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When Do Police Stressors Particularly Predict Organizational Commitment? The Moderating Role of Social Resources

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Abstract

The current study uses data from 570 male police officers working in 16 substations in South Korea to examine the impact of job stressors (e.g., victimization, authoritative organizational culture, and perceptions of unfair work assignments) on organizational commitment. Further, we examine the conditioning effect of social resources on organizational commitment. The results show that organizational characteristics (e.g., authoritative organizational culture, unfair work assignments, and conflict with coworkers) influence officers' organizational commitment more so than victimization experiences. The results also show that social resources spill over into the workplace and condition the effects of organizational culture on predicting organizational commitment. Potential policy implications are discussed.

Keywords: law enforcement, organizational commitment, social resources, job stressors

Introduction

Organizational commitment is a hot topic in the organizational psychology and business literature. Organizational commitment can be defined as "the relative strength of the individual's identification with, and involvement in, a particular organization" (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974, p. 604). Broadly speaking, organizational commitment refers to the extent to which employees identify with and show loyalty to their place of employment. An abundance of research has found that organizational commitment is associated with a myriad of positive outcomes in the workforce including lower rates of job turnover (Jaramillo, Nixon, & Sams, 2005) and absenteeism (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Price & Mueller, 1986) and increased job performance (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). In fact, meta-analytical research has found organizational commitment to be one of the strongest predictors of job satisfaction, performance, and turnover intentions (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005). Regarding law enforcement, organizational commitment can improve the quality of policing by helping officers conform to departmental procedures and goals through the encouragement of fewer unethical behaviors (Farmer, Beehr, & Love, 2003; Haarr, 1997), by reducing rates of burnout (Lambert, Qureshi, Klahm, Smith, & Frank, 2017), and by helping officers gain public confidence (Van Maanen, 1975), which is a primary objective of policing in a democratic society.

Despite these benefits, little attention has thus far been paid to predictors of organizational commitment in the policing literature (cf. Dick, 2011; Johnson, 2015; Morris, Shinn, & DuMont, 1999; Qureshi, Frank, Lambert, Klahm, & Smith, 2017; Qureshi, Lambert, & Frank, 2019). Further, the literature has often failed to consider work stressors unique to the policing profession such as victimization experience, authoritative organizational culture, and perceptions of unfair work assignments (Adams & Buck, 2010; Yun, Hwang, & Lynch, 2015).

The current empirical study adds to this literature by assessing the relative influence of police-specific stressors and social resources on the organizational commitment of South Korean police officers. We drew on the job demands/resource model that posits that even when there are high job demands, employees can experience fewer and less severe, physiological, and psychological outcomes if the organization provides resources to support employees (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001). To date, only a few studies have examined the effects of social resources on organizational commitment (cf. Ellrich, 2016; Morris et al., 1999), and empirical studies of the conditioning effect of social resources on organizational commitment are scarce. Thus, by including these measures in the presented analyses, our multivariate models offer a more complete test of the predictors of police officers' organizational commitment than those previously published.

Literature Review

Job demands/resources model

According to the job demands/resources model, two sets of characteristics are associated with working environments: job demands and job resources (Demerouti et al., 2001). Job demands involve the physical, social, and organizational work stressors experienced by an employee related to the physical or psychological outcomes of that employee. Demerouti and Bakker (2011) conceptualized job demands as "[w]ork circumstances that involve excessive or undesirable constraints that interfere with or inhibit an individual's ability to achieve valued goals" (p. 4). For instance, stress related to victimization, or the threat of victimization, is one job demand unique to law enforcement. Job demands have been found to predict various negative workplace outcomes positively, and prolonged exposure to job demands can result in workplace stress and occupational burnout (Lambert et al., 2017). Given our focus on occupational specific

stressors, it is important to clarify these two related, but distinct outcomes. Job stress is a psychological state associated with anxiety, tension, and strain experienced at work (Van Voorhis, Cullen, Link, & Wolfe, 1991). Occupational burnout is a product of job stress. Specifically, occupational burnout is defined as emotional, psychological, and social withdrawal after long-term exposure to the stress experienced at work (Maslach, 1982). Occupational burnout typically takes much longer to manifest within a worker than does job stress. Both conditions can be detrimental to an individual worker and his/her employer.

