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Person-environment fit and job satisfaction among police.

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PERSON-ENVIRONMENT FIT AND
JOB SATISFACTION AMONG POLICE

by

David Hoath

Hon. B.A., York University

A Thesis
Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies
Through the Department of Psychology
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
of Master of Arts at
The University of Windsor

Windsor, Ontario, Canada
1988

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ABSTRACT

The present research was designed to investigate the relationship between person-environment fit and job satisfaction among a sample of Canadian police men and women. The primary objectives of the study were to replicate and extend research carried out by Burke, Desca, and Shearer (1984). The job satisfaction of four career orientations (i.e., careerist, artisan, social activist, and self-investor), proposed by Cherniss (1980) was measured in a sample of 226 police men and women working in three distinct assignment categories (i.e., Patrol, Investigation, and Supervision/Administration) of a police force in Southwestern Ontario. The social activist career orientation was deleted due to insufficient numbers. Measures of career orientation (Person) were obtained using descriptive paragraphs developed by Burke et al., and measures of the work environment (Environment) were obtained using similar paragraphs describing an optimal work setting for each career orientation. The Optimal Work Setting Measures were developed specifically for use in the present study. Measures of overall, intrinsic, and extrinsic job satisfaction were obtained using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire - Short. The first hypothesis, that officers of different career orientations would be differentially satisfied depending on their assignment category was not supported. The results showed that careerists had the highest level of overall and intrinsic satisfaction and self-investors had the lowest, artisans fell in between careerists and self-investors. In addition, officers from the Supervision/Administration

and Investigation assignment categories reported more overall and extrinsic satisfaction than patrol officers. These findings are generally consistent with those of Burke et al. Lack of support for the first hypothesis may have been due to the small number of self-investors in the Investigation and Supervision/ Administration assignment categories. The second hypothesis, that there would be a negative relationship between lack of PE fit and job satisfaction, was supported. Regardless of the officers' career orientations or their assignment categories, the greater the perception of a lack of fit between themselves and their work environments, the lower was their job satisfaction. Additional analyses revealed that the officers were able to differentiate among the three assignment categories using the Optimal Work Setting Measure (OWSM), thus supporting the value of this instrument as a measure of subjective environment. Evidence obtained using the OWSM suggested that the officers' perceptions of differences among their work environments focused on the careerist setting scale.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Over the past several decades policing in North America has undergone dramatic changes. In response to rapid urban growth, accelerated crime rates, and increased citizen dissatisfaction with the "unprofessional" practices of the police, moves to professionalize the delivery of police services were initiated (Brown, 1981). In time, police organizations became highly bureaucratic and centralized. Technology, scientific principles of management, a tightening of internal discipline, and fiscal restraint and accountability became the hallmarks of "new" police agencies (Juliani, Talbot, & Jayewardene, 1984; Stratton, 1984). Modern police are no longer expected simply to maintain order and protect the local community. They are expected to enforce all laws impartially and provide a wide array of social services on a twenty-four hour basis (Manning, 1978).

Along with the push to professionalize policing, police and police organizations have become the target of a great deal of research (Kroes, 1985; Stratton, 1984; Terry, 1981). One area which has attracted a lot of research is job satisfaction (Brief, Aldag, & Wallden, 1976; Brief, Aldag, Russell, & Rude, 1981; Hunt & McCadden, 1985; Katz, 1978; Lester, Benkovich, Brady, Deitrich, & Solis, 1980; Lester & Butler, 1982; Slovak, 1978; VanMaanen, 1975). Generally, this research indicates that U.S. patrolmen are less satisfied with their jobs than the average American worker (Lester et al. 1980). Although there have been no studies comparing the level of job satisfaction among Canadian police personnel with that of other Canadian workers, there have been

some Canadian studies that focused on other aspects of police job satisfaction (Burke, Desca, & Shearer, 1984; Cooper, 1982; Hylton, 1980; Linden, 1985).

The present research extends the work of Burke et al. (1984) who studied the relationship between career orientation and burnout in Canadian police. Burke et al. based their study on the concept of career orientation, developed by Cherniss (1980). According to Cherniss, career orientation refers to the meaning of work for the individual. He proposes that human service professionals fall into one of four career orientations: (a) Social Activist, (b) Careerist, (c) Artisan, and (d) Self-Investor. Furthermore, Cherniss affirms that human service professionals who exhibit a Social Activist career orientation are more likely to be dissatisfied with their jobs than workers characterized by any of the other career orientations. In their research, Burke et al. found general support for Cherniss' thinking. In addition to identifying the four career orientations, Cherniss (1980) developed a theory of burnout in human service professionals based on person-environment (PE) "fit." He proposes that for each career orientation there is an optimal work setting. When there is a poor fit between the individual and his/her work setting, strain (burnout and job dissatisfaction) result. Although Burke et al. (1984) took measures of the person (career orientation) and measures of the environment (work setting), they did not use these measures to assess the degree of person-environment "fit"; moreover, Burke et al.'s sample consisted primarily of patrolmen. In light of

evidence indicating that police job satisfaction varies across assignment category (Lefkowitz, 1973 ; Hylton, 1980) and the evidence supporting the importance of considering the interaction between person variables and environment variables, Burke et al.'s findings regarding the association between career orientation and various symptoms of burnout may be limited to a specific group of police -- patrolmen.

The present research was designed to reach beyond Burke et al. (1984) in the investigation of job satisfaction and career orientation. More specifically, this research addressed the question of person-environment fit left unanswered by Burke et al. The study involved a comparison of job satisfaction across the four career orientations in three distinct police assignment categories: (a) Patrol, (b) Investigation, and (c) Supervision/Administration. Furthermore, the present study examined the relationship between PE fit scores and job satisfaction in each of the three police assignment categories.

In the following pages, a selective review of two major PE "fit" theories relevant to this investigation of job satisfaction will be provided. In addition, the job satisfaction literature specific to police populations will be reviewed. Special attention will be paid to studies that relate police job satisfaction to personality attributes, environmental characteristics, and the degree of PE "fit." Finally, the work of Burke et al. (1984) and Cherniss (1980) will be examined and the thesis underlying this study developed.

Person-Environment Theories

Person-environment theories have their roots in the personality theories of (Lewin, 1951) and (Murray, 1938). Lewin (1951) conceived of behaviour as a function of the personality and the environment (i.e., $B = F(P, E)$). Murray's (1938) theory is noteworthy because it provided a model for the relationship between the individual and his environment. In addition, Murray distinguished between the "actual" environment (objective) and the environment as perceived by the individual (subjective). Moreover, according to Pervin (1968), Murray argued that the individual and the environment should be classified or measured along commensurate dimensions.

PE Fit Theories and Job Satisfaction

Person-environment fit theories of job satisfaction are based on the assumption that employee satisfaction is a function of the ongoing and dynamic interaction between one's characteristic values, skills, and competencies, and the rewards, opportunities, and demands presented by one's work or work setting. Pervin (1968), in his review of the early research in this area, concluded that, "occupational satisfaction may be profitably studied as resulting from the interaction between personality and environment variables rather than the result of personality variables or environment variables alone" (p.58).

Person-environment theories of job satisfaction have been included under the rubric of discrepancy theories (Thierry & Koopman-Iwema, 1984). In general, discrepancy theories view job satisfaction in terms of the degree of difference between the needs, values, and/or expectations of the individual and the

rewards offered by the job or the job setting. The greater the discrepancy between pursued rewards, based on needs, values, and expectations, and the subjective appraisal of rewards obtained, the higher is the level of dissatisfaction (Locke, 1976).

A review of person-environment theories reveals two major theories that have attempted to explicate the complexities of the person-environment interaction relative to job satisfaction. First, the PE fit theory of Holland (1973, 1985) is a theory of vocational selection. Holland suggests that all workers can be classified according to six personality/interest types and that for each personality type there is an optimal work setting. Second, French et al. (1974) have developed a person-environment "fit" theory of adjustment which has been used to conceptualize causes of occupational strain (e.g., job dissatisfaction) in terms of perceived fit on selected work dimensions. A cursory description of each theory and a brief examination of the relevant research findings for each theory follows.

PE Fit and Vocational Selection: Holland's Theory

According to Holland (1973, 1985), behaviours such as the choice of vocation, vocational stability, and vocational satisfaction are determined by a dynamic reciprocal interaction between personality and the environment. Holland's theory of vocational selection uses six personality types (realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising, and conventional) and six corresponding occupational environments. Holland argues that a match between a personality type and an occupational environment constitutes an optimal PE fit. Further, as the

degree of PE fit increases, the worker will experience a higher level of job satisfaction.

