indicator of police officer stress with the coefficient alpha reliability of .97 and subscale reliabilities of .95 for the administrative/organizational subscale and .94 for the physical/psychological subscale. The job satisfaction scale had a reliability coefficient of .68. All of the aspects related to job satisfaction were significant in their relationship to administrative/organizational sources of stress. The overall importance of this study was two-fold: (a) it found that stress and job satisfaction were negatively related as officers who experienced increasing levels of stress tended to be more dissatisfied overall with their jobs; (b) it supported the notion the use of standardized questionnaires in identifying sources of occupational stress as Martelli et al. (1989) found them to be cost effective, time efficient, and easily identified intervention strategies to handle job stress.

Cullen et al. (1985) explored the relationship between several stressors, coping factors, and status characteristics (race and sex) in relation to three types of stress: work stress, job dissatisfaction, and life stress. Cullen et al. (1985) determined that educated officers and Black officers experienced greater dissatisfaction with their jobs. The researchers also concluded that female officers experienced more job-related stress, and that role problems and perceived dangerousness were positively correlated to multiple forms of stress.

Psychological burnout and tension have been known to affect a law enforcement officer's job performance and job satisfaction. Much of literature has been inconclusive and inconsistent in the findings regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and psychological burnout. In a study of job satisfaction

as an antecedent or consequence of psychological burnout, Wolpin et al. (1991) found that psychological burnout did lower job satisfaction over time. Of particular note was the finding that the sources of work stress were of more significance in explaining declining job satisfaction than psychological burnout itself (Greenglass, 1991).

Cynicism. Cynicism for police officers arises when there is a mismatch between officer attitudes and beliefs and the reality of the job of policing (Niederhoffer, 1967). Cynicism has been defined as mistrust that is reflected in an inability to observe any "good" in people's motives or in the surrounding environment (Niederhoffer, 1967). According to Niederhoffer (1967) cynicism was the "antithesis" of professionalism. Niederhoffer (1969) articulated that cynicism resulted from a failure of an officer's experiences to conform to their expectations of the job. Niederhoffer (1967) postulated that cynicism explained police corruption and misconduct. Some research has found that cynicism has lead to mistrust, authoritarianism, and even brutality (Toch, 1973). The overall effects of cynicism are detrimental to the performance of police officers (Travis & Vukovich, 1990). It would seem logical that cynicism would also effect an officer's satisfaction with his job. In this present study of SROs, the presence of cynicism might play an important role in how effective these officers are in their role of preventing school violence. Officers that have a cynical attitude about the students and communities they serve might be ineffective, be less satisfied in their jobs, and be less than professional in their demeanor.

Neiderhoffer (1969) studied the causes of cynicism in a sample of New York police officers. According to Neiderhoffer (1969) two kinds of cynicism existed in police work. The first was related to officer cynicism toward the public that was pervasive and existed across departments, ranks, and assignments. The cause of this kind of cynicism arose from an officers' interaction with a hostile and disrespectful public. The second type of cynicism was related to the police job itself. In his study of the New York Police Department, Neiderhoffer (1969) found a curvilinear relationship between cynicism and length of time as a police officer, that is, "cynicism was at the lowest level during the recruit stage, at it's peak during 7 to 10 years of service on the police force, and declining steadily until the officer's retirement" (p. 100). Officers who were most affected by the cynicism often chose to become part of a negative police subculture or decided to recommit to their chosen profession. Criticisms of this study arose from concerns regarding its small sample size (the sample comprised less than 1% of officers in the NYPD), the inability to make generalizations from the study as only the NYPD was used with no comparison group, and no statistical analysis of the relationship between the independent (length of police service) and dependent variables (degree of police cynicism) in the study (Regoli & Poole, 1978).

With this in mind, Regoli and Poole (1978) tested the Niederhoffer (1969) hypothesis pertaining to cynicism and time on job with the addition of controlling for size of the department. The study utilized a survey research methodology. The questionnaire was composed of 103 items and was completed by 324 officers from nine police departments in Washington state and Idaho. An

adequate response rate of 70% was noted. The size of the police departments selected for the study ranged from 10 officers to 116 officers with 57 officers as the average department size. The questionnaires were administered to the officers in the sample and they were instructed to give the completed questionnaire to their chief administrator or to the researcher. As rank of the respondent was an important part of the study a majority of the sample was below the rank of sergeant (N = 242). The number of officers in the rank of sergeant was 44 and the sample of officers above the sergeant rank was 38. A comparison of the mean levels of cynicism revealed minimal variation: 52.2 for patrol officers, 51.0 for sergeant level, and 51.0 for those officers above the sergeant rank. In order to assess cynicism, the researchers used the 20-item scale from the Niederhoffer (1969) study but changed the items from a sentence completion response system to Likert scale responses (i. e., the statement then a cynical answer choice, or a middle-of-the-road response, or a professional response; the content of the statement was the same but the wording was changed so that it could be rated on a 5-point Likert scale). In order to control for acquiescence response set bias, half of the 20-items were composed of a cynical ending and half were composed on a non-cynical ending. According to the study, a coding of one was given for the least cynical responses, and the most cynical responses were coded five. The mean score for cynicism was 51.87. In order to address time on the job, seven categories were used: 0 -3 months, 4 – 23 months, 2 – 6 years, 7 – 10 years, 11-14 years, 15 – 19 years, and over 19 years. There was no control group (officers attending the academy for the first

day) included in this study, which was consistent with the Niederhoffer (1969) study. Their findings revealed that the larger police departments displayed greater levels of cynicism than the smaller departments and that cynicism was related to time on the job (in support of Niederhoffer's previous finding). This study was limited due to lack of a control group that made comparisons between the Niederhoffer study and Regoli & Poole, 1978) difficult. The researchers called for future research in this area to increase the knowledge base of the relationship between cynicism and length of service (Regoli & Poole, 1978). In a related study of cynicism in large versus small police departments, Regoli et al (1989) found that job satisfaction and work relations were linked to police cynicism. Increased cynicism yielded lowered job satisfaction in large police departments. The influence of cynicism on job satisfaction was found to have significantly decreased effect in smaller, rural police departments.

A logical consequence of this disillusionment might result in lowered satisfaction with the job. According to Langworthy and Travis (2003) mismatched police officers and police jobs increased the chance of the officers' experiencing failure and frustration, disenchantment, and cynicism. Studies of police officer cynicism have sought to link job satisfaction with this variable.

Travis and Vukovich (1986) explored the relationship between job satisfaction and cynicism. Using survey methodology, officers from 18 police departments in northern Ohio were given questionnaires to complete. The questionnaires were administered to the police officers at roll call by shift commanders and were returned anonymously. The final sample consisted of 208

respondents for a response rate of 56%. The size of the police departments surveyed ranged from 2-person to departments of over 100 officers. The three-section questionnaire contained a total of 88 items. The construct of "disenchantment" was operationalized as "dissatisfaction with the job" (p.7). The overarching question from the study was "in what way did job satisfaction correlate with measures of police cynicism?" (p.7). The initial section of the questionnaire consisted of items related to 17 aspects of the job. The items were to be rated on a 5-point categorical scale (very satisfied to very dissatisfied). The second section of the questionnaire utilized the *Neiderhoffer Cynicism Scale and the Professionalism Scale* developed by Lotz and Regoli (1977). Responding officers noted their level of agreement or disagreement with items from these scales. The final section of the questionnaire consisted of questions related to various demographic characteristics (age, race sex, length of service, department size, and education).

It was noted by the researchers that most of the 208 officers had more than 10 years of police job experience. Job satisfaction, the independent variable, was identified as the score from the scale "job conditions," which assessed the officers' satisfaction with job assignment, shift, work conditions, and job safety. The dependent variables were assessed from scales that measured "job future", "relations with co-workers", "professional autonomy", and "rank".

The results revealed that there was a positive relationship between the independent variable and the subscales of job future, relations with co-workers, perceptions of professional autonomy, and rank and that job satisfaction ratings

were inversely correlated with cynicism and department size. Of note was the finding that job satisfaction and service length had a positive curvilinear relationship “with officers having between 3 and 10 years of experience appearing somewhat less satisfied with their job than officers having either less than three years or more than 10 years” (Travis & Vukovich, 1986, p.11).

A finding of a negative correlation between job satisfaction and level of cynicism was also noted. This was consistent with Niederhoffer's (1969) research. As the relationship between the two variables was so strong, Travis and Vukovich (1986) concluded that it supported earlier research by Niederhoffer (1969) in finding that officers' who were not satisfied with their jobs were more prone to exhibit signs of cynicism. A particularly relevant finding revealed that measures of job satisfaction employed in this study closely resembled those used as measures of cynicism. Correlations between job satisfaction and other reported factors mirrored the correlations between cynicism and the same reported factors. Travis and Vukovich (1986) found that it was difficult to separate out cynicism from job satisfaction.

A limitation of this study was that “the virtual interchangeability of a measure of job satisfaction in our research for reported correlations between these factors and measures of cynicism in earlier studies confounds the interpretation of research results” (Travis & Vukovich, 1986, p.12). As factors related to both cynicism and job satisfaction were virtually similar, more research would need to be conducted to isolate the problems related to collinearity that caused this

measure of cynicism and job satisfaction to be difficult to interpret and generalize.

PART III: ORGANIZATIONAL AND STRUCTURAL FACTORS

Communication. Communication between employees and supervisors has been investigated in terms of being a component of job satisfaction for the employee. Mazza (1975) found that employee job satisfaction within an organization was dependent upon immediate supervisor feedback, receptiveness, and responsiveness. This finding was supported by Dunning (1976) for police organizations. In policing it is especially important to have good communication relationships both with police supervisors and those with whom the officer comes into contact with during day-to-day duties.

Hochstedler and Dunning (1983) studied the relationship between communication satisfaction and satisfaction with other aspects of policing, using a single police department as the focus of the study. This study used survey methodology and all officers in the Dallas police department, as of 1973, were given the survey to complete. Of the 1132 usable questionnaires only 822 were used in this study. All of the 822 officers in the sample were patrol officers. Survey questions related to the officer's perception of the officers' verbal communication (officer to/from immediate supervisor), horizontal communication (between officers), and communication between the officer and a non-disclosed recipient. The measure of satisfaction included 18 items condensed into six

major categories that were related to satisfaction with the police job itself, sense of achievement, recognition, general promotion policies/procedures, salary, and the immediate supervisor.

The results revealed a modest relationship ($r = .40$) between vertical communication indicators and indicators of satisfaction with immediate supervisor. Also, noted was a strong association between vertical communication and the officers' satisfaction with recognition ($r = .65$). No significant associations were noted between horizontal communication and any of the satisfaction indicators. A limitation of this study related to the reliability of the data as there were concerns regarding the range of inter-item correlations. These items may have contained subtle differences to which the responding officers were sensitive or that indicators lacked the degree of specificity that caused them to be unreliable.

Community Policing. The job of School Resource Officer can be viewed as an outgrowth of community-oriented policing. According to Casella (2001) the 1998 amendment to the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968 (PL 105-302) opened the way for police agencies that were serious about community policing "to work in collaboration with schools and neighborhood organizations to combat crime, develop prevention efforts, and initiate school programs and policies relating to school safety" (p. 99).

Hayeslip and Cordner (1987) found that "police officers implementing community-oriented strategies tend to experience more job satisfaction, more positive attitudes toward the community, and a broader conception of the police

role" (p. 34). According to Greene (1989), the focus of community oriented policing is to improve the motivational potential of the police job. The goal of this type of policing would be that "the more highly motivated police officers would improve upon police and community relations and the services they provide to citizens" (Greene, 1989, p. 172). Job satisfaction plays a significant role in community-oriented policing. Studies of several community-oriented programs reported improved police officer job satisfaction, more positive attitudes towards the communities in which the officers worked, developed more cooperative and service-oriented attitudes about the police role, and had a more positive view of community involvement (Hayeslip & Cordner, 1987). In their study of police officers in New Zealand, Winfree & Newbold (1999) found that "when behaviors, skills, and orientations consistent with community policing goals were viewed by officers as being positively rewarded, their assessments of the workplace were far more positive" (p. 611). This finding supported previous findings from research in the United States (Travis & Winston, 1998).

Problems related to research on the correlation between community policing and job satisfaction have caused studies to be unable to clarify the relationship between the variables. Greene (1989) noted that previous studies of job satisfaction and community-oriented policing were simplistic in the operational definition of job satisfaction, had problems related to a lack of statistical rigor in the analysis of the effects of community policing on satisfaction, and lacked research into the causal relationship between officer predisposition, the job characteristics of community policing, and job satisfaction (p. 171).

Travis and Winston (1998) studied the proposed link between an officer's commitment to community-oriented policing, job satisfaction, and cynicism utilizing a self administered questionnaire. The particular police department that was the focus of this study had embraced community-oriented policing. A high response rate (85.7%) was noted in this study as 30 of 35 police officers returned useable surveys. Diversity in the ranks was noted as patrol officers through several officers in supervisory positions completed the survey.

The researchers cited several limitations to their study: only one police department was assessed in their study, demographic information was missing from some of the surveys, use of a small sample size which the researchers noted "might affect the stability of the estimates of correlation between the measures used", and the lack of the availability of a measure of role definition for the officers in the study (Travis & Winston, 1998, p. 8). Travis and Winston (1998) hypothesized that officers would experience greater cynicism if they were not fully committed to community-oriented policing, that the officers would be less satisfied with compensation and the effectiveness of the police agency if they were less than committed to the practice of community-oriented policing. The results of this study found that officers with less acceptance of community policing were more cynical, had less satisfaction with departmental compensation, and were less satisfied with the effectiveness of the police agency. Significant relationships were found in the correlation between community policing and satisfaction with compensation, satisfaction with the

effectiveness of the department, and cynicism and acceptance of community-oriented policing (Travis & Winston, 1998)

Summary and Implications of Previous Research. This chapter focused on the characteristics that have been most widely researched in relationship to job satisfaction for police officers. Studies of demographic variables such as education, age, gender, and their relationship to job satisfaction have provided much of what is known about this phenomenon in the police literature. However, much of the research has yielded inconsistent results. These inconsistencies were related to differences in the how the construct of job satisfaction was operationalized in the study, differing research techniques and measuring instruments, and the inability to compare or generalize results due to instruments utilized in the study being more specific to the agency being studied (Buzawa, 1994; Dantzker, 1994; Slovak, 1978).