Job resources involve the physical, psychological, social, and organizational resources that can decrease the impact of job demands on an employee and, in turn, reduce the subsequent physiological and psychological costs that result in negative workplace outcomes (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti & Bakker, 2011; Demerouti et al., 2001). Job involvement, satisfaction with work, organizational support, and organizational commitment are all examples of job resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Essentially, the job demands/resources model assumes that any demand for a job and any resource related to that job can affect an employee's health and general well-being, which, over time, affects employees' performance and disposition toward their work (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). The model also presents a *fundamental interaction hypothesis*—that the impact of job demands on physiological distress and workplace outcomes is influenced by job resources (Dollard, Tuckey, & Dormann, 2012, p. 694). Simply put, the model assumes that a high number or intensity of job demands is associated with physiological distress if and only if job resources are low. Thus, to improve workplace outcomes, one needs to increase job resources while simultaneously reducing job demands.

Prior work has found support for this hypothesis. For instance, using a sample of Australian police officers, Dollard et al. (2012) found that workplace policies, practices, and

procedures designed to improve officer health and safety implemented at the managerial level moderate the effect of job demands on occupational distress. Similarly, Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) used data from a sample of Dutch home care professionals and found that personal resources (e.g., self-efficacy, organizational-based self-esteem, and optimism) moderate the relationship between job demands and engagement/exhaustion with one's work. Together, these findings suggest that job resources can offset the negative impact of job demands on occupational exhaustion and burnout. However, given the limited number of studies that have explored these phenomena, more research is needed in this area.

Organizational Commitment

As noted above, organizational commitment can be considered to be one type of job resource (Lambert et al., 2017). Organizational commitment is a multidimensional concept referring to the strength of one's bond to his/her organization (Qureshi et al., 2017). Two of the most studied areas in this realm are continuance commitment and affective commitment (Lambert, Kim, Kelley, & Hogan, 2013). Continuance commitment refers to a person being committed to his/her employer merely due to prior investments and "sunk costs" such as pay, benefits, and non-transferable skills (Qureshi et al., 2017, p. 8). Essentially, this type of employee is externally motivated to be committed to his/her employer. Prior research has found high levels of continuance commitment to have negative effects on employee performance and organizational functioning (Lambert et al., 2013). Conversely, affective commitment refers to an intrinsic psychological bond with one's employer associated with loyalty, pride, and the acceptance of organizational values and goals (Mowday et al., 1982; Qureshi et al., 2017); it is a form of internally motivated commitment to one's employer. Affective commitment is partly a product of organizations treating employees well (Allen & Meyer, 1990), and it is generally

associated with positive work-related outcomes for both the employee and the organization (Mercurio, 2015).

As most work in the policing literature on organizational commitment typically employs measures of affective commitment (Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012), conceptually, the current study examines organizational commitment through an affective commitment lens. Prior work in this area has noted that low levels of affective commitment are associated with cynicism with policing work, officer burnout, and corruption (Haarr, 1997; James & Hendry, 1991; Manzoni & Eisner, 2006). Comparatively high levels of commitment have been found to be related to a myriad of benefits including support for community-oriented policing, officers' conformity to departmental procedures and goals, reductions in unethical behaviors, lower rates of burnout, and increased public confidence in law enforcement (Farmer et al., 2003; Ford, Weissbein, & Plamondon, 2003; Haarr, 1997; Lambert et al., 2017; Qureshi et al., 2017; Van Maanen, 1975). As such, it is important to measure predictors of organizational commitment.

Prior research has documented many correlates of organizational commitment related to three key areas: demographic variables, organizational and managerial variables, and job-related variables (Dick, 2011). Regarding demographic variables, researchers have noted significant correlations between age (Lambert et al., 2017), gender (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), race (Johnson, 2015; Morris et al., 1999), tenure (Dick, 2011; Gregersen & Black, 1992; Mottaz, 1988), years of experience (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Morris et al., 1999), and organizational commitment. Generally, results from these works indicate that older workers, females, non-whites, those with more years of service, and those with more tenure, all report greater organizational commitment. Other researchers have found organizational and managerial-related variables to be associated with organizational commitment. These variables include factors related to the support provided

by one's organization or managing staff. In this area, researchers have found supervisor support and feedback (Dick, 2011; Jaramillo et al., 2005; Johnson, 2015; Morris et al., 1999), role ambiguity (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970), role conflict (Rizzo et al., 1970), confidence in organizational executives (Dick, 2011), and promotional opportunities (Jaramillo et al., 2005; Qureshi et al., 2017) to be associated with organizational commitment. Job variables refer to all other factors unique to one's occupation that can affect an employee's organizational commitment. Notable correlates of organizational commitment in this category include the relationship with one's peers and autonomy and input in decision-making processes (Johnson, 2015).