Holland's (1973, 1985) theory is based on three assumptions regarding the development of personality types. First, parents who express a particular personality type create and maintain an environment that provides their offspring with opportunities and activities consistent with the parents' own interests and inconsistent with any other personality type. Second, parents genetically transmit to their offspring certain physical and psychological potentials. According to Holland, this inherited endowment shapes the interest patterns of children. Finally, Holland posits that to a limited degree children create their own environments by their demands upon parents. As a child makes demands on the parent, the parent is influenced to respond in a certain manner. Children's demands are assumed to be a function of both biological predispositions and social learning. Holland asserts that the more the child is like the parent, the more positive the parent-child relationship will be. Moreover, the tenor of the parent-child relationship has a subtle but distinctive influence on the development of the child's personality.

Based on these assumptions, Holland (1985) proposes that a child acquires a cluster of preferences and aversions through the process of socialization. These preferences and aversions develop into interests which in turn determine those behaviours which are intrinsically satisfying to the individual. Furthermore, Holland maintains that "the person's differentiation with age is

accompanied by a crystallization of correlated values" (p.16). Although not defined specifically, it appears that for Holland values are the preferences acquired by an individual through a process of socialization. In attempting to obtain valued objects or conditions, the person engages in activities that lead to the development of specific skills and competencies - at the expense of others. As the person matures, these interests, values, and competencies integrate to form a personality type that is predisposed to exhibit characteristic behaviours, attitudes, and personality traits.

According to Holland (1985), "an environmental model may be defined as the situation or atmosphere created by the people who dominate a given environment" (p. 29). In other words, Holland defines the environment in terms of the dominant personality types that comprise it. For instance, a Social environment would be one that is dominated by Social types.

Holland (1985) argues that "people search for environments that will let them exercise their skills and abilities, express their attitudes and values, and take on agreeable problems and roles" (p. 4). Thus, Realistic types search out Realistic environments, Social types search out Social environments, and so forth. Holland suggests, that if a person of one personality type secures a job in an environment dominated by another type, the resulting misfit causes job dissatisfaction. For example, a Realistic type tends to be dissatisfied with a job in a Social environment.

Up to this point we have discussed the personality types and environmental models of Holland's theory and the theoretical

relationships among them. But how does Holland actually measure the person and the environment?

Spokane (1985), in his comprehensive review of the research on Holland's theory, surveys the methods that have been used to measure P and E. He notes three self-report instruments that have been used to measure the personality types: (a) the Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI; Holland, 1978), (b) the Self-Directed Search (SDS; Holland, 1979), and (c) the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB; Campbell & Holland, 1972). Research on these instruments shows that the scales which are common to all three have reasonably high intercorrelations and can probably be used interchangeably.

With regard to measuring E, research typically has relied on one of two measures (Spokane, 1985). The Environmental Assessment Technique (EAT; Astin & Holland, 1961) entails surveying the occupations, training preferences, or vocational preferences of a population working in a particular work setting. The occupations or preferences are categorized as belonging to one of the six Holland environments. This classification results in a six-variable profile. The absolute number of people classified for each type is then converted to a percentage of the total population making up the environment under study (see Walsh, 1973 for a more complete explanation of the procedure). The second method of categorizing E uses Holland's occupational codes. Holland (1985) has classified 500 of the most common occupations in the United States according to his six types. A three letter code provides a brief summary of the given occupation showing

which three occupational types it most closely resembles. For instance, police officer has been coded Social, Realistic, and Enterprising (SRE). An environment occupied predominantly by police officers would be classified according to the following three letter code: S, R, E.

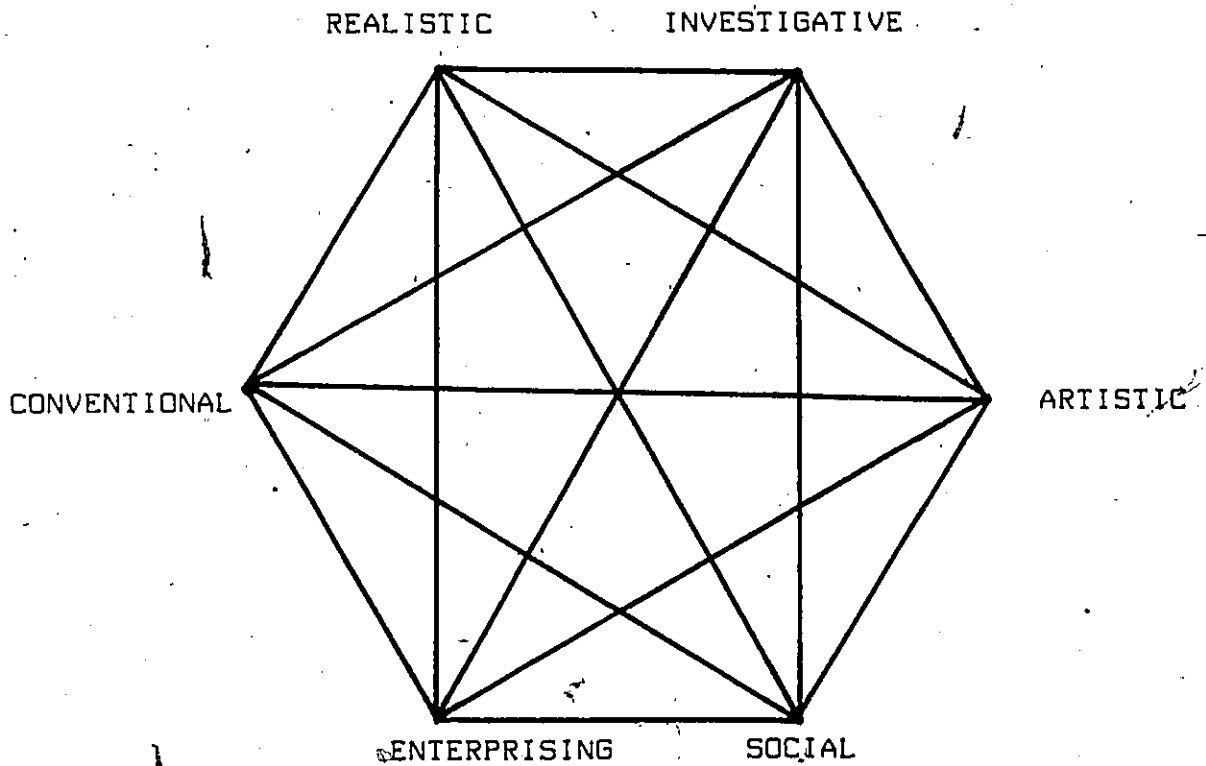
Calculating the degree of congruence between the person and the environment usually follows a three-step procedure (Spokane, 1985). First, each member of the sample group is assigned a Holland code or personality pattern using one of the personality measures. Second, environments are classified independently using one of the environmental classification techniques. Finally, congruence is indexed relative to the match between the personality and the environment using Holland's hexagonal chart. Referring to the hexagonal chart (see Fig. 1), each point of the hexagon represents one personality type. If a personality type is in a corresponding environment, then congruence is at its highest level, for example, a Realistic type in a Realistic environment. Congruence decreases the farther away a personality type is from its corresponding environment. The most extreme degree of incongruence exists when a personality type (e.g., Realistic) is in the position opposite to its corresponding environment (e.g., Social). Holland argues that under conditions of extreme incongruity job dissatisfaction is most pronounced.

Reviews by Holland (1973, 1985) and Spokane (1985) of correlational research on Holland's model indicated that job satisfaction was significantly and positively related to congruence in the majority of studies. In addition, congruence was reported by both authors to account for a greater

Figure 1

A Hexagonal Model for Defining the Psychological Resemblances Among Personality Types and Environments and Their Interactions.

From "Making Vocational Choices: A Theory of Vocational Personalities and Work Environments" by John. L. Holland, 1985, p. 29. Copyright 1973 by J.L. Holland.



amount of the variance of job satisfaction than measures of the person and the environment alone. Spokane (1985), however, was somewhat less enthusiastic than Holland (1985). He argued that although the percentage of variance accounted for in the studies was significant, it was not appreciably higher than in those studies using personality measures alone.

As noted earlier, the present study is concerned with the moderating effect of different assignment categories on the relationship between congruence and job satisfaction. Two studies based on Holland's approach have shown that engineers (Meir & Erez, 1981) and nurses (Hener & Meir, 1981) whose personality types are congruent with their intraoccupational environments (e.g., a Realistic nurse in a Realistic medical/surgical environment as opposed to a Social psychiatric ward) are more satisfied with their jobs than nurses or engineers whose personality types are incongruent with their occupational subunit. Findings of this nature suggest that it is important to match the interests and values of the person to the environmental characteristics of the specific subspecialties within a single occupational group.