In order to address these problems several of the researchers developed their own instruments to capture the relationship of job satisfaction with job specific items that would allow them to maximize the comparability of results (Slovak, 1979) and to gain insight on the correlates of job satisfaction that were most aligned with this construct. Job satisfaction was generally identified and explored as a multi-dimensional phenomenon. Self-administered surveys were typically used to gather the data in the studies. The questionnaires employed a Likert-style response system, regarding facets of general police work, including statements regarding salary, satisfaction with supervision, opportunity for advancement, and perceived occupational status. For the most part, statements

geared to operationalize and address general job satisfaction were taken from well established assessments, such as the *Job Satisfaction Index* or the *Job Descriptive Index* were commonly used to assess job satisfaction in a variety of work settings. Use of these assessments decreased problems related to lengthy questionnaires that were often the result of the attempt to operationalize job satisfaction.

The importance of the studies by Buzawa (1978, 1988) and Dantzker (1994) was their use of measures that directly related to multi-dimensionality of job satisfaction and which have been widely tested and validated (Zhao, Thurman, & He, 1999). Also, common to the research were questions related to the demographic characteristics of police officers such as gender, race, age, education, rank, and length of service.

Response rates were best (50% +) when the surveys were administered to the officers during roll call or when there was general expressed support from the administration. Completion of the questionnaires was voluntary.

There were limitations of several studies related to sample size. As noted from the Niederhoffer (1969) study, in which the sample size was less than 1% of the intended population, it was very difficult to make generalizations from the results of the study. This was also a problem that was noted in the study by Travis and Winston (1997). They cited that the small sample size might have an effect on the stability of the estimates of correlation between the measures used in the study.

As the literature was sparse regarding studies specifically related to this particular job in policing, it will be important to address both general aspects of policing as well as aspects specifically related to the role of SRO. By doing this a comparison can be made to determine whether satisfaction with this job in policing is related to factors similar to those expressed in the literature or whether other factors related to this particular role in policing provides the source of satisfaction. In other words, are there factors implicit to the SRO role that effect the officer's satisfaction with his job. If this is so, then our understanding of the specific correlates such as age, gender, education, etc. might inform us of the officers most suited for this role. Police Officers who are satisfied in the role of School Resource Officer may be more effective in stemming school violence and relating to the school community. This area of policing has been understudied in an empirical fashion. By identifying the correlates of a satisfied SRO, issues relating to training, selection, and retention can be better addressed in determining the best officers for this role in schools.

The next chapter will identify the specific methodology that will be used for this study of job satisfaction for SROs.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

INTRODUCTION: MAJOR RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This chapter identifies and delineates the methods used in this study. In this dissertation, the correlates of job satisfaction for police officers serving in a particular role were explored. The prevailing purpose was to identify whether SROs were satisfied in their roles in the school setting. A secondary but related purpose was to determine the correlates of job satisfaction for School Resource Officers. This research also tested Hershberg's *Motivating-Hygiene Factor Theory*, to determine which factors intrinsic to the work environment contribute to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction for this particular role in policing. This chapter begins with the major research questions. This will be followed by a discussion and description of the sample and an explanation of the data collection procedures including a discussion of the variables and the measures utilized. Following this section, the statistical techniques used in this analysis will be reported. A discussion of the limitations of this research study ends the chapter.

Major Research Questions

Question 1: Are School Resource Officers generally satisfied with their role in schools?

Question 2: Is role definition a correlate of job satisfaction for School Resource Officers?

Question 3: What specific duties of this position correlate with job satisfaction?

SAMPLE

The sample for this particular study was School Resource Officers who were members of the Ohio School Resource Officers Association (OSROA). According to the membership division of this organization, there were 493 School Resource Officers employed in various school districts within the state who were members of this organization for the membership year of 2008. The Ohio School Resource Officer Association is affiliated with the National Association of School Resource Officers (NASRO). Both OSROA and NASRO establish in their mission statements that they are law-enforcement officers who utilize a collaborative approach to “reduce crime, drug abuse, violence, and provide a safe school environment” for students and staff. “OSROA is a non-profit organization representing school-based law enforcement personnel that serves the needs of schools, communities and law enforcement agencies by providing educational support and resources toward a safe & positive learning environment” (Ohio School Resource Officers Association, 2006). Although the majority of SROs employed by school districts in Ohio are members of OSROA, not all SROs in the state are members of this organization.

The roster of OSROA members for the membership year of 2007 – 2008 was obtained via contact with the organization’s administrative assistant. Each member listed on the roster was sent, via US mail, the “2007 Survey of Ohio School Resource Officers” (Appendix 1). These surveys were mailed to all 493 members listed on the roster during the last week of March, 2008. Surveys were sent out to all zip-codes within Ohio. Table 3.1 shows the percentage of SROs in

each zip-code area. Two subsequent mailings of the survey were sent three and six weeks after the initial mailing. In these follow-up mailings, 493 surveys were mailed out each time. It was deemed necessary to send the surveys to all members because surveys that had been completed and returned were anonymous, so it was impossible to tell which OSROA member had returned the survey. The follow-up surveys included a reminder notice to complete the survey if they had not already completed it. Data collection ended May, 2008.

Of the 493 surveys that were mailed, 60 surveys were not able to be used due to a variety of situations: the officer was no longer working as an SRO (12 members), the OSROA member was not a member of law enforcement as principals, teachers, school program facilitators, youth workers, safety coordinators were included in the OSROA membership roster (33 members), or the survey was returned as the officer was no longer employed in a particular police department (15 members). From the 433 remaining in the population of OSROA members, 170 surveys were completed and returned. The response rate for this study was 39.2%.

The demographic data for the 170 members of the sample is shown in table 3.2. A review of the demographic characteristics for this sample revealed that the majority of the respondents were white (91.8%), male (85.9%), and were

Table 3.1

ZIP-CODE	OSROA MEMBERS IN ZIP-CODE- percentages reported
430	9.3
431	3.7
432	4.2
433	.20
434	2.0
435	3.4
436	3.0
437	1.2
439	2.0
440	7.9
441	9.9
442	5.3
443	.81
444	1.8
445	.20
446	2.6
447	1.2
448	2.4
449	1.2
450	4.6
451	3.0
452	11.1
453	7.1
454	5.3
456	2.8
457	.81
458	2.4
Total	493

Table 3.2 Descriptive Characteristics of SRO Sample

Variable	Percent	Frequency
Race		
African American	5.3	9
Hispanic	1.2	2
White	91.8	156
Multi-racial	1.2	2
Missing	.6	1
Gender		
Male	85.9	146
Female	13.5	23
Missing	.6	1
Degree		
High School	33.5	57
Associate's Degree	35.9	61
Bachelor's Degree	25.3	43
Master's Degree	4.1	7
Missing	1.2	2
Rank		
Patrol/Police Officer	64.1	107
Deputy	16.8	28
Sergeant	7.8	13
Lieutenant	1.8	3
Detective	2.9	5
SRO	2.4	4
SRO Supervisor	.6	1
Corporal	1.2	2
Other	2.4	4
Missing	1.8	3
Training		
NASRO	23.5	40
NASRO-Sponsored	1.8	3
COPS/SRO	8.8	15
OSROA-Sponsored	32.4	55
Other	7.6	13
None	6.5	11
Combination of Training	16.2	27
Missing	2.4	4
Volunteer		
Yes	87.6	149
No	10.6	18
Missing	1.8	3
Mean Age	42.27	
Mean Years as Police Officer	17.25	
Mean years as SRO	4.63	

**Table 3.3
Returned Survey Zip-codes**

ZIP-CODE	OSROA MEMBERS IN ZIP-CODE- percentages reported	ADJUSTED MEMBERSHIP SROs ONLY- percentages reported	ZIP-CODE OF RETURNED SURVEY- percentages reported
430	9.3	9.2	9.6
431	3.7	4.1	4.2
432	4.2	4.3	3.6
433	.20	.22	.60
434	2.0	2.3	1.8
435	3.4	3.8	4.2
436	3.0	3.4	4.2
437	1.2	1.1	1.2
439	2.0	2.0	3.6
440	7.9	8.4	4.8
441	9.9	9.3	4.8
442	5.3	5.4	4.2
443	.81	.22	.60
444	1.8	2.0	3.6
445	.20	.22	.60
446	2.6	2.9	3.0
447	1.2	1.4	1.8
448	2.4	2.2	2.4
449	1.2	1.4	1.8
450	4.6	5.2	6.6
451	3.0	3.2	4.8
452	11.1	10.0	6.0
453	7.1	6.3	7.8
454	5.3	5.4	6.0
456	2.8	2.2	3.0
457	.81	.90	.60
458	2.4	2.7	4.2
Total	493	442*	166**

*This total was further reduced by other excluded situations: surveys returned due to the SRO was no longer employed by police agency, non completion as the officer no longer was working in the field or SRO program was no longer funded.

**Return postmarks on 4 of the envelopes were illegible.

police/patrol officers (63.0%). OSROA does not keep any demographic information on its members which made it impossible to determine whether this sample was reflective of the OSROA membership. It was possible to discern from the membership roster the approximate percentage of females in this organization (13.2%). Based on the percentage of respondents who identified themselves as female (13.5%) this sample was comparable to the membership population of OSROA at this time. The average age of the respondents was 42.27 with an age range from 21 – 67 years. SROs in this sample have been in this position for an average of 4.63 years and the mean number of years that SROs have been police officers was 17.25 years. As far as level of education for this sample, a third of the SROs had an associate's degree (35.9%) and another third of the officers had a high school diploma (33.5%). The remaining third of the sample indicated that they had a bachelor's degree or higher. A majority of the SROs identified their rank as police officer or patrol officer (63.0%). A large proportion of the officers received training through OSROA (32.4%) or NASRO (23.5%). Of note was that some SROs indicated that they had received no training (6.5%). Most SROs volunteered for this position (87.6%).

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Consistent with previous measures of the construct of job satisfaction, survey methodology was used to gather the data needed regarding this phenomenon. Most of the major research utilized surveys and/or interviews of police officers. In this present study interviews were determined not to be appropriate due to

the number of SROs in the state and lack of staff to conduct the interviews and time constraints. Self-administered questionnaires were utilized to gather the data for this research. Similar to surveys that were cited in the literature review, factors that have been identified as correlates of job satisfaction were utilized in the survey to assess the relationship of these factors for officers employed in this unique area of policing. Also facet-specific items that are unique to the SRO role were included in this survey instrument and were drawn from the research of Cullen, et al., 1985, 1990.

INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

Most previous research of job satisfaction in policing has analyzed the relationship between various demographic characteristics and job satisfaction. The commonly used characteristics in police job satisfaction research are: age, race, gender, education, and length of service/rank. Although, inconsistent results have been reported, these factors were important in this analysis of job satisfaction in policing. In order to gather this information, this survey instrument employed one item responses for each characteristic.

Race

According to the literature review in the previous chapter, studies of race and job satisfaction in policing have yielded inconsistent findings. For this study

respondents were asked to identify their race from a selection of five options, including multi-racial.

What is your race?

- A. African-American
- B. Asian
- C. Hispanic
- D. White
- E. Multi-racial

The majority of respondents identified themselves as white but all selection choices were used.

Gender

Consistent with previous studies the demographic variable of gender was included in this study. Respondents selected from two gender options to indicate their gender:

What is your gender?

- A. Male
- B. Female

Age

The literature review reported mixed findings regarding a relationship between age and job satisfaction. For this study, respondents were asked to indicate their age in response to the question "What is your age?"

Education

Research exploring the relationship between education and job satisfaction has produced inconsistent results. In this present study, officers were asked to select their highest level of education from the following options:

- A. High School
- B. Associate's Degree
- C. Bachelor's Degree
- D. Master's Degree
- E. Doctorate Degree

WORK-RELATED INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

According to the *work-role/prisonization model*, correctional worker reactions to their work are shaped by organizational and structural conditions found in the work environment and are not related to individual or demographic characteristics of the worker (Lombardo, 1981). In order to determine the relevance of this model for SROs, specific scales and measures of each were used to determine the effect of work-related variables on job satisfaction and work stress.

Years of Service in Policing

An officer's length of employment in policing may color his reaction to the work environment. The correctional literature suggested that length of time in policing may lead to either burn-out or it may help officers deal more effectively

with the risks and complexities of the job (Cullen, et al., 1985). This variable was included in the model to determine whether length of time in policing contributed to an SROs job satisfaction and/or work stress. In the present study, officers were asked to give the total number of years that they had been a police officer.

Years of Service as an SRO

This variable was included to determine the range of experience of the sample and to determine whether the length of time in this role influenced an SROs perception of job satisfaction and/or work stress. For this study SROs were asked "How many total years have you been an SRO?"

Volunteer

It was postulated that officers who do not have their choice in their assignment to this position may feel less satisfied in this position than would officers who chose to work in this area of policing. On this survey officers were asked to indicate from a "yes" or "no" response set whether they had volunteered to be a School Resource Officer.

Rank

The relationship between rank and job satisfaction has not been widely explored. In order to determine the professional ranking of the SRO the respondents were asked to report their current rank.

Training

It was important to determine whether SROs had received training for this particular job. As this area of policing is different from that of a patrol officer it

would appear that officers would need to be trained to provide services in the school setting. In most school settings, officers provide law-related counseling and teaching services as well providing school based law-enforcement. Many police departments offer specialized training for this area of policing. For this study, officers were asked to select their training experience from five options:

1. NASRO Sponsored
2. COPS/SRO
3. OSROA Sponsored
4. Other
5. None

The directions for this survey item did not indicate that only one training experience could be selected, as a result a portion of the sample reported more than one training experience.

Dangerousness

The possibility of getting hurt or victimized in the policing role may be cause for concern for most police officers. Even though SROs work in the school setting the potential for the officer to be involved in a violent incident is ever present. Due to the perceived dangerousness of this occupation it would seem that job satisfaction would negatively effected. In order to obtain a measure of this variable for this study, a dangerousness scale was created utilizing items from previous research by Cullen et al., (1985, 1989) and Van Voorhis et al., (1991).