Gaps in the Research

While the recent work by Lambert et al. (2017) noted an inverse correlation between job stress and affective commitment, researchers have typically employed a general index measure of job stress that exhibits weak internal consistency. Further, Lambert et al.'s measure fails to capture many stressors unique to police work including officers' victimization experience (Cheong & Yun, 2011; Manzoni & Eisner, 2006), measures assessing the documented authoritative organizational culture of law enforcement (Yun et al., 2015), and perceptions of work assignments (Winfree, Guiterman, & Mays, 1997). These variables may be worth exploring, as they have been found to be legitimate and significant stressors associated with police work.

Moreover, many previous studies in this area have failed to examine the moderating role of social resources in multivariate modeling. The occupational stressors experienced by police officers may create conflict with family and friends outside the workplace and subsequently reduce organizational commitment (Lambert, Qureshi, & Frank, 2016; Qureshi et al., 2019). That

is, stress related to conflict experienced while policing can spill over from an officer's work domain to his/her family or social domain. Using this logic, it is reasonable to postulate that positive social support from an officer's family or social domain could also spill over to his/her work domain, thus acting as a job resource that reduces the impact of job stressors and subsequently increases organizational commitment. Indeed, prior research has found that officers rely on social support to cope with traumatic events experienced on the job (Evans, Pistrang, & Billings, 2013). However, the only other study that has tested the interaction effects between job demands and resources in predicting organizational commitment is Ellrich's (2016) research of 1,931 German patrol police officers. Ellrich found mixed support for the moderating role of social resources in the relationship between job demands and organizational commitment. Specifically, social resources—measured by group cohesiveness and immediate supervisor support—condition the relationship between civilian-related violence and organizational commitment among German police officers. However, her measure of social resources fails to consider support from family and friends outside the workforce. Therefore, her study was simply a test of social resources in the workforce. Thus, to the best of the researchers' knowledge, no one else has explored the impact of social resources outside the workforce on predicting officers' organizational commitment by conditioning the effects of job demands.

Current study

The current study attempts to bridge these gaps in the literature by examining the effects of job stressors and social resources on organizational commitment using a sample of South Korean police officers. In doing so, this work offers a more complete test of the job demands/resources model by including job stressors unique to policing in multivariate modeling. Furthermore, to the best of the authors' knowledge, this is the first study to empirically examine

the positive spillover effects of social resources on organizational commitment. Additionally, we are one of just a handful of studies to examine predictors of organizational commitment using a sample of Asian police officers, who can have very different dispositions toward police work than western officers have. While western societies tend to value individualism, South Korean society honors a strong sense of collectivism that emphasizes group-based values, including loyalty, harmony, and conformity to collective norms (Yun et al., 2015). Consequently, organizational commitment among South Korean police officers may be relatively insulated from the effects of job stressors and social resources because they are accustomed to their collective culture that prioritizes organizational goals over individual needs and desires. However, prior work suggests that the interrelationships between job stressors, social resources, and organizational commitment persist across cultural boundaries, regardless of whether the sample in consideration is drawn from a western country (e.g., Ellrich, 2016) or an eastern country (e.g., Lambert et al., 2017). We seek to further expand this line of inquiry by examining the effects of job stressors and social resources on organizational commitment within the context of Asia. Thus, as an auxiliary goal of this research project, we expect that our work will serve to provide evidence regarding the external validity of the job demands/resources model.

Specifically, based on the findings of prior research, we formulated three main hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Job stressors are negatively and significantly associated with organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 2: Social resources are positively and significantly associated with organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 3: Social resources condition the negative effects of job stressors on organizational commitment.

Methods

Sample

The data for the current study were collected in 2010 through a self-report survey of South Korean police officers. One of the authors secured approval from the head of the crime prevention division at the Daejun Metropolitan Police Agency, one of seven metropolitan agencies in South Korea. He then contacted the heads of 19 police substations, called *Jigoodaes*, within the Agency to gain permission to administer the survey. Sixteen heads granted permission to conduct the survey. However, three *Jigoodae* heads did not provide approval for the survey due to administrative inconvenience. *Jigoodaes* are similar to police storefronts based on the community policing model. About 50 police officers are deployed at each *Jigoodae*, and they are responsible for patrol operations as well as responding to calls for services in the designated area.