Thus, Holland (1973, 1985) provides us with one example of how to view the interaction between the person and the environment. His personality-environment theory has been useful in assisting people to select an appropriate career. There is, however, another approach to viewing PE interaction. French et al. (1974) have developed a PE fit theory of adjustment. The following section will briefly review this theory.

PE Fit and Adjustment: French's Theory

PE fit theory, as developed by French et al. (1974), emphasizes a causal link between PE fit and strain. French et al. hypothesize that motivational forces are created by the deprivation of a need or value. They define needs as objective requirements of human survival (e.g., food, water, and shelter) and values as desires learned through a process of socialization (e.g., praise, money, cars). French et al. suggest that the direction and intensity of aroused motives depend on the kind, strength, and importance of the need or value. Moreover, French et al. argue that expectations of future deprivation will result in motive arousal similar to that produced by actual deprivation. A job is stressful, then, to the extent that one perceives that one's work environment fails to meet his or her needs or values. In other words, there is a poor fit between the person and his or her environment. This PE misfit is an indication of lack of adjustment and is associated with strain; the greater the PE misfit the greater will be the degree of strain.

According to French et al. (1974), strain is defined as deviations from normal responses in the person. That is, strain can be defined in terms of responses made by the person to a lack of PE fit. Lack of PE fit, as conceived by French et al., refers to both the objective and subjective "goodness of fit" between the person and the environment. Objective PE fit refers to the degree of fit between the actual demands and rewards of the environment and the actual needs and abilities of the person. Subjective PE fit refers to the degree of fit

between the perceived demands and rewards of the environment and the perceived needs and abilities of the person. French et al. maintain that job stress can lead to three types of strain: (a) psychological (e.g., job dissatisfaction and depression), (b) physiological (e.g., high blood pressure and elevated serum cholesterol), and (c) behavioural (e.g., substance abuse and smoking). Although French et al. argue that PE fit may occur in both an objective and a subjective reality, they suggest that it is the subjective PE fit that is most important relative to strain and adjustment. That is to say, strain results when the person perceives a lack of fit between his or her desired work rewards (Ps) and work rewards (Es) received or anticipated. Thus, French et al. argue that even though a lack of fit may or may not exist in an objective sense; it is the person's perception of the lack of fit that is most predictive of strain.

According to French et al., the potential for strain occurs on two dimensions: (1) value-reward and (2) ability-demand. The value-reward dimension refers to the fit between what the worker values and the rewards offered by the job. The ability-demand dimension refers to the fit between the skills, abilities, and competencies of the individual and the demands or requirements of the job. French et al. maintain that a PE misfit on either dimension can cause strain (e.g., job dissatisfaction).

The PE fit model of French et al. assumes that measures of the person and of the environment are commensurate, that is, they both deal with the same dimension. Subjective fit (Fs) has been operationalized as the difference between measures of the subjective person (Ps) (the way one sees oneself) and of the

subjective environment (Es) (the way one sees one's environment), that is, $F_s = E_s - P_s$. Measures of P_s typically take the form of "would like" questions (e.g., How much mental challenge would you like on your job?). These items require one to make judgments about the quality and quantity of work values one desires. Measures of E_s take the form of "is now" questions (e.g., How much mental challenge is there in your job now?). Items in this group require one to make judgments about the quality and quantity of work rewards that are currently provided by one's job. The P_s and E_s are rated on the same dimension using identical five-point Likert scales ranging from very little (1) to a great deal (5) (French et al., 1974).

In a brief review of the research on the PE fit theory of French et al., Caplan (1983) concludes that the findings are encouraging but weak. PE fit has been shown to consistently double the amount of variance accounted for by P and E alone. However, Caplan maintains that PE fit theory has only accounted for an additional 1% to 5% of the variance in strain. He attributes this unacceptably poor showing to the possibility that the parameters of PE theory may not be specified fully enough.

Summary of the Review of PE Theories

In summary, PE theories have been shown to be useful in investigating job satisfaction. Studies have shown that PE fit scores based on the two theories reviewed here--Holland's (1973, 1985) and French et al.'s (1974)--have consistently accounted for more of the variance of job satisfaction than measures of the person or the environment alone. Holland's theory defines the

interaction between the person and the environment in terms of the fit between personality type and work setting. Holland's focus lies in the match between the interests, values and competencies of the individual and those of the other people making up the social environment. French et al.'s theory, on the other hand, calculates a more precise measure of PE fit by taking subjective measures of the person and the environment on commensurate work dimensions. Rather than global measures of the person and the environment, as offered by Holland, French et al. obtain a direct measure of PE fit as perceived by the person in the particular environment.

The following section will review the police literature as it relates to job satisfaction. Particular attention will be paid to those studies that have employed a person, environment, or person-environment approach to the study of job police satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction Studies: Police

Person Variables

A review of police job satisfaction studies reveals that person variables typically fall into two categories: demographic and personality.

Demographic variables. In the main, the studies reviewed have revealed few consistent and enduring relationships between the demographic characteristics of police and job satisfaction. Results from studies considering sex (Linden, 1985), age (Lester, 1979; Lester & Genz, 1978; Lefkowitz, 1973; Griffin et al, 1978; Hylton, 1980; Slovak, 1978), marital status (Lester & Genz, 1978;

Hylton, 1980), Family background (Hylton, 1980), and tenure (Griffin et al. 1978; Hylton, 1980) are generally weak and inconsistent.

Nevertheless, the results concerning a few demographic variables are worth considering. An interesting study by Griffin et al. (1978) has shown an association between job satisfaction and the education of patrolmen. After sampling approximately 800 patrolmen with education levels ranging from high school and less to four years of college, Griffin et al. concluded that the job satisfaction of officers with low levels of education is highly related to their perception that their coworkers and supervisors are competent and doing a good job. Conversely, Griffin et al. report that officers with a college degree are more satisfied with their jobs when they perceive that it is they who are in control of the conditions and situations that confront them in their police role.

Rank, a variable which has often been classified as a demographic variable, has also been shown to be related to job satisfaction in police. Lefkowitz (1973) reported a positive association between rank and job satisfaction in a sample of municipal police officers in Ohio. Similarly, Slovak (1978), in his study of eight American police departments, reported a positive relationship between rank and satisfaction with salaries, fringe benefits, and promotional opportunities. In a Canadian study, Hylton (1980) found that the lowest and the highest ranks on the Regina Police Force were satisfied, but the middle ranks (i.e., third, second, first class Constables and Sergeants) were relatively dissatisfied with their jobs.

Personality variables. Relative to the number of investigations of demographic variables, few studies have looked at the relationship between personality variables of police and job satisfaction. Research by Lester, using a global measure of job satisfaction, showed satisfaction to be positively correlated to officers' beliefs in an internal locus of control, (Lester & Genz, 1978) and not related to measures of dogmatism (Lester, 1978). In subsequent research, Lester (1979), using the Job Description Index (JDI), reported that a belief in internal locus of control was significantly and positively associated to measures of satisfaction for the areas of work, promotions, and coworkers.

Lester (1979) also investigated the association between measures of cynicism and job satisfaction. His results indicated that among experienced municipal police officers, cynicism was significantly and negatively related to all five of the JDI scales (i.e., work, pay, promotion, supervision, and coworkers). Among municipal recruits, cynicism was found to be negatively related to satisfaction with the areas of work, supervision, and coworkers.

Other studies provide evidence suggesting that the values and interests of police recruits change over time. VanMaanen (1975) used a longitudinal design to study the socialization process in policing. He found that officer need satisfaction was enhanced soon after entry into the organization if the officer realigned his expectations for external rewards to coincide more with those of his fellow, more senior officers.

Evidence reviewed to this point has focused on the relationship between job satisfaction and demographic and personality variables. Demographic evidence suggests that the job satisfaction of highly educated police may be determined by the degree to which officers have personal control over the work environment, whereas the job satisfaction of less well educated police officers may be influenced more by the degree to which officers perceive their supervisor to be competent. Moreover, evidence suggests that police officers who achieve promotion are more satisfied than officers who do not achieve promotion. Although few personality variables have been studied, the limited evidence available suggests that police officers who report an internal locus of control are more satisfied than officers who report an external locus of control. Finally, there is evidence to show that there is a negative relationship between cynicism and police job satisfaction.