Respondents were asked on the survey to indicate their level of agreement, on a 7-point Likert scale which ranged from strongly agree to strongly disagree, to the following five statements:

1. There is really not much of a chance of getting hurt at work
2. I work in a dangerous job
3. In my job a person stands a good chance of getting hurt
4. A lot of people I work with get physically injured in the line of duty
5. My job is a lot more dangerous than other kinds of work

Responses were coded to show that higher numbers on the scale were related to increased levels of perceived dangerousness.

Role Conflict

While the primary role of an SRO is law enforcement, other duties & responsibilities may be requested of the officer, which may be in conflict with the officer's perception of the role. This might lead to lower job satisfaction. In this study, items were selected from a scale comprised by Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman's (1970) for their study of role conflict in complex organizations. These four items were presented in a Likert-style format on a 7-point scale, which ranged from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (7). The officers were asked to indicate their agreement with the statement. The four items on the Role Conflict Scale were:

1. I have to do things that should be done differently.
2. I work on unnecessary things
3. In my job, I receive incompatible requests from 2 or more people.

4. I work with two or more groups who operate differently.

As in the previous scale, responses were coded to show that higher numbers on the scale were related to increased levels of role conflict.

Role Overload

In order to determine whether SROs perceived themselves to be overloaded with the duties and responsibilities of their job and the resulting effect on work stress and job satisfaction, a scale to measure this phenomenon was developed. The five items used from this study to comprise the Role Overload Scale were taken from a study by Peterson et al., (1995):

1. I feel overburdened by my work
2. My workload is too heavy
3. There is a need to reduce some parts of my role
4. I have been given too much responsibility
5. The amount of work I have to do interferes with the quality I want to maintain.

These items were presented to the respondents utilizing a 7-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 = strongly agree to 7 = strongly disagree.

Supervisory Support

The support of a supervisor should help mitigate work stress. In order to assess whether supervisor support was an important factor for SROs a scale was constructed to determine the relationship of this variable to job satisfaction and work stress. Utilizing items from a study by Cullen et al., (1989), respondents

were asked to indicate their agreement with three statements which composed the Supervisory Support Scale. The three items were:

1. My supervisor gives me helpful feedback about my performance
2. My supervisor supports my attempts to acquire additional training or education to further my career
3. My supervisor gives me helpful advice about improving my performance when I need it

The respondents indicated their agreement to these items using a 7-point Likert Scale with 1 = strongly agree to 7 = strongly disagree. As with the other additive scales used in this study, the items were coded so that higher numbers were associated with higher levels of supervisory support.

Family Support

In addition to on-the-job support, support can also come from non-work sources such as family members or friends. Family support can help officers work through problems they experience on the job. For this study, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement, using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly agree to 7 = strongly disagree with six statements related to family support. The items comprising this scale were previously utilized in a study by Cullen et al., (1985). The *Family Support Scale* utilized these items:

1. I have people in my family that I can talk to about the problems I have at work
2. No one in my family can really understand how tough my job can be

3. When my job gets me down, I always know that I can turn to my family & get the support I need to feel better
4. There is really no one in my family that I can talk to about my job
5. My spouse (or girlfriend/boyfriend/partner) can't really help me much when my job gets tense
6. It's a good thing that I have my spouse (girlfriend/boyfriend/partner) around when things aren't going well at work. She/he can really understand me and make me feel better.

Similar to the previous additive scales, the items were coded so that higher numbers represented higher levels of family support.

DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Work Stress

For this dissertation it was important to include a measure of work stress as it may affect job performance and satisfaction. This study incorporated a measure of work stress, utilizing items drawn from Cullen et al., (1990). Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement utilizing a Likert scale response system (1 = strongly agree to 7 = strongly disagree) to six items of the Work Stress Scale:

1. I am usually calm and at-ease when I am working
2. When I am at work, I often feel tense or uptight

3. I usually feel that I am under a lot of pressure when I am at work
4. There are a lot of aspects about my job that can make me feel pretty upset about things
5. Most of the time when I am at work, I don't feel that I have much to worry about
6. At times my job makes me very frustrated or angry

As with the previously identified additive scales used in this study, the responses were coded so that higher numbers corresponded to higher levels of work stress.

Job Satisfaction

For this study a global measure for job satisfaction was used. This variable was measured utilizing five items from the *Quality of Life Survey* (Quinn and Shepard, 1974;1979). These five items have been used by Cullen et al., 1985; 1993 Van Voorhis et al., 1991 in their studies of job satisfactions in corrections.

The following items composed the *Job Satisfaction Scale*:

1. All in all, how satisfied are you with your job?
 - a) Not satisfied at all
 - b) Not too satisfied
 - c) Somewhat satisfied
 - d) Very Satisfied

2. Knowing what you know now, if you had to decide all over again whether to take the job you now have, what would you decide?
 - a) Decide definitely not to take the same job
 - b) Have second thoughts about taking my job
 - c) Decide without hesitation to take the same job
3. In general, how well would you say your job measures up to the sort of job you wanted when you took it?
 - a) Not very much like the job I wanted
 - b) Somewhat like the job I wanted
 - c) Very much like the job I wanted
4. If a good friend of yours told you he (or she) was interested in a job like yours for your employer, what would you tell him (or her)?
 - a) Advise my friend against taking the job
 - b) Have doubts about recommending this job
 - c) Strongly recommend the job
5. If you were free to go into any type of job you wanted, what would your choice be?
 - a) Prefer some other job to the job I have now
 - b) Want to retire and not work at all
 - c) Keep the job I now have

Following procedures for analysis of the responses put forth by Quinn and Staines (1974), items from this scale were assigned a numerical value. Then

responses were summed and averaged. As in previous scales in this study, higher scores were associated with higher levels of job satisfaction.

ROLE-SPECIFIC VARIABLES

Most School Resource Officer programs follow the Triad Model for the delivery of services to schools. In this model SROs duties fall within the categories of Law Enforcement Officer, Law-related Counselor, and Law-related classroom teacher. The primary role for SROs is law enforcement however officer responsibilities often include other duties that are unique to this area of policing. Officers may have preferences for particular duties and in their role in schools they are able to engage in these duties. This would appear to promote job satisfaction for these officers. In some schools officers may have preferences for particular duties but have to spend a large amount of their time engaged activities that they do not prefer. This might lead to a lack of satisfaction for these particular duties. In order to determine officer preference for duties related to the Triad model of school policing, officers were instructed to rate 52 items that reflected various SRO duties & responsibilities using a scale of 1 to 4 (1 = dislike a lot to 4 = prefer the most). These items were borrowed from a survey by Travis and Coon (2005). The items for this scale are shown in Table 3.3.

HYGIENIC & MOTIVATING VARIABLES

To test Herzberg's theory a scale was developed to measure whether the hygienic and motivating factors as detailed by Herzberg were important to SROs in relation to their job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction and whether these factors were consistent to those identified for workers in general. In order to determine this, a scale of twenty concerns was included in this study (table 3.4). According to the theory, motivating factors contributed most to worker job satisfaction. For this scale, ten of the items related to extrinsic factors such as pay, benefits, working conditions, while the remaining items related to intrinsic factors of the job, such as recognition for work, promotion, and working with students. The respondents were instructed to rate on a 4-point Likert style scale, which ranged from 1= very satisfied to 4= very dissatisfied, their feelings regarding these concerns. For this scale lower mean scores represented higher levels of satisfaction.

STATISTICAL METHODS

In order to analyze the data from the survey, SPSS factor analysis was utilized to provide the descriptive statistics of the sample and to determine the significance of the data. Some of the descriptive data have been reported as percentages and mean scores. Bivariate analysis was used to examine relationships between variables of the study and to measure the strength of the relationship between the variables. Correlation coefficients were computed to measure the strength & direction between variables in the bivariate analysis.

Multivariate regression analysis was used to identify the independent variables from the study that could predict the dependent variables. The results of the statistical analysis follow in the next chapter.

NON-RESPONSE BIAS

For this study possible concerns regarding non-response bias due to the small sample size might be noted. Non-response bias occurs when response rates are low and the responses for those who do respond to a survey may be different from the responses of those who did not respond. It is the premise of probability sampling that the results from the observed sample can be generalized to largely unobserved populations (Singer, 2006). Recent case studies show little relationship between non-response rates and non-response bias (Curtin, Presser, and Singer, 2000; Keeter et al., 2000; Merkle and Edelman, 2002). A recent analysis of thirty non-response bias studies shows that although non-response bias may be common, the non-response rate by itself does not predict well the amount of non-response bias (Groves et al., 2006). The phenomenon of non-response bias continues to be studied as “response rates have not only

continued to decline but have done so at an increasing rate" (Curtin, Presser, and Singer, 2005).

Although, the rate of response was low, the sample demographics on some aspects were consistent with those in the general population of OSROA members. For example, the percentage of SROs who identified themselves as female was 13.5%. This was consistent with the percentage of female officers listed on the OSROA member roster 13.2%. So, non-response bias might be ruled out for this demographic characteristic. A second consideration related to non-response bias related to the location of the sample respondents. SROs from all zip-codes from the OSROA membership roster were represented in the sample (Table 3.2). The rate of returned surveys with zip-codes from cities with greater numbers of SROs (Cleveland, Columbus, Cincinnati, Toledo, and Akron) was consistent to the number of surveys sent out to the population of OSROA members in those cities (72.4% returned versus 73.1% from the OSROA membership roster). Also, by dividing the OSROA membership roster into north and south counties in Ohio, it was possible to determine that 56.7% of OSROA members were listed in the northern counties while 43.3% of the members were listed in the southern counties of Ohio. The sample indicated a consistent pattern of returned surveys to the number of possible respondents in the OSROA population (54.6% northern versus 45.4% southern counties). This data appeared to rule out or at least decrease non-response bias effects.

LIMITATIONS OF THE CURRENT STUDY

Due to the nature of this study certain limitations were noted. Several imitations related to the sample might interfere with the overall generalizability of the results.

SAMPLE

The first limitation relates to the response rate. The response rate for this study was 39.2%. Typically in studies such as this, a response rate of 50% or higher would be the benchmark for better generalizability of the results. While the OSROA membership lists 493 members as of March, 2008, thirty-three of the members on the list were not police officers. Their positions were school principals, teachers, school program facilitators, youth workers, and safety coordinators. A small number of officers were no longer working in policing or were no longer working as SROs either due to their programs being cut due to budgetary constraints or by choice, and some of the surveys were returned as undeliverable. This resulted in a pool of 433 eligible SROs. With a 50% response rate a total of 216 completed surveys would have been expected. The number of completed surveys for this study was 170 which lead to the response rate of 39.2%.

Another limitation related to the sample has to do with the fact that not all SROs were members of OSROA. Membership in OSROA is voluntary and not a requirement of the job. There was no data available to ascertain the number of SROs in Ohio who are not members of this organization. Their lack of affiliation with the state organization could be the result of factors that might be related to personal concerns, lack of interest in belonging to this professional organization, affiliation with national or local organizations for SROs, or other factors. Therefore, the results of the survey will only reflect the opinions of SROs in the state of Ohio who are members of OSROA.

Yet another limitation related to the sample was the sample demographics. The membership application for OSROA does not ask for data related to race, age, education, or gender. This made it difficult to determine whether the sample was representative of the population of SRO members of OSROA. As for gender, it could be determined whether the respondent was male or female based on the name on the membership roster. When this was taken into account, the sample was representative of female SROs in this organization (13%).

Lastly, as the returned surveys were anonymous, the follow-up mailings were sent out to the same 493 members as the initial mailing. The possibility that a member could have responded more than one time might be considered as there was no way to identify the respondents and no information included in the introductory letter to the SROs indicating that they were to complete only one survey.

SUMMARY

This chapter reviewed the method for this study of job satisfaction for School Resource Officers. Self-administered surveys were sent to members of OSROA as of March, 2008. The independent variables for this study were of three types: individual, work-related variables, and facet/role-specific variables. The dependent variables for this study were job satisfaction & work stress. As a test of the *Motivating-hygiene Theory*, factors within the job environment were identified as possible contributors to job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction for workers in this particular area of policing. Several limitations were noted that were related to the sample and the generalizability of the results.

The next chapter presents the results of this study utilizing descriptive measures, bivariate statistical analysis and regression models to answer the research questions.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The main objective of the current study was to explore the correlates of job satisfaction for police officers serving in a particular role. The previous chapter identified the procedures and measures used in this study. This chapter will detail the results of the statistical analysis of the data. The first part of this chapter describes the demographic characteristics of the sample and analyzes the descriptive data obtained for this study. In order to answer the research questions bivariate correlation and multivariate linear regression procedures were conducted. The results of the bivariate correlation and multivariate linear regression procedures will be reported after the descriptive statistics.

Survey Response

Even though completed surveys were returned anonymously, it was possible to determine which part of the state the survey came from based on the zip code on the postmark on the returned envelop. For at least 98% of the sample (166 returned surveys) it was possible to make this determination. Table 3.1 & 3.3

shows the distribution of returned surveys with their zip codes compared to the zip codes of surveys sent to the entire list of OSROA members.

DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF WORK-RELATED VARIABLES

Certain aspects of the policing role that are indigenous to police work were felt to be enough important to be included in this study of job satisfaction and work stress. They included work-related variables of dangerousness, role conflict, role overload, supervisory support and family support. The analysis of these variables should explain how these aspects of the job for officers in this particular role influence job satisfaction and work stress.

Working in an occupation where physical harm and danger are daily constants might preclude a worker from being satisfied in his job and contribute to work stress. According to this sample of SROs, Table 4.1 shows that almost 75% of the officers saw their job as dangerous and indicated that there was a high probability of getting hurt at work (65.8%). The SROs indicated that their job was a lot more dangerous than other professions (75.3%). Of note was that only 20% of the sample reported that they knew officers that had been physically injured on the job.