In 2010, one lieutenant in charge of checking on each *Jigoodae* every day helped administer the survey. While he was visiting each *Jigoodae*, the researcher provided information on the study to officers who attended roll calls; officers were informed that participation in the survey was voluntary and that their responses would remain anonymous and kept in a secure location. The survey questionnaire featured general questions about police officers' working experiences as well as their perceptions of their supervisor and organization. A total of 593 officers returned surveys, representing a response rate of 74%. Only 19 female officers completed the survey questionnaire. This distribution was expected given that the proportion of female officers in the Korean police force is less than 5%. Nonetheless, we decided to exclude cases involving female officers from our analyses due to a lack of respondents. Four cases with

extensive missing values were also removed, resulting in a final sample of 570 male police officers.

Criterion Variable

Organizational commitment. Organizational commitment was measured using eight items adapted from Porter and Smith's (1970) *Organizational Commitment Scale* and the *Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire* (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1983). Items included (a) "I am willing to put my best efforts to help my police department to be successful," (b) "I tell my friends that my police department is an excellent organization," (c) "I do not feel a sense of responsibility about my organization (reverse coded)," (d) "I am willing to do anything for my police department," (e) "I often think about quitting my police work (reverse coded)," (f) "My police department is the best workplace for me," and (g) "It was a grave mistake to choose to be a police officer (reverse coded)." Respondents were asked to report how they felt about these items on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). A principal component factor analysis (with Promax rotation) was conducted on the eight items, and all the items loaded onto a single factor, showing the unidimensionality of the measure. Further, the Cronbach's alpha (.850) suggested good internal consistency.

Predictor Variables

Job stressors. One of the authors of the current study conducted unstructured interviews with 20 South Korean line officers in 2009 to identify job stressors in police work in South Korea. The survey questionnaire included the key stressors related to police work at *Jigoodaes*. The stressors identified from the unstructured interviews were largely comparable to the police stressors included in previous research (Beehr, Johnson, & Nieva, 1995; Gershon, Barocas, Canton, Li, & Vlahov, 2009). This set of items included (a) "unnecessary meetings," (b)

"unreasonable orders," (c) "authoritative organizational culture," (d) "unfair work assignment," and (e) "having no say in the decision-making process." Following Manzoni and Eisner's (2006) method to measure perceived work stress, respondents were asked to report how often they had experienced the incidents listed above on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (never) to 4 (daily). Respondents were then asked to rate the intensity related to how stressful they had felt about each incident on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 0 (not at all) to 4 (very strongly). We multiplied the value of the frequency scale by the value of the intensity scale for each item related to job stress (see Manzoni & Eisner, 2006).

Previous studies have shown that perceptions of one's work environment are shaped by a variety of job stressors, including relationships with supervisors and coworkers (e.g., Johnson, 2015), poor working conditions (e.g., Violanti & Aron, 1994), and work/family conflict (e.g., He, Zhao, & Archbold, 2002). Research has also found public perceptions (e.g., negative police images) toward law enforcement to serve as a source of stress for police officers. (e.g., Cheong & Yun, 2011). As such, we attempted to include measures of these stressors in our work. To measure these job stressors, we largely drew on the questionnaire used by Manzoni and Eisner (2006). The measure of conflict with supervisors was captured with two items: (a) "being rebuked by a supervisor" and (b) "lack of support from a supervisor." These two items had a Cronbach's alpha of .774, and the principal component factor analysis showed that the items loaded onto a single factor. An index for conflict with coworkers was also created using two items: (a) "lack of cooperation among colleagues" and (b) "lack of trust among colleagues." The index indicated a Cronbach's alpha of .952, and the items loaded onto a single factor. Poor working conditions were measured using a three-item index: (a) "extended working hours," (b) "excessive workload," and (c) "shortage of labor." Again, the internal consistency of this scale

item was high (α = .796) and conformed well to a one-factor solution. Work/family conflict was constructed using two items: (a) "conflicts with spouse/children due to police work" and (b) "not being able to take care of family because of police work." The scale conformed well to a one-factor solution, and the scale's reliability and measures of internal consistency were above the conventional acceptance threshold (α = .722). Negative police image was measured using two items: (a) "unfair criticisms of the media" and (b) "negative police image." Factor analytic techniques suggest that the two items loaded onto a single factor, and the Cronbach's alpha analysis suggested good internal consistency (α = .757).

Social resources. An index for social resources was assessed using a two-item scale. Respondents were asked to indicate the degree to which they agree or disagree with the following two statements: (a) "I have many people that I can talk to when I am stressed out" and (b) "I can rely on my family and friends when I am having a hard time." Responses to each item followed a five-point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). An index measure of social resources was created by summing the responses to these two items (α = .750). It is important to note that this measure is distinctly different than our measure of work/family stressors. While our measure for work/family conflict is narrowly focused on the family domain, our measure for social resources encompasses various domains, such as the peer domain and the work domain. Further, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was small (r = -.016, p = ns), indicating that the two measures are empirically distinct. Thus, the two measures can be included in the same multivariate statistical model.