Environment

The following paragraphs will provide a brief review of studies of police job satisfaction that have focused on characteristics of the environment. It should be noted at the outset that the results of the studies are generally inconsistent and contradictory, and, as such, they defy attempts at a clear and succinct summarization. This lack of consistency is likely due in part to the relative absence of commonalities shared by these studies. For example, research on this topic has taken place in all regions of the United States and Canada, in large and small police departments, in urban, rural, and state

(provincial) police departments, and has used a diverse array of job satisfaction instruments to evaluate the effects of a host of varied work dimensions. In light of such differences, the following review will only focus on those studies which provide consistent findings that are relevant to the present research.

A number of studies have investigated the level of police officer satisfaction with various facets of work. One of the most consistent findings has to do with opportunities for promotion. Several studies report that policemen of all ranks and on both sides of the forty-ninth parallel, seem to be dissatisfied with their opportunities for advancement (Acuri, 1976; Hylton, 1980; Lefkowitz, 1973; Linden, 1985; Slovak, 1978). Furthermore, several studies in the United States have shown that patrolmen are somewhat dissatisfied with their pay (Lefkowitz, 1973; Lester, Benkovitch, & Brady, 1980; Slovak, 1978). Recent evidence in Canada, however, suggests that Canadian police officers are generally satisfied with their pay (Hylton, 1980; Linden, 1985). Many of the same studies indicate that patrolmen are relatively satisfied with their work, coworkers, and supervisors (Lefkowitz, 1973; Lester et al. 1980; Hylton, 1980).

After studying a group of 75 police officers below the rank of Inspector, using the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), Brief et al. (1976) found that there was a strong positive correlation between leader behaviours and job satisfaction. More specifically, when supervisors were perceived as structuring subordinate's tasks, job satisfaction increased. These surprising findings led Brief et al. to suggest that

supervision characterized by the initiation of structure may enhance job satisfaction by reducing the amount of role ambiguity experienced by police officers. Moreover, they reported that under conditions of high role stress (i.e., conflict and ambiguity), police officers were more satisfied when supervisors reduced stress by initiating structure than by lending support or showing consideration. Structure, in this case, was initiated by direct and clear communications from the supervisor which acted to clarify subordinate expectations relative to the assigned task.

Jermier and Berkes (1979) reported similar evidence with respect to task variability, task interdependence, and task/coworker interactions. Officers who were assigned tasks characterized as highly variable, highly interdependent with other tasks, or highly interactive with other police personnel were more satisfied with their jobs if their supervisors were seen to use instrumental and directive rather than supportive behaviours.

More recently, Brief et al. (1981) reported findings that contradict the findings of their earlier research. By using a longitudinal design, Brief et al. found only limited support for the relationship between leader behaviour and job satisfaction. Furthermore, Brief et al. reported path coefficients which provided no support for the relationship between skill variety and job satisfaction found by Jermier and Berkes (1979).

Two studies have looked at the relationship between job satisfaction and police assignment category. Lefkowitz (1973) compared measures of global job satisfaction in five police

assignment categories: (a) Field Operations (i.e., Patrol), (b) Investigation, (c) Special Operations, (d) Information Services, and (e) Management/Inspection. The results showed that members of the Field Operations branch were the least satisfied with their jobs. Hylton (1980) sampled 298 police officers from the Regina Police Force. Using a self-constructed measure of job satisfaction, he examined the relationship between job satisfaction and each of nine factors reflecting various facets of policework. These relationships were compared across six assignment categories: (a) Patrol, (b) Criminal Investigations, (c) Traffic, (d) Support, (e) Headquarters, and (f) Administration. Job dissatisfaction was higher for Patrol and Traffic personnel on factors reflecting opportunities for promotion and perceptions of the amount of power they had in accomplishing their vocational objectives. Members at Headquarters and in Patrol reported being highly satisfied with personal and organizational supports, whereas Administrative personnel were quite dissatisfied with their supports. Members at Headquarters and in Administration reported being very satisfied with their opportunities for promotion and the orderliness of the organization. Nevertheless, this same group were quite dissatisfied with the negative effects of policework on their personal lives.

The studies that have been reviewed generally indicate that patrolmen appear to be dissatisfied with their opportunities for promotion and in the United States with their pay. In addition, there appears to be some evidence to suggest that police officers experience less role ambiguity and greater job satisfaction when

supervised in a directive and instrumental manner. There is also evidence indicating that police job satisfaction varies according to assignment category. In the following section, research using the person-environment approach in the investigation of job satisfaction with the police will be reviewed.

PE Fit and Job Satisfaction

A careful review of the literature uncovered only two studies that used a person-environment fit approach in the investigation of job satisfaction among the police (Harrison, 1976; Hunt & McCadden, 1985).

Harrison (1976) analyzed data collected from twenty-three occupational groups, including one police group. Harrison's work was part of a larger study designed to test the PE theory of adjustment developed by French et al. (1974). Respondents were asked to rate first their ideal position and second their perceptions of their present job on an array of work dimensions (e.g., workload, job complexity, responsibility for persons, and role ambiguity). Harrison operationalized PE fit using the formula, $F_s = E_s - P_s$, as set out by French et al. (1974). Results showed that work overload ($P_s < E_s$) was related to increased job dissatisfaction in policemen. However, work underload ($P_s > E_s$) was found not to be related to job dissatisfaction among police. In other words, there was a somewhat linear relationship between workload and job satisfaction. Harrison concluded that the findings demonstrated that measures of PE fit can account for variance in strain (job

satisfaction) which cannot be predicted by linear relationships with the E and P component measures, either singly or together.

In the only other study to use a PE fit approach to investigate police job satisfaction, Hunt & McCadden (1985) examined the relationship between person-role fit and job satisfaction. According to Hunt and McCadden, job satisfaction is an outcome of interactions among demographic factors, individual personality differences, elements of the environment, and perceptions of person-role fit. It is the person-role fit concept that is most relevant to this study.

In an earlier study, Hunt, McCadden, and Morduant (1983) set out the methodology used in the 1985 research. Hunt et al. (1983) classified their measure of person-role fit as "a semi-objective intraorganizational measure of discrepancy between a respondent's own image (stereotype) of the police role and his/her perception of corresponding social role expectations" (p. 445). More specifically, Hunt et al. asked each officer to choose between "a crime fighter" and "an armed social worker" as their "model" of a police officer. This statement constituted an evaluation of the "person." Respondents then were asked to answer the following question: "Do you think police officers respect fellow officers more for (1) arresting a felon or (2) giving help to a citizen?" The answer to this question reflects the respondent's perception of the rewards offered by his/her coworkers. Congruence was operationalized by matching "a crime fighter" with "arresting a felon" and "an armed social worker" with "helping a citizen."

Hunt et al., (1985) report that the conflict measures of

person-role fit explained a significant amount of the variance in measures of dissatisfaction among policemen. However, the amount of variance explained was less than that explained by each of several other variables alone (e.g., age, rank, and tenure).

In summary, person-environment fit research investigating job satisfaction among police is sparse. In addition, the results from the two studies reviewed are inconclusive. Harrison's (1976) findings support the use of a PE approach to the study of job satisfaction over and above approaches which focus on the P and the E alone. However, the amount of variance explained using the PE approach in the Hunt et al. (1985) study was less than the person variables alone. After considering the paucity of research that has been done in this area and the inconclusive state of the findings, the PE fit approach to the study of police job satisfaction appears to warrant further study.

The following section will outline the research of Burke et al. (1984) who investigated the relationships among burnout and the career orientations of policemen and women in Canada. It is this study that provide the foundation and point of departure for the present research. Prior to examining Burke et al.'s study, however, it will be necessary to detour briefly in order to survey the work of Cherniss (1980). It is from Cherniss that Burke et al. obtained the theoretical concept of career orientation used in their research.

Career Orientation and Burnout: Cherniss's Theory

In their study, Burke et al. (1984) employed the concept of career orientation as developed by Cherniss (1980). According to

Cherniss, career orientation refers to the meaning of work for the employee. That is, it defines for the worker what values are important, long and short term goals, and those aspects of work which are most satisfying. Using a longitudinal design, Cherniss compared early career development in four different occupational groups: (a) teachers, (b) lawyers, (c) mental health counselors, and (d) public health nurses. Through a series of personal interviews, Cherniss categorized this group of human service professionals into four career orientations: (a) Social Activist, (b) Careerist, (c) Artisan, and (d) Self-Investor.

Cherniss (1980) has identified each of the four career orientations as having its own set of personality characteristics. Social Activists are idealists and visionaries who look upon their work more as a crusade for social justice than simply as a job. Workers with this orientation value in their job an opportunity to contribute to social and/or institutional change. Their personal goals and commitments transcend those of the organization. They are quite prepared to work long and hard in the face of austere organizational rewards provided they perceive their efforts contributing to real social change.