Role conflict can occur when the officer's perception of his role is incongruent with his actual role. For this sample, a majority of the sample indicated a level of agreement with the statement that they "have to do things that should be done differently," (Table 4.2, item 1). Role conflict was certainly expressed by the response to the statement "I work with two or more groups who operate differently" (70.5%). Most of the officers felt that they work on necessary

Table 4.1 Dangerousness Scale Items with Percentages Reported

Items	Strongly Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. There is really not much of a chance of getting hurt at work.	1.2	2.9	2.4	2.9	14.7	40.6	34.7
2. I work in a dangerous job.	16.5	38.8	22.9	9.4	3.5	5.3	1.8
3. In my job a person stands a good chance of getting hurt.	8.8	27.6	29.4	12.9	11.2	7.6	.6
4. A lot of people I work with get physically injured in the line of duty.	1.2	4.7	14.7	18.8	15.9	33.5	10.6
5. My job is a lot more dangerous than other kinds of work.	13.5	35.3	26.5	11.8	7.6	3.5	.6

Dangerousness Scale Range 5 to 30

Dangerousness Scale Mean 19.37

Alpha = .576

Table 4.2 Role Conflict Scale Items-Percentages Reported

Item	Strongly Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I have things to do that should be done differently.	2.9	15.3	26.5	29.4	10.6	12.4	1.2
2. I work on unnecessary things.	2.4	7.1	17.6	19.4	7.6	35.9	8.2
3. I work with two or more groups who operate differently.	18.8	32.9	18.8	12.4	4.7	9.4	1.8
4. In my job I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.	2.4	15.3	24.7	24.7	10.0	16.5	3.5

Role Conflict Scale Range 4 to 28

Role Conflict Scale Mean 15.15

activities in their jobs (51.7%) and there was moderate agreement with the statement that they “receive incompatible requests from two or more people.”

Workers often express that they have too much to do with too little time in which to do their work. Some feel overwhelmed and pressured which may lead to less satisfaction and greater work stress. As shown in Table 4.3, more than half of the sample reported that they did not see themselves as overburdened in their roles (51.8%) and did not see a need to reduce parts of their roles (58.9%). More than two thirds of the sample felt their level of responsibility was adequate and slightly less than half of the sample indicated disagreement with the statement “my workload is too heavy” (item 5).

SRO response percentages on table 4.4 indicated a strong level of agreement with supervisor feedback regarding job performance (62.4%) and advice regarding improving job performance (60.6%). An even larger portion of the sample (82.3%) reported that their supervisor supported their “attempts to acquire additional training and education to further their careers.”

Another source of support can come from family. As shown by table 4.5, three-fourths of the officers, indicated that they have particular family members they can go to for support and to sort out work-related problems. Over two-thirds of the officers reported that family members were aware of the stressfulness of their jobs.

Table 4.3 Role Overload Items—Percentages Reported

Item	Strongly Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I feel overburdened in my role.	1.2	7.1	20.6	18.2	10.0	31.2	10.6
2. The amount of work I have to do interferes with the quality I want to maintain.	4.1	9.4	22.4	18.8	12.9	24.7	7.1
3. I have been given too much responsibility.	.6	4.1	9.4	17.6	7.6	41.2	17.6
4. There is a need to reduce some parts of my role.	1.2	7.6	12.4	18.2	12.4	37.1	9.4
5. My workload is too heavy.	2.9	1.8	20.6	23.5	11.8	33.5	3.5

Role Overload Scale Range 5 to 35

Role Overload Scale Mean 23.66

Table 4.4 Supervisory Support Scale Items-Percentages Reported

Item	Strongly Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. My supervisor gives me helpful feedback about my performance.	15.3	35.3	11.8	11.8	7.1	10.6	6.5
2. My supervisor supports my attempts to acquire additional training or education to further my career.	27.6	38.8	15.9	6.5	3.5	4.7	1.2
3. My supervisor gives me helpful advice about improving my performance when I need it.	11.8	30.0	18.8	18.8	8.2	6.5	4.7

Supervisory Support Scale Range 3 to 21

Supervisory Support Scale Mean 8.75

Table 4.5 Family Support Scale—Percentages Reported

Items	Strongly Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I have people in my family that I can talk to about the problems I have at work.	33.5	37.6	13.5	4.7	2.9	4.7	1.2
2. There is really no one in my family that I can talk to about my job.	1.2	2.9	2.4	7.1	10.6	35.9	37.1
3. No one in my family can really understand how tough my job can be.	2.4	5.9	8.8	12.4	10.6	44.1	14.1
4. My spouse (girlfriend/boyfriend/partner) can really understand and make me feel better.	15.3	33.5	21.8	12.9	5.9	4.7	2.4
5. When my job gets me down, I always know I can turn to my family to get the support I need to feel better.	20.0	36.5	21.2	9.4	5.3	4.7	.6
6. My spouse (girlfriend/boyfriend/partner) can't really help me much when my job gets tense.	3.5	11.8	13.5	15.3	10.6	30.0	12.4

Family Support Scale Range **6 to 42**
Family Support Scale Mean **23.3**

DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Work Stress

Due to the nature of policing, officers may feel stressed in their roles which may lead to lowered job satisfaction. Table 4.6 shows officer responses to items associated with job stress. A large portion of the sample (74.7%) indicated that they were calm and at-ease at work and at least half of the sample indicated that they were not under a lot of pressure in the work environment. This finding seems contrary to percentage of officers that indicated disagreement to item 2, "Most of the time when I am at work I don't feel that I have much to worry about" (69.4%). This was also noted in the officers' response to item 5, "At times my job makes me very frustrated or angry" (62.9%).

Job Satisfaction

There are many positive benefits of having workers who are satisfied in their jobs. One of the goals of this study was to determine whether officers serving in the role of School Resource Officer were satisfied in the jobs. As shown in table 4.7, almost three-fourths of the officers surveyed (71.8%) reported that they were "very satisfied" in their jobs. A large portion of the sample (87.6%) reported that they would keep their present job in light of their curren

Table 4.6 Work Stress Scale Items—Percentages Reported

Item	Strongly Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. When I am at work I often feel tense or uptight.	1.2	3.5	17.1	10.0	12.9	45.3	8.8
2. Most of the time when I am at work I don't feel that I have much to worry about.	0.0	7.1	10.6	11.8	25.9	33.5	10.0
3. I am usually calm and at ease when I am working.	8.8	44.7	21.2	10.0	8.2	4.1	1.8
4. I usually feel that I am under a lot of pressure when I am at work.	.6	10.0	24.7	11.2	18.2	28.2	3.5
5. At times my job makes me very frustrated or angry.	8.8	24.1	30.0	6.5	10.0	17.6	1.8
6. There are a lot of aspects about my job that can make me pretty upset about things.	2.4	9.4	23.5	19.4	14.1	24.1	4.7

Work Stress Scale Range 6 to 42

Work Stress Scale Mean 24.9

Table 4.7 Job Satisfaction Scale Items with frequency Distribution

Items	SRO Sample Percentages N = 170
1. All in all, how satisfied with your job?	
A. Not satisfied at all	0.0
B. Not too satisfied	1.2
C. Somewhat satisfied	26.5
D. Very Satisfied	71.8
2. Knowing what you know now, if you had to decide all over again whether to take the job you now have, what would you decide?	
E. Definitely not to take the same job	2.4
F. Have second thoughts about taking my job	8.8
G. Decide without hesitation to take the same job	87.6
3. In general, how well would you say your job measures up to the sort of job you wanted when you took it?	
H. Not very much like the job I wanted	3.5
I. Somewhat like the job I wanted	34.7
J. Very much like the job I wanted	61.2
4. If a good friend of yours told you he (or she) was interested in a job like yours for your employer, what would you tell him (or her)?	
K. Advise my friend against taking the job	0.6
L. Have doubts about recommending the job	16.5
M. Strongly recommend the job	81.8
5. If you were free to go into any type of job you wanted, what would your choice be?	
N. Prefer some other job to the one I have now	16.5
A. Want to retire and not work at all	14.7
O. Keep the job I now have	68.2
Job Satisfaction Scale Range	1 to 5
Job Satisfaction Scale Mean	2.9

understanding of the position. School Resource Officers indicated their job was “very much like the job they wanted” (61.2%) and that if they could go into another job, they would choose their current position (68.2%). School Resource Officers overwhelmingly would encourage others to go into this field (81.8%).

DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF ROLE-SPECIFIC VARIABLES

These variables refer to the different duties and responsibilities that are unique to this job in policing. Table 4.8 lists these items along with the officers’ preference for these tasks. The three activities that School Resource Officers spent most of their time are ‘patrolling school facilities/grounds’, ‘mentoring/providing guidance to individual students’, and ‘present for school social events (dances, open-houses)’. The three duties that the officers spent least of their time are ‘operating metal detectors’, ‘mediating disputes between staff’, and ‘advising police athletic/activities league (PALs)’. The three job duties that the officers preferred most are ‘mentoring/providing guidance to individual students’, ‘teaching crime awareness or prevention’, and ‘working with parents to help their children’. The job duties that they preferred least are ‘operating metal detectors’, ‘mediating disputes between staff’, and ‘writing disciplinary reports’.

Activities	Time Spent on Task	Preference for Task
	(1 = no time to 10 = all my time)	(1 = dislike a lot to 4 = prefer the most)

Table 4.8 Descriptive Statistics for Role-Specific Variables

	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Performing sweeps for weapons	164	2.68	1.73	157	2.85	.70
Performing sweeps for drugs/contraband	164	3.51	2.03	158	2.97	.66
Conducting safety/security inspections	164	4.70	2.46	155	3.14	.57
Enforcing truancy laws	161	3.49	2.52	153	2.31	.84
Advising staff on law-related issues	165	4.37	2.00	158	3.09	.54
Advising staff on student rule sanction enforcement	162	3.44	2.24	150	2.65	.84
Mediating disputes between staff	158	1.48	1.20	139	1.73	.84
Operating metal detectors	146	1.25	1.17	112	1.79	.89
Patrolling school facilities/grounds	163	6.68	2.53	161	3.24	.55
Responding to crime/disorder reports from students	165	5.29	2.32	160	3.09	.58
Responding to crime/disorder reports from school staff	163	4.91	2.51	155	2.96	.66
Writing disciplinary reports	157	2.48	2.31	135	1.97	.81
Making arrests	164	3.54	1.91	159	2.58	.77
Solving crime related problems	164	5.05	2.00	161	3.33	.58
Writing police reports	165	5.10	2.45	162	2.50	.78
Advising staff on avoiding violence/victimization	164	3.79	2.18	159	3.08	.71
Investigating staff leads about crime/disorder	165	4.21	2.05	161	3.09	.59

Activities	Time Spent on Task			Preference for Task		
	(1 = no time			(1 = dislike a lot		
	to			to		
	10 = all my time)			4 = prefer the most)		
Patrolling drug-free zones beyond school boundaries	156	2.42	2.07	139	2.63	.86
Advising staff on problem-solving	163	3.15	2.13	151	2.85	.81
Patrolling student travel routes	164	4.06	2.79	153	2.80	.77
Issuing citations	162	2.67	2.02	154	2.39	.83
Performing traffic patrol on or around campus	165	3.90	2.79	155	2.74	.86
Advising staff on student behavior modification	163	3.29	2.36	150	2.80	.79
Advising staff on school policy changes	160	2.34	1.88	139	2.44	.88
Advising staff on physical environment changes	164	2.71	1.88	151	2.71	.76
Advising staff on school procedure changes	159	2.41	1.94	144	2.42	.89
Mentoring/providing guidance to individual students	164	6.05	2.46	158	3.54	.56
Helping students with court involvement or intervention	162	4.39	2.40	153	3.20	.72
Working with parents to help their children	165	5.19	2.46	161	3.33	.62
Referring students to other sources of help	165	4.62	2.23	159	3.26	.53
Referring parents to other sources of help	165	4.44	2.35	158	3.24	.55
Advising parent-teacher organizations (PTOs, PTAs)	160	2.79	2.17	147	2.91	.85
Advising police athletic/activities league (PALs)	147	1.91	2.00	119	2.52	1.02
Advising school athletic teams	155	2.48	2.11	131	2.83	.95
Advising community outreach programs	159	2.66	2.12	143	2.87	.89
Present at athletic events	162	5.06	3.02	154	3.26	.77
Present for school social events (dances, open-houses)	164	5.49	2.89	159	3.31	.66
Present at awards ceremonies	163	3.95	2.86	148	3.18	.75

Activities	Time Spent on Task			Preference for Task		
	(1 = no time to 10 = all my time)			(1 = dislike a lot to 4 = prefer the most)		
Chaperoning school field trips	152	2.74	2.34	134	2.96	.87
Present for school performances (school plays, concerts)	159	3.78	2.64	147	3.15	.77
Teaching D.A.R.E. classes	147	3.46	3.33	119	2.75	1.10
Teaching other anti-drug classes	157	4.02	2.44	149	3.26	.74
Teaching DUI prevention	156	3.63	2.39	142	3.23	.76
Teaching anti-gang classes	150	2.60	2.23	127	2.91	.93
Teaching anti-hate classes	151	2.73	2.26	129	2.99	.88
Teaching law-related classes	157	3.82	2.27	146	3.28	.73
Teaching firearm safety classes	144	2.11	2.19	112	2.82	.98
Teaching other safety education classes	158	3.84	2.44	146	3.29	.65
Teaching crime awareness or prevention	160	3.81	2.33	145	3.34	.69
Teaching career training	152	2.74	2.07	136	3.08	.82
Teaching conflict resolution	156	3.66	2.64	142	3.14	.84
Teaching problem-solving	154	3.75	2.50	139	3.19	.83

DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF HYGIENIC AND MOTIVATING VARIABLES

Within the work environment certain intrinsic and extrinsic factors may lead a worker to be satisfied with his job or to experience a lack of satisfaction in his working role. Herzberg's theory (1987) identified that motivating factors were related to a variety of aspects such as recognition for achievement, personal growth, and advancement. Hygienic factors relate to company policies, supervision, working conditions, salary, and status. According to the theory motivating factors lead to job satisfaction while hygienic factors "are the primary cause of unhappiness on the job" (Herzberg, 1987). Part four of the survey instrument was used to assess officer concerns regarding 20 factors or concerns related to this theory. Table 4.9 shows officer responses to these concerns. The mean and standard deviation values are reported. The top three concerns of the respondents are 'opportunities for promotion,' 'pay', and 'recognition for your work'. The top three factors that they were relatively satisfied are 'working directly with students', 'working hours', 'relations with students'.