Other covariates. The last series of variables considered were related to an officer's demographic information (e.g., age, rank, marital status, educational attainment) and victimization experience. Age was measured as a continuous variable. Rank was measured using

a five-point scale ranging from 1 (police officer) to 5 (captain). Marital status was a binary variable with a value of 1, indicating that an officer was "married" and 0, indicating that the officer was "not married." Educational attainment was an ordinal measure assessing an officer's highest level of attainment. Responses ranged from 1 (high school) to 7 (graduate degree).

Participants also completed a six-item victimization scale asking about their experiences of civilian aggression and violence during the past 12 months: This measure considered two items related to verbal threats made against officers (e.g., threatened to be killed), two items related to assaults with physical force made against officers (e.g., being pushed), one item regarding threats made with a weapon (i.e., threatened with a knife or blunt object), and one item regarding assaults with a weapon (i.e., attacked with a knife or blunt object). Each item was rated using a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 0 (never) to 4 (daily). Responses for the items were summed and dichotomized such that the officers who experienced victimization were coded as 1 and all other officers were coded as 0.[1]

Analysis

Ordinary least squares (OLS) regression was used to examine the direct effects of police stressors and social resources on officers' organizational commitment. Moderation analysis was also conducted to examine whether social resources condition the negative effects of job stressors on organizational commitment. Before conducting the multivariate analysis, the data were inspected to see if they met the assumptions of an OLS regression. Diagnostic tests revealed that the disturbance terms in our OLS models were homoscedastic, suggesting that the error terms in our regression models generally have the same variance. Additionally, the variance inflation factor scores were under 3, suggesting that multicollinearity was not a concern (Pallant,

2016). Outliers were assessed using Mahalanobis and Cook's distance. All the interaction terms were mean-centered before being entered into the models (Aiken, West, & Reno, 1991).

Results

Table 1 provides the descriptive statistics for all the variables used in this study and the results from the bivariate correlation analyses between the predictor variables and organizational commitment. As noted in Table 1, most officers were married (93.64%) and reported that they had been victimized (96.65%). As anticipated, the bivariate correlations show that most work stressors were negatively and significantly correlated with organizational commitment. Specifically, there was an inverse relationship between victimization and organizational commitment ($r = -.093$, $p < .05$). Unfair work assignment ($r = -.310$, $p < .01$) and authoritative organizational culture ($r = -.307$, $p < .01$) were negatively correlated with organizational commitment. Social resources ($r = .363$, $p < .01$) was a strong positive predictor of organizational commitment.

[Table 1 here]

Table 2 presents the multivariate modeling results; the variables related to police work stressors were included in Model 1. The results suggest that the model fit the data well and explained about 15% of the variation in organizational commitment. The results provide some support for the job demands/resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). For instance, the findings indicate that authoritative organizational culture ($b = -.198$, $p < .01$) and unfair work assignment ($b = -2.000$, $p < .05$) were significant negative predictors of organizational commitment. Conflict with coworkers was also found to negatively predict organizational commitment ($b = -.097$, $p < .05$). Further, age was a statistically significant negative predictor of organizational commitment ($b = -.106$, $p < .05$).

The variables related to social resources were added to the regression equation displayed in Model 2. Social resources were found to be the strongest non-demographic predictor in that model ($b = 1.307$, $p < .001$), with the results showing that social resources positively predicted organizational commitment. Authoritative organizational culture and unfair work assignment retained statistical significance in Model 2, as did conflict with coworkers. Interestingly, there were some changes in the statistical significance of some of the control variables in Model 2. Age was no longer statistically significant in Model 2. However, Rank ($b = 1.120$, $p < .01$) was found to be positively and significantly related to organizational commitment, and married officers ($b = -2.488$, $p < .01$) were found to exhibit lower levels of organizational commitment with the inclusion of social resources into the model. In fact, being married was the strongest predictor of organizational commitment.