Careerists value prestige, respectability, and financial security in their jobs. They are highly competitive, resembling in many ways a Type "A" personality type (Burke, 1985). Careerists are highly motivated to achieve the extrinsic rewards of a job. As such, they work hard to make a good impression on others who may have an influence over their career. Financial security in and of itself is not as important to a Careerist as

the prestige and status that typically accompany it.

Artisans value mental challenge, professional skills development, independence, and autonomy in a job. Rather than concerning themselves with external standards, which are often too low, they work to achieve much higher internal standards. Artisans seek the intrinsic rewards offered by a challenging and interesting task. If a task is routine they become quickly bored. Opportunities for advancement are of interest only as a means of obtaining a more challenging assignment.

Self-Investors value their off-the-job interests; they are not motivated by or committed to work-related concerns. They are not motivated by social activism, career achievement, or challenging tasks; rather, they seek a job which is only moderately interesting and challenging. Because of their lack of job involvement, Self-Investors can tolerate unpleasant working conditions with fewer negative psychological or physical consequences. However, their overall level of job satisfaction is quite low. Cherniss attributes this low level of satisfaction in part to the fact that many Self-Investors feel trapped in jobs that they were "forced" to take when external factors prevented them from obtaining the job they most desired. Moreover, many Self-Investors are disillusioned and resentful due to unfulfilled career goals and expectations on their current jobs.

Cherniss classifies his theory as a person-environment process model of burnout. He argues that the highest level of performance and the least amount of job strain result when there is a "fit" between the career orientation of the person and his or her work setting. Cherniss' conceptualization of the person-environment interaction reflects in many ways the approach adopted by French et al. (1974). Cherniss suggests that occupational stress is the result of the subjective perception of various aspects of one's job relative to certain expectations and desires (e.g., problem of competence, relationship with clients, and boredom). It is assumed that stress through misfit causes strain.

Cherniss (1980) proposes that an individual's personality is rarely comprised of a single career orientation. According to him, individuals typically are a composite of orientations with one being most obviously dominant. When looked at in this way, Cherniss' career orientations seem quite similar to Holland's six personality types.

Moreover, Cherniss argues that career orientations can, and do, change over time. Due to the influences of the social environment, a person may gradually adapt to the exigencies and rewards of the work setting. If the person's dominant career orientation coincides with the rewards and demands of the job, no change is likely. However, should their dominant career orientation be in conflict with the work setting, the individual must change jobs, change his or her orientation, or remain at his or her present job in a state of discomfort. According to Cherniss, if a person, who has one of the highly committed career

orientations (i.e., Careerist, Artisan, and Social Activist), remains in an environment which fails to fulfill his or her basic work values, the person should gradually change in the direction of the Self-Investor orientation. This change occurs, he maintains, as the worker withdraws from his or her job in an effort to protect himself or herself from the pain caused by lack of fulfillment. Cherniss (1980) suggests that Social Activists are the most "at risk" for burnout because their career orientation is most discrepant with the demands and rewards offered by public human service agencies. Further, he suggests that Artisans typically have the potential to find a better fit than Social Activists, but they, too, are at risk. Finally, Cherniss concludes that Self-Investors and Careerists probably experience the least job stress and burnout among human service professionals.

Now that we have introduced the ideas of Cherniss concerning the career orientation concept, the following section will review Burk et al.'s (1984) research in the use of career orientations in the study of burnout among police.

Career Orientations and Burnout in Police: Burke's Study

In a partial test of Cherniss' model, Burke et al. (1984) categorized a sample of police officers according to their career orientations. Their sample consisted of 296 police men and women who were attending The Ontario Police College. The demographic characteristics of the sample indicate that the majority of respondents were male (91%), were between 21 and 35

years (71%), had less than five years of police experience (56%), held the rank of Constable (80%), and worked shifts (79%).

Respondents were asked to read four paragraphs (see Appendix B) that had been written by Burke et al. (1984). Each paragraph describes a police officer who possesses the values and exhibits the behaviours reflecting one of the four career orientations of Cherniss (1980). Respondents then ranked the paragraphs relative to how similar the descriptions were to the way they saw themselves when they started policework. In addition, officers marked the paragraph that most accurately described the way they saw themselves in the present.

Burke et al. administered a questionnaire containing a comprehensive list of items designed to assess the officers' perceptions on a host of organizational and personal variables, including job satisfaction. The results showed that the Artisan (39%) and the Careerist (38%) orientations were ranked first most often, followed by the Social Activist (15%) and Self-Investor (9%) orientations. For reasons not explained by Burke et al., only 96 officers selected an orientation for the present. Of those, 55% chose the Artisan orientation, 23% the Careerist orientation, 8% the Social Activist orientation, and 12% the Self-Investor orientation.

Burke et al. report that Social Activists and Self-Investors were less satisfied with their jobs than were Careerists. Furthermore, Self-Investors were less satisfied than Artisans and expressed the greatest intention of quitting policework. Overall, Burke et al. concur with Cherniss (1980); they conclude that workers exhibiting a Social Activist career orientation have a

higher likelihood of "burning out" and experience the highest levels of job dissatisfaction. In addition, they conclude that Self-Investors are least committed to and are relatively dissatisfied with their jobs.

The review of Burke et al.'s (1984) study has revealed an important limitation of their work in that they did not test the notion of career orientation-work setting fit as proposed by Cherniss (1980). More specifically, although police officers were classified according to their career orientations, 80% of the sample was from patrol. Hence, Burke et al., in effect, have looked only at officers in the Patrol assignment category. Burke et al.'s results are useful in that they show that both the concept of career orientation and the method that they developed can be successfully applied to the study of the differences among police officers and their responses to the environment. However, Burke et al.'s research does not further our understanding of the person-environment interaction, specifically, the interaction between career orientation and the police environment.

The present research represents a partial replication and an extension of the study of Burke et al. As in that study police officers in the Patrol assignment category rated themselves according to their career orientations, and then the career orientations were compared on measures of job satisfaction. The present study extended the research of Burke and his associates by examining the career orientation-job satisfaction relationship in two other police assignment categories: Investigation and Supervision/Administration. In

addition, measures of PE fit were obtained from officers in the three assignment categories. Each respondent described his or her work environment according to four complex work dimensions. Each complex work dimension reflects the values and interests expressed by one of the four career orientations. The PE fit scores were then correlated with measures of job satisfaction. The following section will examine the rationale and set out the hypotheses for the present study.

Rationale and Hypotheses

As noted earlier, a limitation of the Burke et al. (1984) research was that they did not take into account the interaction between career orientation and the environment as proposed by Cherniss (1980). Cherniss suggests, based on the person-environment fit approach, that for each career orientation there is an optimal work setting. If a person with a particular career orientation works in an optimal work setting, Cherniss predicts that strain will be low and job satisfaction high. In their study, Burke et al. used a person approach. They classified police officers according to the four career orientations, but they did so in the Patrol assignment category only. Burke et al. concluded that police officers who demonstrate the Artisan or Careerist career orientations are the most satisfied with policework. Nevertheless, this conclusion may be invalid if it is applied to officers working in other police assignment categories, such as Investigation or Supervision/Administration. That is, if a different pattern of career orientation job satisfaction scores can be obtained in the assignment categories

the lower ranks are concerned with the operations and the performance of patrol officers. Although Sergeants do go out on patrol, their primary function is supervision (Grossman, 1975). In the higher ranks (i.e., Inspector to Chief), responsibilities consist primarily of planning and decision-making. Typically, it is the higher management and administrative ranks who set policy and the lower, supervisory ranks who see that policy is carried out (Grossman, 1975). Finally, another major difference between the Patrol and the Supervision/Administration categories centres on the personality characteristics of the members in each. The Patrol category is the first step in entering a police organization. Patrol officers who are content to stay in patrol need only to continue to work to standard. However, for officers interested in promotion, the competition for the few spots available is fierce (Stratton, 1984). Patrol officers and supervisors seeking advancement must be highly competitive and be prepared to work extra hard to be noticed. In order to continue advancing through the ranks, officers must be aware of the expectations of their superiors and be prepared to bend themselves accordingly. In addition, officers seeking advancement must be prepared to carry out tasks (disciplining former patrol mates) which can be quite stressful in order to prove that they are worthy of the next step in the bureaucracy (Stratton, 1984).