Assumptions for Inferential Analysis

The dataset was investigated for the inferential analysis assumptions of absence of outliers, normality, linearity and homoscedasticity as relates to the 10

Table 4.9 Hygienic and Motivating Variables (mean scores reported)

Hygienic & Motivating Variables			
(1 = very satisfied – 4 = very dissatisfied)	N	Mean	STD
Pay	164	2.04	.77
Job Assignment	164	1.35	.55
Working Hours	164	1.26	.53
Working Conditions	164	1.49	.70
Safety	166	1.68	.65
Training for Job	166	1.78	.81
Opportunities for Promotion	165	2.43	.97
Job Security	165	1.51	.70
Relations with School Administration	166	1.36	.57
Relations with School Staff	165	1.31	.50
Relations with Students	165	1.28	.46
Relations with Police Supervisor	163	1.55	.76
Benefits	164	1.77	.74
Working directly with students	164	1.24	.43
School Rules and Policies	165	1.91	.68
Doing Classroom Presentations	164	1.55	.71
Supervision	165	1.68	.72
Recognition for Your Work	165	1.92	.87
Diversity of your roles within schools	165	1.56	.65
Mentoring Students	165	1.47	.60

variables used in inferential analysis, including the two dependent variables of (a) Work Stress, and (b) Job Satisfaction, as well as eight variables used as independent predictors; (a) Years as a School Resource officer (SRO), (b) Danger, (c) Supervisory Support, (d) Family Support, (e) Years as a Police Officer, (f) Resource Conflict, (g) Resource Overload, and (h) Age. Outliers in a dataset have the potential to distort results of an inferential analysis. A check of boxplots for the 10 variables was performed to visually inspect for outliers. The boxplots indicated that none of the constructs contained more than 5% outliers, with the exception of Job Satisfaction, which had 10 (5.8%) outliers. One outlier was extreme (± 3.3 standard deviations) on the Job Satisfaction variable, but was still within the acceptable score range for the variable. Since all outliers were in acceptable ranges of their associated constructs and a small percentage (approximately 5% or less) of the data were missing on any one construct, it was determined that all records would be retained for analysis and that the outlier assumption was not violated.

Normality for the scores of the 10 variables was investigated with SPSS Explore. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for normality indicated normal distributions on the variables of Danger, Role Conflict, and Work Stress. A visual check of histograms for the remaining 7 variables indicated a normal distribution for the variables of Role Overload and Age. The three remaining variables of (a) Supervisory Support, (b) Family Support, and (c) Job Satisfaction indicated skew.

Supervisory Support and Family support returned a right (positive) skew, indicating that most cases scored in the lower ranges with some scoring higher. Job Satisfaction returned a left (negative) skew indicating that most of the scores for this variable were in the higher ranges, with some scoring lower. Logarithmic transformation of the non-normal constructs returned histograms that were not visually improved over the original distribution, and also increased outliers in some instances. The medians and mean values were checked for each of the non-normally distributed variables and the values for both of these measures of central tendency were close in value, confirming that outliers and non-normality were not impacting the data. Therefore the assumption of normality was not considered violated and parametric tests or regression were used for inferential analysis.

Linearity was investigated via a visual review of scatterplots of bi-variate variable relationships. Many of the relationships were not linear. Additionally, some variables used for correlational analysis were not continuous or dichotomous in nature, so a parametric correlation (Pearson's Product Moment Correlation) was not used. Instead, Spearman's rho, a non-parametric alternative was used instead.

Scatterplots of residuals were checked during regression analysis and the assumption of homoscedasticity of residuals was not violated.

Missing data were observed in the study sample, however, no more than 6% of data were missing for any variable, a small amount. Pairwise deletion of cases was used in order to preserve as much data and power as possible for analysis (McKnight, 2007).

BIVARIATE STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Correlations

Table 4.10 presents the correlations between the dependent variables of Job Satisfaction and Work Stress, demographic variables and work-related independent variables.

Statistically significant correlations include a strong direct relationship between Years as a PO and Age ($r = .868, p < .01$), and a direct relationship between Years as an SRO and Age ($r = .340, p < .01$) indicating that increases in age are associated with increases in years as a police officer and with increases in years as an SRO. Age and Work Stress had a significant indirect relationship ($r = -.235, p < .01$) indicating that when age increases stress decreases or vice versa. Work Stress had strong direct relationships with variables of Education Level ($r = .524, p < .01$), Years as a PO ($r = .589, p < .01$), and Years as an SRO ($r = .546, p > .01$). Work Stress was also significantly directly associated with the variables of Role Overload ($r = .360, P <$

Table 4.10

Spearman's Rho Coefficients of Inferential Study Variables (N = 170)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 Age										
2 Education Level	-.073									
3 Years as PO	.868**	-.038								
4 Years as SRO	.340**	-.090	.338**							
5 Danger	-.010	-.062	-.013	.075						
6 Role Conflict	-.023	.050	-.033	-.066	.310**					
7 Role Overload	-.017	-.111	.000	-.175*	.261**	.435				
8 Supervisory Support	-.037	.019	-.055	.014	.029	-.149	-.170*			
9 Family Stress	-.041	.100	-.069	.081	-.052	-.290**	-.339**	.164*		
10 Work Stress	-.235**	.524**	.589**	.546**	-.574**	-.673	.360**	.233**	.284**	
11. Job Satisfaction	.131	-.087	.140	.000	.051	.238**	.166*	-.164*	-.126	.236**

Note. PO = Police Officer; SRO = School Resource Officer

* p < .05.

** p < .01.

.01), Supervisory Support ($r = .233, p < .01$), and Family Support ($r = .284, p < .01$). Work Stress has a strong indirect relationship with Role Conflict ($r = -.673, p < .01$). Years as an SRO and Years as a PO were directly correlated ($r = .338, p < .01$). Danger and Role Conflict were directly associated ($r = .310, p < .01$). Danger and Role Overload were also directly associated ($r = .261, p < .01$). Role Overload and Supervisory Support were indirectly related ($r = -.170, p < .05$). Family Support was indirectly related to both Role Conflict ($r = -.290, p < .01$) and Role Overload ($r = -.339, p < .01$). A direct relationship existed between Family Support and Supervisory Support ($r = .164, p < .05$). Job Satisfaction was directly associated with the variables of Role conflict ($r = .238, p < .01$), Role Overload ($r = .166, p < .05$), and Work Stress ($r = .236, p < .01$). Job Satisfaction was indirectly associated with Supervisory support ($r = .164, p < .05$).

Table 4.11 shows the correlations between Job Satisfaction/Work Stress and each Role-Specific Variable (both time spent on task and preference for task). Only the statistically significant correlations are shown in the table. Respondents who spent more time on 'advising staff on law-related issues' ($r=.16, p=.045$), 'advising staff on student rule sanction enforcement' ($r=.20, p=.011$), 'advising staff on student behavior modification' ($r=.17, p=.029$) and so on were more satisfied with their jobs. Officers who preferred more on 'advising staff on student rule sanction enforcement' ($r=.18, p=.028$), 'responding to

Table 4.11 Correlations between Job Satisfaction/Work Stress and Role-Specific Variables

Activities	Time Spent on Task		Time Spent on Task		Preference for Task		Preference for Task	
	r	Sig.	r	Sig.	r	Sig.	r	Sig.
	Job Satisfaction		Work Stress		Job Satisfaction		Work Stress	
Advising staff on law related issues	0.16	0.045						
Advising staff on student rule sanction enforcement	0.2	0.011			0.18	0.028	0.18	0.03
Responding to crime/disorder reports from students					0.16	0.044		
Responding to crime/disorder reports from school staff					0.22	0.006	0.3	0.0003
Making arrests			0.16	0.04				
Advising staff on student behavior modification	0.17	0.029						
Mentoring/providing guidance to individual students					0.2	0.012		
Working with parents to help their children					0.2	0.01		
Advising police athletic/activities league (PALs)							-0.19	0.04
Advising community outreach programs	0.21	0.009			0.3	0.00		
Present at athletic events					0.21	0.009		
Present for school social events (dances, open-houses)					0.16	0.042		
Present at awards ceremonies					0.25	0.002	0.18	0.03
Chaperoning school field trips					0.25	0.004		
Present for school performances (school plays, concerts)					0.18	0.033	0.17	0.04
Teaching other anti-drug classes	0.19	0.019			0.21	0.009		
Teaching anti-gang classes	0.17	0.039						
Teaching anti-hate classes	0.23	0.004			0.22	0.014		
Teaching career training	0.20	0.014						
Teaching conflict resolution	0.21	0.009			0.21	0.014		
Teaching problem-solving	0.2	0.013						

crime/disorder reports from students' ($r=.16$, $p=.044$), and 'responding to crime/disorder reports from school staff' ($r=.22$, $p=.006$) were more satisfied with their jobs.

Respondents who spent more time on 'making arrests' ($r=.16$, $p=.04$) tended to have more work stress; Officers who preferred more on 'advising staff on student rule sanction enforcement' ($r=-.18$, $p=.03$), 'responding to crime/disorder reports from school staff' ($r=-.3$, $p=.0003$), 'Advising police athletic/activities league (PALs)' ($r=-.19$, $p=.04$), 'Present at awards ceremonies' ($r=-.18$, $p=.03$) and 'Present for school performances (school plays, concerts)' ($r=-.17$, $p=.04$) tended to have less work stress.

Multiple Linear Regression

For both regressions, the categorical variable of Education Level was dummy coded into a dichotomous value with 0 = Associates degree or less, and 1 = Bachelors degree or higher.

Job Satisfaction

In the first regression model, Job Satisfaction was regressed on work-related and demographic variables (Table 4.12). The R value for regression was significantly different from zero, $F(9, 144) = 2.693$, $p = .006$, with an R^2 of .14 and 95% confidence limits ranging from .04 to .24. The adjusted R^2 value of .09 indicates that less than 10% of the variability in the dependent variable of Job satisfaction

Table 4.12: Multiple Regression Results for Job Satisfaction Regressed on Work Related and Demographic Variables ($N = 153$)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>Beta</i>	<i>t</i>	Sig.
Danger	.045	.046	0.552	.582
Role Conflict	.148	.158	1.745	.083
Role Overload	.079	.122	1.348	.180
Supervisory Support	-.129	-.132	-1.652	.101
Family Support	-.034	-.049	-0.580	.563
Age	.108	.243	1.560	.121
Education	.176	.020	0.258	.797
Years as Police Officer	-.037	-.076	-0.491	.624
Years as School Resource Officer	-.004	-.003	-0.037	.971
Model Summary	$F = 2.693$, sig = .006 $N = 153$ $R^2 = .144$ Adjusted $R^2 = .091$			

Note. Sig. = significance.

was predicted by the 9 independent variables in the model. No predictors were statistically significant.

Work Stress

In the second regression model, Work Stress was regressed on work-related and demographic variables (Table 4.13). The R value for regression was significantly different from zero, $F(9, 152) = 16.484, p < .0005$, with an R^2 of .51 and 95% confidence limits ranging from .41 to .61. The adjusted R^2 value of .48 indicates that close to one half of the variability in the dependent variable of Work Stress was predicted by the 9 independent variables in the model.

Significant predictors (4) for this model include Role Conflict, Role Overload, Family Support, and Age. Summed squared semi-partial correlations indicate that the amount of R^2 that would be reduced if the four significant predictors were removed from the model, which is .193 (19.3%). Each significant predictor contributes to the model as follows: (a) Family = .049 (4.9%), (b) Role Conflict = .021 (2.1%), (c) Role Overload = .097 (9.7%), and (d) Age = .024 (2.4%).

The squared semi-partial correlations indicate that the variable of Role Overload contributes the most to the model. The amount of variance that the 4 significant predictors contribute jointly to the model is .316 (31.6%).

In the regression analysis of job satisfaction regressed on the role specific variables (controlling for demographic variable) the following results were obtained. Controlling for age, gender, race and education, the role-specific

Table 4.13: Multiple Regression Results for Work Stress Regressed on Work Related and Demographic Variables ($N = 152$)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>Beta</i>	<i>t</i>	Sig.
Danger	.178	.118	1.858	.065
Role Conflict	.252	.172	2.506	.013
Role Overload	.373	.367	5.341	< .0005
Supervisory Support	-.176	-.115	-1.894	.060
Family Support	-.266	-.246	-3.794	< .0005
Age	.218	.313	2.642	.009
Education	.993	.072	1.227	.222
Years as Police Officer	-.136	-.180	-1.533	.127
Years as School Resource Officer	.228	.120	1.871	.063
Model Summary	$F = 16.484$, sig < .0005 $N = 152$ $R^2 = .509$ Adjusted $R^2 = .478$			

Note. Sig. = significance.

variables of Supervisory Support ($p=0.02$), Preference for 'Mediating disputes between staff' ($p=0.03$), Preference for 'Mentoring/providing guidance to individual students' ($p=0.02$), Preference for 'Advising parent-teacher organizations' ($p=0.006$) and Preference for 'Advising community outreach programs' ($p<0.0001$) significantly predict job satisfaction (table 4.14). The overall model explains 27% of the variance of Job Satisfaction (Table 4.15, adjusted $R^2=0.27$).

In the regression analysis of work stress regressed on the role specific variables (controlling for demographic variables) the following results were obtained. Controlling for age, gender, race and education, the role-specific variables of Role Conflict, Role Overload ($p<0.0001$), Preference for 'Performing traffic patrol on or around campus' ($p=0.01$), Time Spent on 'Investigating staff leads about crime/disorder' ($p=0.0002$) and Time Spent on 'Teaching other anti-drug classes' ($p=0.02$) and Time Spent on 'Teaching conflict resolution' ($p=0.002$) significantly predict Work Stress (table 4.16). The overall model explains 53% of the variance in the Work Stress Model (table 4.15, $R^2=0.53$).

Tables 4.17 and 4.18 list the coefficient estimates, standard error, and significance of all independent variables in the best fitted multiple linear regression model for job satisfaction and work stress respectively regressing on demographic variables, work related variables, and role specific variables.