[Table 2 here]

Social Resources as a Moderator

Table 3 shows the findings from the analyses examining the interaction effects between job stressors and social resources in predicting organizational commitment. To perform this analysis, the measures of job stressors (i.e., authoritative organizational culture, unfair work assignment, and conflict with coworkers) and social resources were mean-centered (Aiken et al., 1991). Because three job stressors were found to be statistically significant in the direct OLS modeling, three interactive models were estimated to test the effects of job stressor × social resources. Table 3 presents the slope coefficients, standard errors, and model improvement (ΔR^2) statistics. The results show that each of the three terms added, in turn, yielded a significant improvement in model fit over the base model estimated in Table 2. Specifically, the slope coefficient of the interaction term between authoritative organizational culture and social

resources was statistically significant and improved the model fit, indicating that the relationship between authoritative organizational culture and organizational commitment was moderated by social resources. Figure 1 illustrates the buffering effect of social resources on the relationship between authoritative organizational culture and organizational commitment. The findings show that while authoritative organizational culture exhibited a direct negative effect on organizational commitment, this negative relationship was conditioned by social resources.[2]

[Table 3 here]

[Figure 1 here]

Discussion and Conclusion

A growing empirical base has documented the effects of job-related factors on the organizational commitment of police officers (Ellrich, 2016; Johnson, 2015; Lambert et al., 2017). This line of research has focused on various individual and organizational variables such as organizational fairness, pay satisfaction, and the relationship with coworkers or supervisors. In the current study, we added to this line of research by investigating the effects of job stressors more specific to the police than other professions, including victimization experience, authoritative organizational culture, and work assignment. Further, we also explored the positive spillover effects of social resources on organizational commitment. Lastly, we tested the conditioning effects of social resources in the relationship between job stressors and organizational commitment.

Specifically, we used data from a sample of South Korean police officers to examine how social support conditions the effects of police work stressors on the level of organizational commitment. In support of our first two hypotheses, the results showed that job stressors (e.g., authoritative organizational culture and conflicts with coworkers) and social resources had

significant and independent direct effects on officers' organizational commitment. Interestingly, while our work found that victimization experience exhibited a negative relationship with organizational commitment, this relationship did not reach a statistically significant threshold. This finding counters that of Ellrich (2016), who found that civilian-related violence directly and negatively predicts organizational commitment among German police officers. The differences in findings between our studies could be due to differences in samples. Ellrich's (2016) sample was drawn from one federal state in Germany, whereas our sample was drawn from one of the major metropolitan cities in South Korea. Thus, predictors of an officer's organizational commitment could vary by location. Future research should explore this hypothesis further.

Our results suggest that the characteristics of one's organization and interactions with one's peers more adversely affect officers' organizational commitment than interactions with civilians. Consistent with prior research, the implications of these findings indicate that departments should aim to increase officers' input into decision making and improve cohesiveness between peers (Ellrich, 2016; Johnson, 2015). The results also indicate that departments should aim to increase perceptions of fairness in work assignments. We recommend that departments consider adopting the principles advocated by procedural justice scholars for increasing public confidence when creating work assignments. Police administrators should strive to be as transparent and honest with line officers when assigning work. Further, departments may benefit from making officers feel like they have some input in the assignment of their work.

Perhaps, more importantly, however, the results from our moderation analysis showed that the negative impact of authoritative organizational culture on organizational commitment is conditioned by social resources, providing support for our third hypothesis. That is, authoritative

organizational culture negatively predicted an officer's organizational commitment. However, the strength of this effect was weaker for officers with good social support groups outside the workforce. This finding supports our central thesis that social resources can spill over to the workforce. This work partially supports and expands upon the *fundamental interaction hypothesis* specified in the job demands/resources model and suggests that the impact of job demands on physiological distress and workplace outcomes can be influenced by social resources as well as job resources (Dollard et al., 2012; Ellrich, 2016).

The results presented herein tend to support the notion that positive social resources can spill over to the work domain, helping officers cope with job stressors, at least among the sample of South Korean officers and using this particular measure of social resources. Since our results reflect but one study, there remains a need to replicate the current study with other police officer samples. If additional research replicates our findings, it will be critical for police administrators to incorporate efforts not only to change the organizational culture but also to focus on promoting the relationships between officers and their significant others.

Limitations

Our study is not without limitations. First, we did not consider all the possible job demands unique to policing. Similarly, our measure of social resources was based on responses to two items. Subsequent research should consider other measures of job demands and resources to further test the job demands/resources model. Second, our results are based on cross-sectional data from the year 2010. It is reasonable to argue that the political climate surrounding law enforcement internationally is more contentious today than it was then—which could place more stress and different types of stress on officers today, and subsequently, impact levels of organizational commitment. However, this is the most recent year for which we had complete

data. Nonetheless, future work should attempt to use more recent data and assess this phenomenon longitudinally in an effort to establish better temporal ordering between job stressors and organizational commitment. Third, our results were based on a sample of male officers. Research has shown that female officers may experience different stressors from male officers and may employ different coping strategies in response (He et al., 2002; Ménard & Arter, 2014). Therefore, future work should apply these concepts to a more representative sample of police officers of all genders. Future work should also consider various forms of social resources by exploring the potential for differing effects of family, friends, and peers. Finally, our data were collected from officers working in one city in South Korea. Thus, the generalizability of the results is limited.