In summary, the detective role is characterized by freedom, autonomy, challenge, specialized training, and the opportunity to see oneself as a "craftsman." As noted previously, Artisans value freedom, autonomy, an opportunity to work to their own high

to the same degree by restrictive rules and regulations because they do not wear uniforms. Detectives' work, suggests Pogrebin, consists of taking charge of criminal investigations. Some of their responsibilities include interviewing witnesses and suspects, collecting evidence, cultivating a network of informants, laying charges, and preparing cases for court. According to Pogrebin, in order to carry out these tasks, detectives receive a high degree of specialized training. Moreover, Pogrebin maintains that detectives have considerable autonomy over how they carry out their investigations. Finally, Pogrebin, states that "perhaps what keeps an investigator going from day to day is his enormous dedication and pride in working a case" (p.284). He makes this statement in light of the observation that to detectives "the real test of their professional ability and competence" (p.282) comes when they take a case before the courts. Detectives "see themselves as craftsmen" (p.282) and as such are highly motivated to complete investigations to the highest standards possible.

Another distinct area of policing is Supervision/ Administration. Being promoted from the Patrol assignment category to a supervisor means an increase in status (both within and without the department), prestige, money, power, and authority. In many cases, it is exactly these rewards that attracts police officers to seek promotion, rather than the job itself (Stratton, 1984). Supervisors no longer are expected to do the work themselves; it is now their job to see that the work gets done. Supervisors (i.e., Sergeants and Staff Sergeants) in

other than Patrol, this would provide evidence that an interaction between the career orientation (P) of an officer and his/her assignment category (E) was in effect.

What reasons do we have for expecting that the career orientation-job satisfaction patterns in other police assignment categories might be different from those in Patrol? Research on Holland's (1973, 1985) theory suggests that job satisfaction is higher for those persons experiencing a good fit with their subspecialty within a single occupation (Spokane, 1985). For example, nurses who express greater congruence with their particular assignments (e.g., critical care and psychiatry) are more satisfied with their jobs than nurses who express less congruence with their assignments. Furthermore, studies based on Holland's model and using a combination of Holland's codes have shown that there are seven different types of accountants, each seeking a different type of optimal work setting (Aranya, Barak, & Amenic, 1981).

In policing, there appears to be three rather distinct assignment categories: (a) Patrol, (b) Investigation, and (c) Supervision/Administration (Kelly & Kelly, 1979). Although there has been little research attempting to differentiate police assignment categories, Pogrebin (1976) conducted an observational study that focused on the role and function of the detective. According to Pogrebin, "detectives have relative freedom in their working world as compared to officers in the uniformed division" (p.278). Pogrebin draws this conclusion based on the observations that detectives are not tied to any particular geographic area, are not supervised as closely as patrolmen, and are not constrained

standards, and a challenging job which requires a high degree of professional skill. Based on these similarities, one could expect that officers exhibiting an Artisan career orientation would experience greater congruence and higher levels of job satisfaction when working in the Investigation category than when working in the other two assignment categories. Similarly, officers who express a Careerist career orientation would likely experience the highest degree of fit and job satisfaction in Supervision/Administration. Careerists seek career advancement in the traditional sense. That is, they value the prestige, status, financial security, and respect that accompany a promotion. Careerists may be satisfied for a time in either the Patrol or Investigation assignment category, but due to their competitive nature they will most likely continue to seek career advancement until they see that continuing to do so is futile. For this reason, one could expect Careerists to gravitate toward the Supervision/Administration category and to remain satisfied with the work there as long as there was hope of further advancement.

The first objective of the present research was to replicate that part of the Burke et al.'s (1984) study dealing with career orientation and job satisfaction. As in Burke et al.'s study, police officers in the Patrol assignment category were classified according to their career orientation. Then officers representing different career orientations were compared on measures of job satisfaction. In addition, following Cherniss (1980) and Holland (1973, 1985), Burke et al.'s research was

extended by examining the interaction between career orientation and police assignment category. The members of the other two assignment categories--Investigation and Supervision/Administration--were classified according to their career orientation and those reflecting the different orientations were compared on job satisfaction. Keeping in mind the similarities between the various career orientations and assignment categories, it was expected that whether a given career orientation was more satisfied than one or more of the other orientations would depend on the particular assignment category. It follows that:

Hypothesis 1. The pattern of job satisfaction results across the four career orientations will differ for the three police assignment categories.

The first part of the proposed research looked at PE fit by examining the differences in job satisfaction across career orientations in different police assignment categories. This portion of the research is patterned after the personality-environment fit approach of Holland (1973). That is, just as Holland proposes that there is an optimal environment for each of his six personality types, Cherniss maintains that there is an optimal work setting for each of his four career orientations. Thus, this study draws on Holland's theory to provide the broad conceptual framework used to test Hypothesis 1.

Nevertheless, there is another and perhaps superior way of investigating PE fit which is based on French et al.'s (1974) theory of adjustment. By using Holland's approach, as noted

above, it may be possible to identify which career orientation will likely be most satisfied in a given assignment category (e.g., Careerist in Supervision/Administration). However, by using French et al.'s theory, it may be possible to get more information about the PE interaction. For example, it may be possible to identify which members of a given career orientation will be most satisfied in a particular assignment category (e.g., in Supervision/Administration, Careerists who experience most congruence will be most satisfied).

Thus, following French et al., the second objective of the study was to relate measures of PE fit to job satisfaction for officers working in each of the three assignment categories. Consistent with French et al.'s approach, measures of the person and the environment were taken on commensurate dimensions. It is expected that as perceived misfit between the officers' career orientations and their assignment categories increases, job satisfaction will diminish. Thus, it follows that:

Hypothesis 2. There will be a negative relationship between lack of PE fit and job satisfaction in all three police assignment categories.

CHAPTER II

Method

Subjects

The present research was the second stage of a two stage research undertaking carried out in the Windsor, Ontario Police Force. At the outset, the author approached the Administration of the Windsor Police Force and made himself available to carry out research for them should the need arise. Shortly thereafter, a request was made by the Board of Commissioners of Police (the Board) for the author to investigate job satisfaction on the Force.

In November, 1986 the author submitted a proposal to the Board outlining two interrelated stages of research. Phase one of the research was designed to obtain data from a random sample of the Force members using semi-structured interviews. Phase two of the research was designed to collect data from the entire Force using a questionnaire format. The proposal was approved by the Board and the Association Executive, and Phase one was completed during the summer of 1987. The present thesis constitutes Phase two.

The Windsor Police Force is separated functionally into three Divisions: (a) Patrol, (b) Investigation, and (c) Administration (see Appendix F for an Organizational Chart). The Patrol Division is comprised predominantly of police officers whose primary function centres on the delivery of service to the public. Officers in this division typically wear uniforms and are actually engaged in patrol activities (e.g., Constables) or

in the supervision (e.g., Sergeants and Staff Sergeants) or management (e.g., Inspectors and Staff Inspectors) of patrol activities. Similarly, the Investigation Division is composed of officers whose prime responsibility is either investigating criminal activities (e.g., Constables and Detectives) or in the supervision (e.g., Staff Sergeants and Inspectors) or management (e.g., Inspectors and Staff Inspectors) of criminal investigations. These officers are typically dressed in civilian attire. Finally, the Administration Division is made up of officers whose primary responsibility is to tend to the business aspects of policing. Their functions include, among others, financial planning and management, setting priorities and objectives, mediating between the external demands on and internal resources of the organization, and coordinating efforts to provide police services.

The demographic characteristics of the police respondents are summarized in Table 1. Approximately 280 questionnaires were distributed to the sworn members of the Force, and of that number 242 (86%) were collected and used in the study. As indicated in Table 1, the majority of respondents were male ($n=232$, 95.9%), married ($n=178$, 72.6%), Constables ($n=153$, 62.5%), and assigned to Patrol (60.3%). The mean age of the sample was 37.6 years, the mean number of years on the Force was 15.1 years, and the mean number of years members have at their present assignment was 5.8 years.

Departmental statistics indicated that the study sample was generally representative of the Force. The strength of

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Sex	n	(%)	Age	M	SD
Male	234	(95.9)	N=242	37.57	9.85
Female	8	(3.3)			

Marital Status	n	(%)	Education	n	(%)
Single	39	(15.9)	Less than 12	26	(10.6)
Married	178	(72.6)	High School Grad.	83	(33.8)
Separated	17	(6.9)	Some Coll./Univ.	78	(31.8)
Divorced	10	(4.1)	College Graduate	17	(6.9)
Widow(er)	1	(0.4)	University Graduate	41	(16.7)

Assignment Category	n	(%)	Rank	n	(%)
Patrol	146	(60.3)	Constable	153	(62.4)
Invest.	45	(18.6)	Sergeant	16	(6.6)
Supervision-Admin.	51	(21.0)	Detective	25	(10.4)
			Staff Sergeant	19	(7.9)
			Inspector	10	(4.1)
			Staff Inspector	2	(0.8)

Organizational Tenure	M	SD	Assignment Tenure	M	SD
	15.05	9.88		5.80	5.75

the Force was 346 sworn personnel, not including 27 police cadets, and 64 civilians. Police personnel included the Chief, the Deputy Chief, 3 Staff Inspectors (1%), 10 Inspectors (3%), 23 Staff Sergeants (7%), 27 Sergeants (8%), 49 Detectives (14%), and 232 Constables (67%). The mean age of the Force was 39 years and the mean amount of organizational tenure was 16 years. No statistics were available for assignment tenure, marital status, or educational status.