Table 4.14 Correlates of Job Satisfaction (Role-Specific) controlling for demographic factors (Significant values)

Variable	Coefficient	SE	Sig.
Preference for 'Mediating disputes between staff'	-0.09	0.04	0.03
Preference for 'Making Arrests'	-0.07	0.04	0.06
Preference for 'Writing police reports'	0.07	0.04	0.07
Preference for 'Mentoring/providing guidance to individual students'	0.14	0.06	0.02
Preference for 'Advising parent-teacher organizations'	-0.13	0.05	.006
Preference for 'Advising community outreach programs'	0.18	0.04	<.0001

Table 4.15

Best Multiple Linear Regression Model on Work Related Variables and Role Specific Variables -Controlling for Demographical Variables:

Dependent Variables	N	F value	Sig.	R ²	Adjusted R ²
Job Satisfaction	125	3.86	<0.0001	0.27	0.20
Work Stress	128	11.85	<0.0001	0.53	0.48

Table 4.16 Correlates of Work Stress (Role-Specific) controlling for demographic variables

Variable	Coefficient	SE	Sig.
Age	.005	0.005	0.33
Male (vs. Female)	0.04	0.14	0.79
White (vs. Non-White)	0.03	0.17	0.84
Education	-0.03	0.05	0.52
Role Conflict	0.19	0.05	.0001
Role Overload	0.24	0.04	<.0001
Preference for 'Performing traffic patrol on or around campus'	0.14	0.05	0.01
Time Spent on 'Investigating staff leads about crime/disorder'	0.09	0.02	.0002
Time Spent on 'Present for school performances'	-0.03	0.02	0.06
Time Spent on 'Teaching other anti-drug classes'	0.05	0.02	0.02
Time Spent on 'Teaching conflict resolution'	-0.06	0.02	.002

Table 4.17 Correlates of Job Satisfaction (Role-Specific and Work Related) Controlling for Demographic Variables

Variable	Coefficient	SE	t Value	Sig.
Volunteer	0.222	0.096	2.32	0.022
Role Conflict	-0.062	0.029	-2.14	0.034
Supervisory Support	0.045	0.023	2.02	0.046
Time Spent on "Advising staff on student rule sanction enforcement"	0.036	0.014	2.59	0.011
Time Spent on "Teaching conflict resolution"	0.024	0.012	2.03	0.044

Table 4.18 Correlates of Work Stress (Role-Specific and Work Related Controlling for Demographic Variables

Variable	Coefficient	SE	t Value	Sig.
Role Overload	0.374	0.060	6.23	<.0001
Family Support	-0.261	0.063	-4.15	<.0001
Years of SRO	-0.068	0.020	-3.35	0.001
Preference for "Responding to crime/disorder reports from school staff"	-0.287	0.092	-3.10	0.002

Volunteer ($p = 0.022$), Role Conflict ($p = 0.034$), Supervisory Support ($p = 0.046$), time spent on 'advising staff on student rule sanction enforcement' ($p = 0.011$), and time spent on 'teaching conflict resolution' ($p = 0.044$) significantly predict job satisfaction. The overall model explains 18.4% of the variance of job satisfaction (table 4.19).

The variables of Role overload ($p = 0.022$), family support ($p < 0.0001$) years of SRO ($p = 0.001$), preference for 'responding to crime/disorder reports from school staff' ($p = 0.002$) significantly predict work stress. The overall model explains 44.4% of the variance of work stress (table 4.19).

The coefficient estimates, standard error, and significance of all the independent variables in the best fitted multiple linear regression model for Job Satisfaction and Work Stress respectively regressing on demographic variables, work related variables, role specific variables, and motivating and hygienic variables are shown in tables 4.20 and 4.21.

The regression model utilizing the variables of Preference for "Teaching law-related classes", Preference for "Teaching conflict resolution", Satisfaction for "Job Assignment", Satisfaction for "Safety" ($p = 0.048$) and Satisfaction for "Working directly with students" ($p < 0.0001$) significantly predict Job Satisfaction after controlling for the demographic variables. The overall model explains 45.8% of the variance of Job Satisfaction (table 4.22, $R^2 = 0.458$).

Table 4.19 Linear Regression Model on Work Related Variables and Role Specific Variables After Controlling for Demographical Variables:

Dependent Variables	N	F value	Sig.	R ²	Adjusted R ²
Job Satisfaction	148	6.4	<0.0001	0.184	0.155
Work Stress	140	27.0	<0.0001	0.444	0.428

Table 4.20 Correlates of Job Satisfaction (Role-Specific, Work Related, and motivating/hygienic) Controlling for Demographic Variables

Variable	Coefficient	SE	t Value	Sig.
Preference for "Teaching law-related classes"	-0.07	0.03	-2.51	0.0134
Preference for "Teaching conflict resolution"	0.09	0.03	2.81	0.0057
Satisfaction for "Job Assignment"	-0.21	0.06	-3.51	0.0006
Satisfaction for "Safety"	-0.12	0.04	-2.87	0.0048
Satisfaction for "Working directly with students"	-0.29	0.07	-4.43	<0.0001

Table 4.21 Correlates of work stress (Role-Specific, Work Related, and motivating/hygenic) Controlling for Demographic Variables:

Variable	Coefficient	SE	t Value	Sig.
Role Overload	0.38	0.06	6.31	<0.0001
Family Support	-0.26	0.06	-4.21	<0.0001
Years of SRO	-0.06	0.02	-2.79	0.0061
Preference for "Responding to crime/disorder reports from school staff"	-0.27	0.09	-2.94	0.0039
Time Spent on "Patrolling student travel routes"	0.05	0.03	2.07	0.0406

Table 4.22 Best Multiple Linear Regression Model on Work Related, Role Specific, Motivating/Hygienic) Variables After Controlling for Demographic Variables:

Dependent Variables	N	F value	Sig.	R ²	Adjusted R ²
Job Satisfaction	140	12.2	<0.0001	0.458	0.420
Work Stress	138	13.1	<0.0001	0.479	0.442

The regression model utilizing the variables of Role Overload ($p < 0.0001$), Family Support ($p < 0.0001$), Years of SRO ($p = 0.0061$), Preference for "Responding to crime/disorder reports from school staff" ($p = 0.0039$) and Time Spent on "Patrolling student travel routes" ($p = 0.0406$) significantly predict Work Stress after controlling for the demographic variables. The overall model explains 47.9% of the variance of Work Stress (see Table 4.22, $R^2 = 0.479$).

Summary of Findings:

The findings indicate that SROs were generally satisfied with their role in schools. They seldom had stress from their work. The duties that the officers most preferred were those related to teaching and counseling. SROs were not very satisfied with their payment and future growth. Role Conflict and Role Overload were the negative correlates of Job Satisfaction and Supervisory Support, Family Support, and Years of Services were the positive correlates. Work Stress is significantly positively correlated with Role Dangerousness, Role Conflict and Role Overload. Supervisory Support, and Family Support are significantly negatively correlated with Work Stress. Preference for "Teaching law-related classes", Preference for "Teaching conflict resolution", Satisfaction for "Job Assignment", Satisfaction for "Safety", and Satisfaction for "Working directly with students" best predict officers' job satisfaction. Role Overload, Family Support, Years of SRO, Preference for "Responding to crime/disorder reports

from school staff" and Time Spent on "Patrolling student travel routes" best predict officers' work stress. It appears from these results that SROs who work in a more traditional police role tend to experience more stress and less satisfaction in their job than those with more diversified roles consistent with the Triad Model. Herzberg's theory was supported by the results as motivating factors such as 'job assignment' and 'working directly with students' were significant in the model that predicted job satisfaction.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this dissertation was to identify the correlates of job satisfaction for School Resource Officers. In line with this, three research questions were formulated:

Question 1: Are School Resource Officers generally satisfied with their role in schools?

Question 2: Is role definition a correlate of job satisfaction for School Resource Officers?

Question 3: What specific duties of this position correlate with job satisfaction?

In this chapter, the research questions will be answered and discussed. Next, the implications of this study will be discussed with recommendations for future study in this particular area of policing.

Research Question 1: Are School Resource Officers generally satisfied with their role in Schools?

Worker job satisfaction is a highly studied phenomenon because of its association with benefits for both the worker and the employer. Lower job turnover rates, decreased absenteeism, and increased productivity have been associated with worker job satisfaction (Dantzer, 1994a; Buzawa, 1994; Halsted et.al., 2000). In policing, this concept has been widely researched since the early 1980s as it was thought to have a significant connection to police officer job performance. Most of the research on job satisfaction has been focused on

police officers in general, but there have been studies that have assessed this concept for correction's officers and prison wardens.

For this dissertation the focus was on a specific role in policing, that of School Resource Officer. With public concern regarding violence in schools, School Resource Officers have been called upon to provide a safe and secure learning environment. As this role is different from that of a patrol officer it was of interest to determine whether these officers were satisfied with their roles in schools.

As can be seen from table 4.7, ninety-seven percent of the officers expressed satisfaction with their jobs. A majority of the officers reported that they were "very" satisfied with their job. When asked " knowing what you know now, if you had to decide all over again whether to take the job you now have, what would you decide?" a majority of the sample indicated that they would decide without hesitation to keep the same job (87.6%). Most officers reported that they would strongly recommend the job to others (81.8%). A majority of the officers (61.2%) revealed that the job was "very much like the job I wanted" and 68.2% reported that they "would keep their job" if they had the option to go into any type of job. The results from this sample of SROs indicate that these officers are pleased with this role in policing.

Age has been found to have a positive correlation with job satisfaction for police officers (Buzawa, 1984; Hunt & McCadden, 1985; Lefkowitz, 1974; Griffin et al., 1978). In this study, age had a significant indirect relationship with work stress which indicated

that older officers experienced less stress in their jobs but were not necessarily satisfied in their jobs.

It is apparent from the data that job satisfaction for SROs that those SROs who did not experience high amounts of role conflict, role overload, and work stress and who have supervisory support tended to be more satisfied with their jobs. These factors appear to be the component for having satisfied officers. SROs who perceive that they are supported and encouraged by their supervisors in their job were found to experience higher levels of job satisfaction. According to this sample of SROs, supervisors who provided feedback and advice about performance as well as encouraging educational advancement helped these officers experience satisfaction in their jobs. Similarly, officers who acknowledged that when they experienced difficulties or stress in their jobs, they had supportive relationships with family member or other close relations to help mitigate work stress were more satisfied than officers who did not. This suggests that support from those knowledgeable of the stress of the job, are as important for officers in this role as it would be for workers in other occupations.

Those officers with longer years of service in policing were also more satisfied than officers with shorter periods of work experience in policing. Policing literature has noted a negative relationship between years of service and job satisfaction. Previous research has found that officers new to policing experience more job satisfaction than officers who have been in policing for longer periods of time. While the finding for this sample appears contradictory it may be due to the fact that the sample consisted of officers

who had an average of 17 years in policing with just over 4 years experience as an SRO. For these officers, being an SRO was new role for them, so their level of job satisfaction may be higher due to the newness of the position which may be similar to that of officers new to the police force.

The regression model that included the individual and work-related variables explained only 9% of the variance of job satisfaction. None of the variables included in this model predicted job satisfaction. While this model was not a strong model for the prediction of job satisfaction it does indicate that there are other factors that contribute to job satisfaction for SROs.

Officers who have less work stress were found to be more satisfied in their jobs than those experiencing higher levels of work stress. This finding was expected as this would be a similar result for most workers in any occupation and was consistent research of stress and job satisfaction in policing. Of note was the finding that work stress was significantly positively correlated with role conflict and role overload. Along with reported higher levels of work stress, these officers perceived that they were overloaded as they had difficulty fulfilling job tasks within the allotted time and had conflicting and often incompatible role or job demands. Cullen et al, (1985) concluded that role problems were positively correlated to multiple forms of work stress.

One explanation for the role problem issue may relate to the nature of policing in a school setting. In the school setting SROs have several different roles that they engage in to meet the needs of the school organization according to the Triad Model of school

policing. These roles change throughout the day and may fluctuate from situation to situation. While SROs generally report the school administrator, typically the school principal, SROs also experience demands from school staff, parents, and other members of the school organization. The primary role of any police officer is law-enforcement. Role conflict might be experienced when school policies and procedures conflict with law-enforcement policies and procedures. While the officer may be in the building to provide a safe learning environment, these officers are often required to engage in activities not directly related to this role. Table 4.8 lists many of the duties a SRO might be expected to engage. Also, of note was that 70% of the SROs reported that they have to work with groups who operate differently. This speaks volumes regarding the differences between the police and school organizations. Some officers may have difficulty adjusting to these differences which may in turn lead to stress. Almost half of the sample indicated that they "have to do things that should be done differently" and near half of the sample reported that "in my job I receive incompatible requests from two or more people".

Role overload may result from the activities and duties that are unique to the School Resource Officer role. Many of these activities require after-hours work or constant attention throughout the school day. Problem students are expected to be dealt with in a timely fashion, yet SROs are also expected to respond to crisis situations throughout the work day. Due to the nature of the varying roles and duties and the constant need to monitor for a safe and secure school environment, SROs can become overwhelmed

by the requirements of the job. Over half of the sample reported that “my job makes me very frustrated or angry”. A majority of the sample also expressed that they felt they had much to worry about on their jobs. This may in turn influence role overload. As SROs are expected to be highly mobile, visible, and flexible in the school setting (Johnson, 1999) the numerous tasks which they must fulfill can result in job stress and lowered satisfaction in their jobs. The overall sample reported that they felt calm and at-ease when they were working, that there were few aspects of the job that made them upset, that they did not feel under pressure while at work, nor did they feel tense or uptight at work. While the results suggest there is some stress associated with their role, a majority of the officers do not feel overly stressed.

The regression model for the prediction of work stress was able to explain 48% of the variance in work stress. According to this regression model, role conflict, role overload, family support, and age predict work stress. This model is stronger in the prediction of work stress than job satisfaction.

The response to this research question is that School Resource Officers are overwhelmingly satisfied with their jobs, would decide without a second thought to stay in their job as SRO, and would strongly recommend this job to others.

Research Question 2: Is role definition a correlate of job satisfaction for School Resource Officers?

School Resource Officers traditionally have three general roles in the school setting. This is commonly identified as the “Triad Approach” to school policing. The first role, which is the most common role, is that of law-enforcement officer. In this role officers enforce laws, ordinances, and policies and investigate criminal behavior. They also participate in crime and delinquency prevention, provide on-site crisis/emergency response to disasters, safety threats, provide security at school functions, and serve as a positive community policing role model. A survey of members of NASRO reported that 50% of the SROs’ work in schools falls within this category. The second role of the triad for school policing is that of law-related counselor or advisor. In this role, SROs work with students regarding rights, responsibilities, concerns, and unacceptable behavior, assist in the development and implementation of school safety and crisis response plans, act as a liaison to parents, school staff and community members, and they also make referrals for social services and other community programs. For most SROs, according to the NASRO survey, approximately 30% of their time is used in this role. The last dimension of the triad model is that of law-related teacher. About 20% of the SROs time is engaged in this role. Within this role the SRO provides classroom instruction, assists in developing safety and crime prevention programs and curricula, and works with probation officers and other representative of the juvenile justice system.