Conclusions

The current study extends and contributes to the literature by providing a quantitative test of the interrelationships among police work stressors, social resources, and organizational commitment. Our study shows that job demands negatively affect organizational commitment and suggests that social resources could condition the impact of this relationship. More empirical investigations should be carried out to understand the mechanisms through which job stressors shape police officers' organizational commitment.

Note

1. We reestimated all of the statistical models by disaggregating the type of victimization experience and including these new measures of victimization in the models. Specifically, we separated the index measuring verbal assault from the index measuring physical assault. The results from this set of supplementary analyses were substantively similar to those obtained in our original models reported. The findings regarding the relationship between job

stressors/resources and organizational commitment remained unchanged. Similarly, both victimization measures had no significant associations with organizational commitment. Because there were no notable changes from alternative model specifications, we believe that the reported findings are robust.

2. We conducted a set of supplementary analyses by including a measure for tenure in our multivariate regression models. Tenure was measured using a single item, "How many years have you served as a police officer?" The results were substantively identical to those reported in Model 1 and Model 2 in Table 2. The coefficients for job stressors (i.e., authoritative organizational culture, unfair work assignment, and conflict with coworkers) and social resources were statistically significant in these supplementary models. The only variable that had become statistically insignificant in the those models was age. However, it should be noted that the sizes of variance inflation factor (VIF) for age (VIF = 4.114) and rank (VIF = 3.593) became significantly higher once tenure was entered into the model, suggesting that tenure may share considerable variance with age and rank. Thus, in an effort to avoid issues related to multicollinearity, we decided to report only findings from our original regression models noted above.

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Table 1

Summary Statistics and Bivariate Correlations with Organizational Commitment

Variable	Mean or %	SD	Range	Organizational commitment
Organizational commitment	28.43	6.14	10-40	–
Age	48.10	7.27	27-62	-.056
Rank	3.20	.823	1-5	-.030
Education	2.83	1.83	1-7	-.051
Marital status (married =1)	93.64%	–	0-1	-.116**
Victimization experience (victimized = 1)	96.65%	-	0-1	-.093*
Unnecessary meetings	4.92	5.62	0-16	-.253**
Unreasonable orders	4.20	5.34	0-16	-.303**
Authoritative organizational culture	5.86	6.10	0-16	-.307**
Unfair work assignment	3.85	5.15	0-16	-.310**
Having no say in decision-making	3.38	5.31	0-16	-.224**
Conflict with supervisors	3.90	6.73	0-32	-.201**
Conflict with coworkers	3.79	6.35	0-32	-.193**
Poor working conditions	18.83	14.91	0-48	-.220**
Work-family conflict	2.85	4.84	0-32	-.142**
Negative police image	12.51	10.80	0-32	-.136**
Social resources	6.37	1.59	2-10	.363**

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$

Table 2

Regression of Organizational Commitment on Job Stressors, Social Resources and Controls

Variables	Model 1			Model 2		
	b	SE	Beta	b	SE	Beta
Age	-.106*	.047	-.134	-.073	.044	-.092
Rank	.713	.462	.096	1.120**	.436	.151
Education	-.218	.150	-.065	-.227	.141	-.068
Married	-1.838	1.086	-.074	-2.488*	1.021	-.100
Victimization experience	-1.304	1.399	-.038	-1.534	1.312	-.045
Unnecessary meetings	-.015	.066	-.014	-.023	.062	-.021
Unreasonable orders	-.131	.074	-.113	-.088	.070	-.076
Authoritative organizational culture	-.198**	.068	-.197	-.214***	.064	-.213
Unfair work assignment	-.200*	.087	-.168	-.219**	.081	-.184
Having no say in decision-making	.076	.072	.066	.125	.068	.108
Conflict with supervisors	.052	.052	.057	.078	.049	.085
Conflict with coworkers	-.097*	.048	-.100	-.088*	.045	-.091
Poor working conditions	.013	.027	.031	.024	.025	.058
Work-family conflict	-.015	.063	-.012	-.054	.059	-.043
Negative police image	.050	.031	.088	.034	.029	.060
Social resources	–	–	–	1.307***	.152	.339
R^2		15.1			25.4	

* $p < 05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed)

Table 3

The Interaction Terms Between Job Stressors and the Measure of Social Resources Predicting Organizational Commitment

	Organizational commitment	
	b (SE)	Model ΔR^2
Interaction term		
Authoritative organizational culture × social resources	-.054 (.024)*	.007
Unfair work assignment × social resources	-.040 (.025)	.004
Conflict with coworkers × social resources	-.028 (.018)	.003

Note: The coefficients were derived from the fully specified models in Table 2, with the three interaction terms added respectively. Only one slope estimate (authoritative organizational culture × social resources) was statistically different from zero.