Measures

The design of the present study called for the comparison of measures of job satisfaction across four career orientations in three assignment categories. In addition, a correlational examination of the relationship between PE fit scores and job satisfaction was required. In order to satisfy these statistical requirements, the present research included three independent variables: person, environment, and PE fit. Furthermore, an organizational variable, Assignment Category, was used. In addition, the study included job satisfaction as the dependent variable. Job satisfaction was separated into three components: intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction, and overall satisfaction.

Measurement of Person. French et al. (1974) argue that in order to accurately assess the degree of PE fit it is necessary to measure the P and the E on commensurate dimensions. Accordingly, all of their studies used simple and single measures on commensurate dimensions. That is, French et al. had respondents rate their desires (P) on a particular dimension

(pay), along with their perception of the rewards or outcomes (E) on the same or commensurate dimension.

Unlike French et al. (1974), the work dimensions employed in this study are complex. A complex work dimension refers to a work dimension that incorporates more than one concept. For example, the Artisan work dimension must integrate the concepts of independence, autonomy, and opportunity for professional skills development in order to reflect the optimal work setting for an Artisan career orientation. In the present research, PE fit was assessed on four complex work dimensions. They were: (a) Social Activist, (b) Careerist, (c) Artisan, and (d) Self-Investor.

The person variable was measured using the descriptive paragraphs of the four career orientations (see Appendix B) developed by Burke et al. (1984). Following Cherniss (1980), Burke et al. created four paragraphs that reflect the essential values of the four career orientations: (a) Social Activist, (b) Careerist, (c) Artisan, and (d) Self-Investor. Each paragraph identifies a fictional male police officer by first name and describes the officer's likes, dislikes, values, and goals in police work. Each respondent was asked to rank the paragraphs according to how similar each description was to the way the officer perceived himself or herself. In this way, officers were classified into four types corresponding to the career orientations.

In an attempt to make the research more sensitive to the sample population, the format of the Burke et al. paragraphs was altered. First, although there were only 12 female police officers

on the Windsor Police Force, it was deemed appropriate to create a version of each paragraph that used a female first name and female pronouns (see Appendix C). This version was administered to all female officers who participated in the study. Second, during Phase 1 of the research, the author had a number of the officers rank the career orientation paragraphs in the same manner as Burke et al. (1984). During this pilot test, a large percentage of the officers expressed some difficulty in differentiating between two or more of the career orientations; they suggested that they should be given the opportunity to demonstrate how closely they felt they resembled the descriptions rather than simply ranking them. For this reason a 5 point scale, ranging from very little like me (1) to very much like me (5) was added to each paragraph. This scale allowed respondents to rate each paragraph according to the degree of similarity between themselves and the descriptions. A five point scale was chosen so that it would be consistent with the 5 point scale used for the measure of job satisfaction (see below). Third, after rating each scale, respondents were asked to indicate the paragraph which most resembled them. This was necessary only in the event that the person had rated two or more paragraphs as the highest.

Measurement of Environment. In the present research there were four work settings that have been labelled in a manner consistent with the career orientations of Cherniss (1980). They were: (a) Social Activist Setting, (b) Careerist Setting, (c) Artisan Setting, and (d) Self-Investor Setting

In an effort to obtain commensurate measures on the four dimensions, the Optimal Work Setting Measure was developed. This

measure consisted of four paragraphs, each paragraph reflecting an ideal work setting for one of the career orientations (see Appendix D). For instance, an optimal work setting for Self-Investors was deemed to be one that made congruent demands on the officers' time and energies. In other words, an optimal work setting for Self-Investors was one that did not detract from their enjoyment of off-the-job activities or interests. An ideal careerist setting was defined as one that would provide Careerists with an optimal amount of prestige, recognition, and opportunities for career advancement. An artisan setting most ideal for Artisans was deemed to be one that provided the Artisan with an optimal amount of independence, autonomy, and opportunity for professional skills development. Finally, an ideal social activist setting was defined as one that meets the expectations of Social Activists relative to available opportunities to contribute to change in society and/or in the organization.

Accompanying each work setting paragraph was a 5 point scale, ranging from very little like my job (1) to very much like my job (5). Officers were asked to rate their present assignment according to how similar it was to the description offered by each paragraph.

Measurement of PE Fit. A value for the degree of person-environment congruence was obtained using the measures of P and E in the formula, $F = E - P$. The value of P was subtracted from the value of E for each respondent on each of the four career orientation dimensions. Four PE fit scores resulted, one

for each of the four dimensions. Specifically, the PE fit score was derived by taking the difference between the score on the individual's highest rated career orientation and the corresponding work setting. For example, if the respondent rated the Artisan career orientation the highest (i.e., 4), this value was subtracted from the score on the Artisan work setting (e.g., 2) in accordance with the formula, $F = E - P$. The resulting absolute value (i.e., 2) represented the respondents' PE fit score.

Measurement of Job Satisfaction. The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-Short Form (MSQ-S) (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967) was selected as the criterion measure. The decision to select this instrument was prompted in part because the MSQ-S takes very little time for the respondent to complete. This criterion was deemed important because the research was carried out in a fully functioning police milieu. It was necessary to be sensitive to, and attempt to minimize, interruptions that would disrupt the daily routine. The MSQ-S was considered to be the most informative and least disruptive instrument available for the measurement of job satisfaction under the prevailing conditions.

The MSQ-S is a 20-item questionnaire derived from the MSQ-Long Form (MSQ-L). Briefly, the MSQ-L uses a 100-item format designed to tap respondent satisfaction with reinforcers in the work environment. The MSQ-L consists of 20 scales, each comprised of five items. For a complete listing and a brief explanation of the 20 scales see Appendix G. The MSQ-S is composed of one item from each of the 20 scales in the MSQ-L. The items included were

those which correlated the highest with their respective scales (Weiss et al., 1967).

Weiss et al. report that the results of a factor analysis study of the MSQ-S showed two factors, Intrinsic satisfaction and Extrinsic satisfaction. Results of other factor analytical research have generally corroborated these findings (Bledsoe & Brown, 1977; Hauber & Bruininks, 1986). In addition, all 20 items can be scored as one scale measuring overall or general job satisfaction. Therefore, the MSQ-S can be scored on three scales: (a) Intrinsic satisfaction, (b) Extrinsic satisfaction, and (c) General satisfaction.

Weiss et al. (1967) have reported Hoyt reliabilities coefficients for the three scales. Reliabilities for the Intrinsic satisfaction scale range from .84 to .91, reliabilities for the Extrinsic satisfaction scale range from .77 to .82, and those for the General satisfaction scale range from .87 to .92. More recently, similar reliability coefficients have been reported by other researchers (Bledsoe & Brown, 1977; Hauber & Bruininks, 1986).

Weiss et al. (1967) report intercorrelations among the three MSQ-S scales to be somewhat higher than desired. Correlations between the Intrinsic and Extrinsic satisfaction scales ranged from .52 to .68. For the Intrinsic and General satisfaction scales intercorrelations ranged from .80 to .94, and for the Extrinsic and General satisfaction scales intercorrelations ranged from .79 to .87. Although high, Weiss et al. are content with the intercorrelation between the Intrinsic

and Extrinsic satisfaction scales due to the high reliabilities allowing for considerable specific variance in the two scales. A more recent study, testing 159 government employees, resulted in an intercorrelation of only .08 between the Intrinsic and Extrinsic scales (Cheloha & Farr, 1985).

Weiss et al. (1967) originally suggested that, for the most part, validities for the MSQ-S may be inferred from the validities for the MSQ-L. However, more recent studies have shown results from MSQ-S to be similar to other well validated measures of job satisfaction (e.g., Job Description Index; Cheloha & Farr, 1980). Nevertheless, another recent study by Scarpello and Campbell (1983) questions the validity of using the sum of the 20 items as a measure of overall job satisfaction. Scarpello and Campbell report that they obtained low correlations between the sum of the factor scores on the MSQ-S and other global measures of job satisfaction. They suggest that the low correlations may be due in part to a failure by the MSQ-S to measure the full range of variables that influence job satisfaction.