There was no item on the survey that specifically asked about role definition for SROs. In hindsight it may have been appropriate to have asked the officers to rate their perception of their role in the school setting according to the Triad Model. In order to answer this research question SRO responses to their preferences for the various duties of a SRO were reviewed. It seems that if SROs reported greater preferences for duties under a particular spectrum of the triad then this might suggest a preference for that particular role as opposed to other roles.

As shown in Table 4.11, significant correlations between job satisfaction and several role-specific duties were noted. SROs demonstrated a strong preference for duties that involved counseling and advising, mentoring, teaching, and being present at school events. There were two duties that were significant that fell within the law-enforcement spectrum: "responding to crime/disorder reports from students" and "responding to crime/disorder reports from school staff". This was of no surprise in that these role-specific duties are the basis for SROs in schools.

In relation to work stress, Table 4.11 revealed similarities in the duties identified as correlated to job satisfaction as also correlated with work stress. Duties related to teaching, mentoring, advising, and being present at school events corresponded with less work stress. "Making arrests" for this sample correlated with more work stress. The stress that comes from this task may be related to the time and paperwork involved in making an arrest and the disruption to the SROs other duties and responsibilities.

These findings appear to suggest that role definition for SROs falls within the law-related counselor/advisor and law-related teacher role in the Triad Model.

Research Question 3: What specific duties of this position correlate with job satisfaction?

The results of the analysis of the various roles pertaining to the triad model revealed significant correlations with job satisfaction for duties that were aligned with both the counselor/advisor role and the law related teaching role. Table 4.11 shows these duties. Many of the duties identified provide the basis for the need for police officers in the school setting. The charge for SROs is to provide and maintain a safe and secure teaching and learning environment. SROs who teach and advise students in schools on problem-solving and conflict resolution skills as well as teaching anti-hate, anti-gang, and other anti-drug classes skills stand a better chance of maintaining order in the schools. The time spent on activities related to teaching and counseling can provide students with the needed skills that may decrease their chance of engaging in violent behavior. They can also teach students alternatives to violent behavior and educate school staff on how to assist in modifying student behavior. SROs can initiate and participate in both prevention and intervention strategies which have as the outcome increased feelings of safety and security in the school environment.

These specific duties appear to be the correlates of job satisfaction for SROs. That these duties fall within the teaching and counseling/advising role should indicate that the placement of officers in schools serves the school environment more than just a

deterrent to aberrant student behavior but can be a valuable resource in presenting skills and information to both students and staff to counterbalance the causes of violence in the school setting. These correlates align with the functions that were identified in the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, SEC 1, 42 USC 2796dd, 1998. What may be of importance here is that SROs who offer more than just law-enforcement services are making a notable effort to prevent school violence as opposed to reacting to each incidence of school violence.

HYGIENIC AND MOTIVATING VARIABLES

In addition to responding to the research questions of this dissertation, the hygienic and motivating variables for SROs were to be identified and discussed. Herzberg (1987) identified factors that were related to a feeling of well-being or satisfaction (motivating) with one's job as opposed to those factors that were associated with a lack of satisfaction (hygienic). For this dissertation twenty concerns were developed that represented both hygienic and motivating factors which are shown in table 4.9.

The table shows that for this sample the top three concerns associated with relative job satisfaction were "working hours", "working directly with students", and "relations with students". While the concerns of relations with students and working directly with students would be considered motivating factors as they relate to the work itself, "working hours" might be seen as a hygienic factor, associated with work conditions.

However, this satisfaction with work hours may also be related to the work itself in that SROs work school hours. For many after-school activities and functions, SROs are paid overtime for their services. This benefit of the job would be motivating to the SRO and thereby increase job satisfaction. Also, these concerns are intrinsic to work of an SRO and are important sources job satisfaction in the work environment (Herzberg, 1968).

The top three factors for which this sample found the least satisfaction were: "opportunities for promotion", "pay", and "recognition for your work". It appears that for SROs these factors produce job dissatisfaction. According to the theory, these factors do not represent as motivators for this position in policing but rather as sources of unhappiness in this role. For most workers, being recognized for their work is of great importance. Even when there is little extrinsic benefit praise for work can be an incentive for increasing worker productivity. In the SRO position there is little opportunity for promotion and increased pay due to the nature of the job.

CONCLUSIONS OF STUDY

The purpose of this study was to determine job satisfaction for SROs. The results of this study conclude that SROs are highly satisfied working in this area of policing. Officers in this position are not overly stressed as they have both family support and support from their supervisors to mitigate the stress found in the workplace. However, perceived dangerousness and role problems, namely role overload and role conflict

contribute to SRO feelings of work stress. It can be concluded that SROs are well trained in that 90% of the sample reported that they had received training from local, state, and national training resources. While most SROs have been in policing an average of 17 years, the length of time that they have been SROs is relatively a short period of time, a little over 4 ½ years. Also, officers were older in this field of policing. Another conclusion of this study is that in their jobs SROs prefer to engage in activities that fall under the law-related advisor/counselor role and the law-related teacher role. While they acknowledge that the law-enforcement role is the primary role in schools, they do have time to provide mentoring and guidance to students. Role definition is important but it changes throughout the day for these officers. It seems safe to conclude that these officers are an educated group in that over 50% of the sample had an associate's degree or higher. It can be concluded that the majority of OSROA members are white, male, and volunteered for the job of SRO.

IMPLICATIONS OF STUDY

There are several implications that come to mind from this study. The first relates to one of the benefits of having SROs in schools. Not only do they provide safety and security in the learning environment, the officers in this sample also utilize counseling/advising, mentoring, and teaching strategies to work with students for the prevention of violence. They do not appear to be locked in one role in the schools.

Many of the duties SROs prefer to do relate to teaching, mentoring, and providing skill training to reduce interpersonal conflict and increase problem solving and conflict resolution skills. One of the sure ways to decrease school violence is to teach and model positive ways to resolve conflict. These officers expressed satisfaction with their jobs perhaps in part because they are able to utilize their skills and training to be more proactive with students in stemming violence and conflict. The benefit that these officers bring to schools is based on their ability to adapt their role to be a valuable resource to schools. Schools would do well to utilize the many services that an SRO can provide.

A second implication of the study is that the findings should inform police agencies and school systems of the importance of this area of policing. In Appendix A, comments written by SROs regarding issues and concerns not addressed by this study are shared. Many of the comments were positive, reflected a genuine love of working with students, and made reference the need for SROs in schools. One of the concerns that was raised had to do with the observation that not every police officer is cut out to be an SRO and that it takes certain interpersonal skills that every officer does not possess. The majority of officers in this sample volunteered for this position. However, for those officers placed in this position due to low seniority, etc., their placement in this position may not be a good match. Respondent #143 articulates the problem in his/her comment. Other comments related to funding or lack there of for SRO programs, role overload, and

organizational concerns. Overall, these comments reflected a genuine concern for the need for SRO programs and a dedication to serving students and communities.

Another implication relates to future study of this area of policing. Future studies may want to investigate officer perceptions of role definition based on the Triad Model. While the Triad Model indicates that 50% of the time is spent on law-enforcement activities, 30% on advising/counseling duties, and 20% in law-related teaching activities, it would be of interest to determine SRO perceptions of the time they actually spend in these roles based on these percentages. Also, it would be informative to determine how officers perceive their competency for the two latter roles of the Triad. Knowledge of this work would be useful for the training of SRO candidates. Future study may also want to investigate personality characteristics of SROs to determine whether officers with similar personality traits select this area of police and how these characteristics lead to the selection of efficient and effective SROs. Lastly, future research may want to investigate how police and school organizational problems along with funding problems affect the productivity and the goals of an SRO program.

Direct work with students was a significant motivating factor for this sample of SROs. This finding appears consistent with reasons why these officers have chosen this area of policing. An implication of this finding suggests that these officers know the value of their work with students and should be given the training and support to enhance their work with this population.

Just as the correlates of job satisfaction for SROs were identified by this study, the correlates of work stress were also identified. Problems with role conflict and role overload were found to increase stress for this group of SROs. An implication of this finding is that clearer role expectations and better understanding of role demands can decrease stress for SROs. This can be done through better collaboration with the SRO, police department, and school so that their services can be provided with better efficiency and effectiveness. Also, police supervisors should be informed that their support can mitigate work stress.

The finding that this group of police officers was overwhelmingly satisfied in this job leads to the conclusion that the work needs of these employees are being met. As satisfied employees tend to be more productive, reliable, and intrinsically motivated this should result in many positive benefits for the police organization, the individual SRO, and the schools that they serve. An implication of this finding is that officers who have positive attitudes and perceptions of the job will be more effective and efficient in their roles in the detection and prevention of school violence. This supports the rationale for having police officers in school settings. Satisfied SROs should be better equipped to forge positive relationships with students, staff, and community that are necessary to building a safe and secure learning environment. In order to keep SROs satisfied greater role diversity might be considered as officer preference for activities related to teaching and counseling tended to correlate more with job satisfaction.

While acknowledging that role diversity and non-traditional policing are important to SRO job satisfaction another implication of this study relates to several intrinsic factors of the position, namely lack of advancement opportunities and lack of recognition, that if addressed could provide even greater job satisfaction for SROs. SRO programs should consider ways to provide advancement incentives for SROs. Just as traditional police officers have the opportunity for advancement, SROs should be given the opportunity to advance in this area of policing without having to leave the field. Recognition for work is important in any job. SRO programs and police agencies should also develop ways of providing recognition for SROs. Much of what SROs do can appear routine and mundane to an observer however, the work of the SRO contributes to the safety and security of students and staff within the school environment. These officers should be recognized for the work that they do as this is will help them to remain satisfied and well-motivated.

The last implication has to do with future research. The results of this study conclude that SROs are satisfied workers. Future research in this area might compare job satisfaction for regular patrol officers and with that for SROs. This would be informative as police officers in traditional policing roles might experience different levels of satisfaction due to the nature of their role in policing than officers in a specific policing role. Comparison of the correlates of job satisfaction between these groups might lead to greater understanding of why some officers choose to specialize while others may be contented with the challenges of general policing. Whatever the case,

knowing those aspects of the job that lead to job satisfaction can be beneficial to all involved in improving the work environment.

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Appendix 1

2007 Survey of Ohio School Resource Officers

Audrey Coaston-Shelton
Doctoral Candidate
College of Education, Criminal Justice, and Human Services
University of Cincinnati
Cincinnati, Ohio 45221

Please complete this questionnaire and return it to: College of Education, Criminal Justice, and Human Services, Division of Criminal Justice, University of Cincinnati, PO Box 210389, Cincinnati, Ohio 45221-0389, ATTN: AC Shelton/SRO Survey

I. Directions: I would like to begin by asking you about your views of your job. There are no right or wrong answers, I just want to know your opinion. Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements by checking the appropriate box.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
There is really not much chance of getting hurt at work.....							
I feel overburdened in my role.....							
I have people in my family that I can talk to about the problems I have at work.....							
The amount of work I have to do interferes with the quality I want to maintain.....							
A lot of people I work with get physically injured in the line of duty.							
I have been given too much responsibility.....							
My supervisor gives me helpful feedback about my performance....							
There is really no one in my family that I can talk to about my job..							
When I am at work I often feel tense or uptight.....							
In my job a person stands a good chance of getting hurt.....							
There is a need to reduce some parts of my role.....							
No one in my family can really understand how tough my job can be.....							
Most of the time when I am at work, I don't feel that I have much to worry about.....							
I work in a dangerous job.....							
My spouse (girlfriend/boyfriend/partner) can really understand and make me feel better.....							
I am usually calm and at-ease when I am working.....							
My job is a lot more dangerous than other kinds of work.....							
I have things to do that should be done differently.....							
When my job gets me down, I always know I can turn to my family to get the support I need to feel better.....							
I work on unnecessary							

things.....							
I usually feel that I am under a lot of pressure when I am at work...							
My spouse (girlfriend/boyfriend/partner) can't really help me much when my job gets tense.....							
I work with two or more groups who operate differently.....							
My supervisor supports my attempts to acquire additional training or education to further my career.....							
At times my job makes me very frustrated or angry.....							
In my job I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.							
My supervisor gives me helpful advice about improving my performance when I need it.....							
My workload is too heavy.....							
There are a lot of aspects about my job that can make me pretty upset about things.....							
I would recommend this job to others.....							

II. Instructions: I want to know about your duties as a School Resource officer. First I want to ask you about the amount of time you spend on the following activities each day and then I want to know your level of satisfaction with each activity.

In the first column rate on a scale of 1 to 10 (1 = no time, 10 = almost all of my time) the amount of time you give to each activity.

In the second column you are to rate your preference for each task using the following scale:

1 = DISLIKE A LOT, 2 = DISLIKE, 3 = PREFER, 4 = PREFER A LOT

Activities	Time Spent On task	Preference for task
Performing sweeps for weapons		
Performing sweeps for drugs/contraband		
Conducting safety/security inspections		
Enforcing truancy laws		
Advising staff on law-related issues		
Advising staff on student rule sanction enforcement		
Mediating disputes between staff		
Operating metal detectors		
Patrolling school facilities/grounds		
Responding to crime/disorder reports from students		
Responding to crime/disorder reports from school staff		
Writing disciplinary reports		
Making arrests		
Solving crime related problems		
Writing police reports		

Advising staff on avoiding violence/victimization		
Investigating staff leads about crime/disorder		
Patrolling drug-free zones beyond school boundaries		
Advising staff on problem-solving		
Patrolling student travel routes		
Issuing citations		
Performing traffic patrol on or around campus		
Advising staff on student behavior modification		
Advising staff on school policy changes		
Advising staff on physical environment changes		
Advising staff on school procedure changes		
Mentoring/providing guidance to individual students		
Helping students with court involvement or intervention		
Working with parents to help their children		
Referring students to other sources of help		
Referring parents to other sources of help		
Advising parent-teacher organizations (PTOs, PTAs)		
Advising police athletic/activities league (PALs)		
Advising school athletic teams		
Advising community outreach programs		
Present at athletic events		
Present for school social events (dances, open-houses)		
Present at awards ceremonies		
Chaperone school field trips		
Present for school performances (school plays, concerts)		
Activities	Time Spent On task	Preference for task
Teaching D.A.R.E. classes		
Teaching other anti-drug classes		
Teaching DUI prevention		
Teaching anti-gang classes		
Teaching anti-hate classes		
Teaching law-related classes		
Teaching firearm safety classes		
Teaching other safety education classes		
Teaching crime awareness or prevention		
Teaching career training		
Teaching conflict resolution		
Teaching problem-solving		

III. Now, I would like to know how pleased you are with your work in general. Please circle the response for each item that best expresses your feelings.