*$p < .05$.

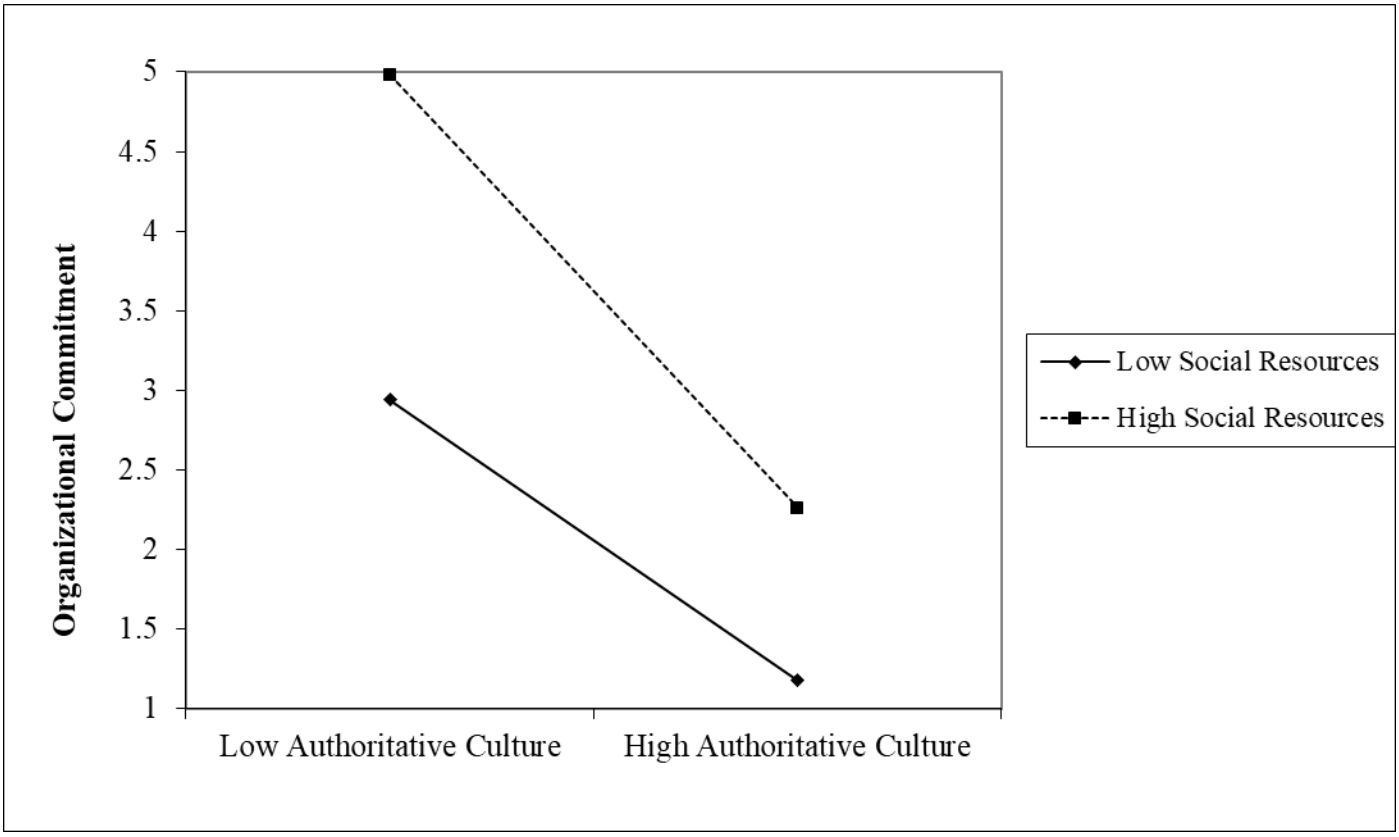

Figure 1. The effects of authoritative culture on organizational commitment by social resources