1. All in all, how satisfied are you with your job?
 - a) Not satisfied at all
 - b) Not too satisfied
 - c) Somewhat satisfied
 - d) Very satisfied

2. Knowing what you know now, if you had to decide all over again whether to take the job you now have, what would you decide?
 - a) Decide definitely not to take the same job
 - b) Have second thoughts about taking my job
 - c) Decide without hesitation to take the same job

3. In general, how well would you say your job measures up to the sort of job you wanted when you took it?
 - a) Not very much like the job I wanted
 - b) Somewhat like the job I wanted
 - c) Very much like the job I wanted

4. If a good friend of yours told you he (or she) was interested in working in a job like yours for your employer, what would you tell him (or her)?
 - a) Advise my friend against taking the job
 - b) Have doubts about recommending this job
 - c) Strongly recommend the job

5. If you were free to go into any type of job you wanted, what would your choice be?
 - a) Prefer some other job to the job I have now
 - b) Want to retire and not work at all
 - c) Keep the job I now have

IV. Instructions: In this next section you will find a list of various concerns that School Resource Officers express from time to time. I would like to get some idea of how satisfied you are with each of the following concerns. Please read each concern and place an "X" in the appropriate spaces below. Indicate whether you are: **VERY SATISFIED (VS)**, **SOMEWHAT SATISFIED (SS)**, **SOMEWHAT DISSATISFIED (SD)**, or **VERY DISSATISFIED (VD)**.

CONCERNS	Very Satisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Somewhat Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied
Pay.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Job Assignment.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Working Hours.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Working Conditions.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Safety.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Training for Job.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Opportunities for Promotion.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Job Security.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Relations with School Administration.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Relations with School Staff.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Relations with Students.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Relations with Police Supervisor.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Benefits.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Working directly with students.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
School Rules and Policies.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Doing Classroom Presentations.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Supervision.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Recognition for Your Work.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Diversity of your roles within schools.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mentoring Students.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

V. Finally, I would like some information about you a few questions about you that will help me interpret the results. I will use this information only to group you with others who are like you to see whether your views are similar.

1. What is your age? _____
2. What is your gender? Please circle one of the choices.
 - A. Male
 - B. Female
3. What is your race? Please circle one of the following choices.
 - A. African-American
 - B. Asian
 - C. Hispanic
 - D. White
 - E. Multi-racial
4. What is the highest degree that you have earned? Please circle one of the following choices.
 - A. High School
 - B. Associate's Degree
 - C. Bachelor's Degree
 - D. Master's Degree
 - E. Doctorate Degree
5. How many total years have you been a police officer?

6. How many total years have you been an SRO?

7. Did you volunteer to be an SRO? Please circle one of the following choices.
 - A. Yes
 - B. No
8. What is your present rank? _____

9. What kind of training did you receive for the position of SRO?
Please circle any that apply:

NASRO

NASRO-sponsored

COPS/SRO

OSROA-sponsored

Other

None

Thank you for participating in this important study!

❖ Any comments, use back of page.

Appendix 2

SRO Survey Comments

#3

Some of the dissatisfaction with the assignment stems from our school district undergoing a current financial crunch. Residents have persisted in voting school levies down and a new school board has been elected, along with a new superintendent hired who have only one goal in mind-to cut costs. These people have demonized or vilified the previous superintendent using him as a scapegoat for all the district problems. Currently the school resource officers have been spending a good part of every day directing traffic due to bussing being cut.

So there you go, sooner or later everything comes back to politics.

Directing traffic is a very unlikeable job for me but my complaints are minor, it is the kids who are getting the short end of the stick.

P.S. Teachers have also been layed off and class sizes increased. Teacher aides have been let go. Now there is talk of hiring non teaching staff for hall monitors and study hall monitors because they can pay them less with no benefits.

Looks like my work load is going up.

#7

We need more officers to work at grade school level to identify the problems with student and parent and to correct it if possible and it would save tax payer dollars. Educate, prevent, and respond.

Charles Hammonds

814 So 4th Ironton Ohio 45638

#9

Encouraging another officer to become a SRO. You may want to re-word questions regarding this subj. This job depends on officer's demeanor, ie.; how do they related with kids, verbal communication, the reason they too/applying for the job, navigating the political arena, work ethic, and honor system- hours vary, O.T., freedom that an officer does not have on the road, little or no actual supervision as to day to day operations.

#10

Being a school resource officer is one of the most rewarding things I have ever been involved in. It feels great to make a positive impact on so many

students and their families. The rapport I have established with countless kids has been very beneficial to our community as a whole.

#14

I really enjoy my work as an SRO, however, over the past couple of years my frustration with my police agency in general has greatly increased. My frustration and dissatisfaction is due primarily because of recent changes in the police administration and significant financial problems (including layoffs) within our agency. These problems may have caused some of my responses about general job satisfaction to be lower than usual.

#18

For the particular school that I'm at, several times I have problems with school administrators not informing me of an incident that occurred that I should know about such as:

- Thefts of calculators/electronics from lockers
- Theft of computer from a staff area
- School investigation into a teacher for improper behavior with a student...incident later became criminal matter

#23

I am a supervisor, so some of the questions don't directly apply to me. I am not an SRO, but I supervise them.

#34

Due to budget cuts I have been taken out of the schools and community relations as a full time position. I work the road full time and if time permits work in the schools.

#37

Personal Note: We are a seniority bid department. I have top seniority which enables me to hold dayshift. I do not take promotional exams because it would take me from dayshift and I would become a "subbing shift SGT" I would no longer be allowed to be the DARE/SRO officer. I have been a DARE instructor for 7 yrs.

#38

For section II there should be a "does not apply" or "do not do" response. In section IV under "opportunities for promotion, in most cases if a SRO or DARE officer gets promoted they are removed from teaching as a SRO or DARE instructor.

#41

I quit the SRO program Jan 23, 2008. I loved that job. I quit, on my own because of two other officers in that unit at my school. They are assholes. I couldn't work with them. I no longer wanted to make that unit work. Now I'm

back at basic patrol. Writing tickets mostly-and ruining people's days. Now I hate my job.

#58

- 1) Turnover in administration within the school district can be a challenge.
- 2) Overall this has been a rewarding assignment and I enjoy being able to touch the lives of the children through their school years.

#59

My responses do not necessarily reflect my personal professional outlook, but more relate to the way the SRO program is set up at our dept. I have four (4) schools I'm responsible for-3 elementary 1 middle school and it's on a "part-time" basis. I work the road full time and work in the schools when I can.

#64

The school I work in has approx 2,500 students, grades 9 through 12. The school is broken up into 6 small schools. That means there is 6 principals. Each principal has their own way in issuing school consequences/discipline. There is no consistency among the principals. Students that should be suspended or expelled are not because they are special ed, have an I.E.P. or their referral was improperly written. Large problem with gangs. I have to tie up 5 police units after school because of fights and large groups of kids congregating, kids walking in the street, and jay walking. When we stop kids for walking in the street, we usually issue citations. In one case a student was stopped for walking in the middle of the street. The officer gave her a verbal warning and sent her on her way. Don't you know that the very next day, her mother went to the superintendent and to the police station to complain that police were harassing her daughter, and that she was allowed to walk in the street. If she was issued the ticket it would've cost \$130 fine and \$30 court costs plus taking the day off to go to juvenile court. Remember "no good deed goes unpunished!" Kids today have no fear of anyone, I hate to say that. I could go on and on but I won't. Good luck in your research!

#71

We have recently been removed from the SRO program due to budget problems.

#74

Sorry I wasn't much help to you, but having had to do my own study for college classes, I figure it better to partially respond rather than not at all.

I've only been a certified SRO since Aug '07 and we cut out our SRO program (with the exception of DARE) in Jan '08 so I've never actually worked as an SRO.

The answers I've given are from my experiences as an officer in general and as a former student in the city of my current place of employment with an active SRO at that time.

#77

Some of the questions were answered a certain way do to limited information. Example: My department is small. 30 total officers.

The question about satisfaction with promotion opportunities is more about eh department and less about the SRO position. Meaning that, if I want to take and receive a promotion I would have to leave the SRO role and become a Sgt. With swing shifts, work weekends, holidays etc. I prefer the 7am-3pm shift with weekends off.

Please feel free to contact the OSROA (Ohio SRO Association) executive board for any further information. The members of OSROA appreciate your commitment to the SRO position.

#80

I am a DARE Officer in the elementary schools so my role is very different than a typical SRO.

#82

I am a middle school liaison officer so I put "NA" for some responses that didn't apply.

87: This was my first year as an SRO. I spent most of my time learning my job. In my second year, I'd like to get more involved in the school and develop further camaraderie with the students. I have enjoyed my first year and I am looking forward to the next and beyond.

96: This is a great job! The students in our school district are great. My administration team are the best. Thanks.

97: Being an SRO is a great and rewarding job. You really get close to the kids and their problems. You can make a difference in their lives which is so very important. But you have to be a friend first, and police officer second.

106: SRO is a new position with our department; but for about the last 5-6 years. I was doing community policing and was very active in the schools.

107: I am no longer an SRO due to manpower issues in my department. I loved being an SRO. Unfortunately I saw our program go down hill before it was completely dismantled. We originally had 4 SROs and now have 1.

120: I was forced to retire this year from my position as an SRO after I received a spinal implant from an injury. I was truly crushed when I had to leave my school and my students. It was so addicting to help kids stay safe that I started a non-profit organization to continue the work. If it will help your research into SROs please visit our website at www.ProtectingHisGifts.org and feel free to contact me if I can help.

121: To give you a quick background and reason for my lack of involvement and satisfaction. My department covers 2 local school districts—1 large, 1 small. When I became an SRO I took over for the large High School with approximately 1600 students. The small district had an SRO, and we had an SRO for the middle schools in the larger district. For the last year and a half I have been the only SRO due to “city budget cuts.” I am now responsible for visiting and conducting SRO duties through out both districts. I am stretched too thin to be an effective SRO.

122: I feel that being a school resource officer, it is an important role. I feel that every school should have a school resource officer. A lot of problems with not being able to have one is due to lack of funding. There should be more grants available for SROs.

129: You should have a number for things that do not apply. For time spent and preference.

130: Besides being assigned to SRO I have other duties assigned to my position. I am also Alarm Administrator of 5000 accounts within the city. I am responsible for the department wide inventory and control. I enjoy the SRO aspect however the other assignments tend to require a lot of my attention and focus. Which I consider a drawback to this position at times.

133: Noted: part time now, retired a few years ago. Covered SRO when schedule required, but enjoy the job. Last few years while full time, was in community policing/crime prevention unit. Taught 3rd grade seat belt program, other safety courses and found this aspect of police service very enjoyable. I would have liked more training, but enthusiasm helps.

135: Being an SRO without being an certified/registered police officer limits me to what I can do with students. Also, I don't have the right to carry a concealed weapon. Most SROs are actually police-officers.

141: I love my job, but am only working 2 to 4 days a week due to a knee replacement. I work with every school within Madison County. Best of luck on your dissertation! My Master's is in Theology and now we are starting a new Chaplain role for every agency in our county.

143: I believe that something you need to remember is that an SRO position is not for everyone. Many officers do not have the patience to work/deal with kids and their parents. There is a large amount of politics that comes with being an SRO and you truly need to be able to play the game. I always try to remember that I am there as an SRO and I try to always do what the school wants. But I answer to my department first. There are many officers who were placed in an SRO position who do not want to be there, or who only take the position for the hours. This does not benefit the school students or the officer. It creates a very negative relationship between the school and the police department and a

negative for the officer. Being an SRO is a great opportunity for officer to create a positive relationship between officers and kids. It does take hard work to bond with kids because a lot of times all they see us the outside. The uniform! But when you do make connections with the kids there is a true feeling of pride and satisfaction. You have to let the kids know who you are. I always try to share with the kids that I'm a mom, a wife and I am a normal person with the same type of interests they have. I have found by opening who I am has helped me gain the respect of the students.

144: I feel you should have considered the demographics of the school district in which you perform your duties. The school district I am in is very rural with a district enrollment of 2100 K-12. I am sure my opinions and job duties would differ from those of an officer in a very large school district. Ex: I do not use a metal detector at our district and I do not teach D.A.R.E. One officer for entire county teaches D.A.R.E. and his is not an SRO. P.S. Keep the certificate—you will need it when you are doing your dissertation.

147: My primary job is SRO assigned to the detective bureau. I have numerous additional duties. My primary additional duty is IT. The largest obstacle I've encountered as an SRO is politics. My efforts to obtain cooperation between counties, schools and the police department have effectively blocked my career advancement. No matter how high I finish on tests and assessment centers, I am blocked from moving up. In hindsight I probably should have spent more effort on internal politics. It's easier to fix something from the top instead of the bottom. No SRO that I know of, in this area, has ever been promoted. Interestingly enough, my last chief retired and became a patrolman/SRO for a neighboring agency. He is the only one in the US to do that. Perhaps the bosses feel that I have it too good. Good luck.

156: Although I am satisfied overall with my job, I find it to be psychologically taxing on a regular basis. This is why I feel it would take a specific type of person to deal with the problems I deal with everyday. For parental decision making is primary problem that gets manifested in secondary ways that the students bring to school.

157: The biggest drawback in our department's position of SRO is that the SRO is also responsible for ½ of the DARE program in a rather large school district. Both positions should stand alone. But manpower is an issue.

159: As a SRO I love working with kids and families but I feel the government should look at helping the school districts in funding this program. I started and the government gave the schools and county a grant for 3 years and then they cut the grant putting the pressure on the school/county to pick up the funding. My position is that the school picks up 9 months and the county picks up 3 months. If you could help SROs we would really appreciate it. Thanks.