Assignment Categories. This research compared the job satisfaction of the officers taking into consideration their respective work environments. An assumption underlying the study was that police officers expressing different career orientations experience different levels of job satisfaction depending on the assignment category in which they work. The following paragraphs define the three major assignment categories.

The categorization of officers into assignment categories was different from the Force's organizational chart (see Appendix

F). The Patrol category included only those officers who held the rank of Constable and who worked out of Stations #1 and #2 or out of the Traffic Branch. There were approximately 200 officers in this group. The Investigation assignment category included officers whose primary function is the follow-up investigation of criminal occurrences and case preparation for court. This group consisted of Constables and Detectives working in the many investigative branches of the Force (e.g., General Investigations, Break and Enter, Fraud, Young Offender, Special Investigations, and Traffic Investigations). There were approximately 70 officers in this assignment category. The Administration/Supervision assignment category included all officers holding the rank of Sergeant and above. Officers included in this category were involved in supervising directly the work of others. They were bestowed with varying degrees of bureaucratic power and authority depending on their rank. However, the common feature among all of the officers in this group rested with the fact that they held positions of authority over a number of subordinates in the organization. There were approximately 60 officers in this group.

Tenure. In an effort to obtain a more accurate picture of the relationship between job satisfaction, career orientation, and assignment category, two tenure variables were statistically controlled: (a) organizational tenure and (b) assignment tenure. The rationale for controlling these variables is presented in the Results Chapter. The tenure variables are defined below.

Organizational tenure was defined as the length of time an

officer had been employed by the Windsor Police Force, including time spent as a Cadet, rounded to the nearest year.

Assignment tenure was defined as the amount of time an officer had spent in his present work assignment. The work assignment was not necessarily the assignment category. For example, a person could have been in the Supervision/Administration assignment category and could have worked as a training officer, patrol sergeant, desk staff sergeant, and so forth. Assignment tenure then, referred to the amount of time the officer had spent at a particular job within an assignment category.

Procedure

Arrangements were made through the Chief of the Windsor Police Force to distribute the research questionnaires to the officers in the Patrol assignment category at "line up." It was mutually agreed, by the Chief and the author, that line up was the most appropriate time and place to hand out the questionnaires, keeping in mind the need to have them filled out and returned immediately. This was decided because there was no other time and place where the officers were together as a group in a place conducive to completing a paper and pencil instrument.

With regard to the other assignment categories, distribution of the questionnaire was more on a one to one basis. This method of distribution was necessary because the members of the Investigation and Supervision/Administration assignment categories did not congregate in the same manner as the patrol officers. Questionnaires were dropped off at officers' desks with arrangements made as to when on that day they would be retrieved by the author. It took approximately six weeks to distribute and

collect the questionnaires.

It is worthy of note that the percentage of questionnaires returned was very high for this research relative to many other studies with Police. This may be attributable in part to the fact that the investigator had been a police officer for 13 years and through that common ground managed to establish a positive rapport with many of the officers. Moreover, the questionnaire research was conducted after the writer had spent a considerable amount of time in and around the police buildings interviewing police officers in Phase 1. Throughout this period the writer became known to a large number of officers who may have otherwise been less willing to participate in this project.

CHAPTER III

Results

This chapter presents the results obtained from the statistical analyses of the data. The findings are presented in three sections. The first section summarizes the results of the analyses of variance and covariance carried out on the mean satisfaction scores. These analyses were used to test Hypothesis 1 regarding the pattern of job satisfaction for the career orientations across the police assignment categories. The second section presents the results of the correlational analyses carried out on the career orientation-work setting discrepancy scores and the job satisfaction scores. This statistical procedure was used to test Hypothesis 2. The third section presents the results of additional analyses performed in an effort to answer questions relevant to the ratings of the work environments.

Before presenting the results for Hypothesis 1, the career orientation frequencies will be reviewed. As Table 2 indicates, the majority of officers saw themselves as most like the Artisan career orientation ($n=119$, 49%), whereas the second most frequently endorsed career orientation was Careerist ($n=65$, 27%), followed by Self-Investor ($n=46$, 19%). The smallest number of respondents ($n=12$), constituting only 5% of the sample, saw themselves as Social Activists. Due to the very low number of respondents who selected Social Activist as their career orientation, especially in the Investigation assignment category ($n=1$), it was deemed appropriate to delete that career orientation from the statistical analyses.

Table 2

Frequency of Career Orientations by Assignment Category

Career orientation	Assignment category						Total	
	Patrol		Investigation		Supervision/ Administration			
	n	(%)	n	(%)	n	(%)	n	(%)
Artisan (%)	71 (60)	(50)	25 (20)	(56)	23 (20)	(46)	119	(49)
Careerist (%)	34 (52)	(22)	13 (20)	(29)	18 (28)	(34)	65	(27)
Self-Investor (%)	36 (78)	(24)	6 (13)	(13)	4 (8.7)	(8)	46	(19)
Social Activist (%)	5 (43)	(3)	1 (8)	(2)	6 (50)	(12)	12	(5)
Total (%)	n=146 (60)		n=45 (19)		n=51 (21)		N=242	

Note. Percentage values for Career Orientations are to the right of n and percentage values for Assignment Categories are beneath n.

Career Orientation Job Satisfaction Patterns in Police Assignment Categories

Hypothesis 1 states that the pattern of job satisfaction results across the four career orientations will differ for the three police assignment categories. In other words, we should expect to find police officers of a particular career orientation (e.g., careerist) the most satisfied orientation in one assignment category (e.g., Supervision/Administration) and police officers of a different career orientation (e.g., artisan) the most satisfied orientation in another assignment category (e.g., Investigation). A 3 X 3 (Career Orientation X Assignment Category) factorial design was used to test this hypothesis. If the hypothesis were to be supported, we should expect to obtain a significant interaction between Career Orientation and Assignment Category.

In the Method chapter, it was mentioned that the majority of patrol officers were just beginning their careers. It was assumed from this that patrol officers, as a group, would be younger and have less organizational tenure than officers in the other two assignment categories. This inequivalence of samples suggests the possibility of having to statistically control for age and organizational tenure. The logic suggesting the possible need to control for assignment tenure is somewhat different. Although there are a great many young officers in Patrol, there is also a considerable number of police officers who have spent their entire careers in Patrol. That is, there may be some patrol officers who have spent as many as 25 to 30 years in

Patrol. By contrast, officers in Supervision/Administration and Investigation have had to transfer many times in the process of advancing through the ranks. For officers who are seeking advancement, five years is a long time to spend in one assignment. For these reasons, we would expect members of Patrol, on average, to have more assignment tenure than members of the other two assignment categories.

Because of the above considerations, three separate one-way analyses of variance were executed on age, organizational tenure, and assignment tenure. Assignment Category was used as the independent variable. Results of these analyses are presented in Table 3, and the means are shown in Table 4. It is clear from Table 3 that all three variables varied with Assignment Category: age, $F(2, 223) = 56.60, p < .01$, organizational tenure, $F(2, 223) = 71.70, p < .01$, and assignment tenure, $F(2, 223) = 10.36, p < .01$. A Tukey's HSD test was performed in order to identify which assignment categories differed significantly from each other. As shown in Table 4, a significant (.05 level or better) difference was found among all of the groups on age and organizational tenure. That is, patrol officers were the youngest of the three groups and had the least amount of organizational tenure, whereas officers in the Supervision/Administration category were the oldest and had the highest amount of organizational tenure. With respect to Assignment Tenure, Patrol had a higher mean than Investigation and Supervision/Administration, whereas they did not differ from each other. Thus, as expected, differences were found among the assignment categories with respect to age, organizational tenure,

Table 3

Analysis of Variance of Age, Organizational Tenure, and
Assignment Tenure N = 226

Source	df	MS	F
<u>Age</u>			
Assignment category	2	5829.08	56.60***
Error	223	102.98	
<u>Organizational tenure</u>			
Assignment category	2	5217.37	71.70***
Error	223	72.77	
<u>Assignment tenure</u>			
Assignment category	2	87342.53	10.36***
Error	223	8430.74	

***p. < .01

Table 4

Means For Age, Organizational Tenure, and Assignment Tenure by Assignment Category

Assignment category	Age		Organizational Tenure		Assignment Tenure	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Patrol (n=139)	33.28 ^x	9.3	11.54 ^x	6.5	7.84 ^x	6.3
Investigation (n=44)	42.23 ^x	6.1	19.67 ^x	4.9	4.57 ^x	4.9
Sup/Admin. (n=43)	46.88 ^x	6.7	24.67 ^x	6.0	3.20 ^x	2.8

Note. Column means with the same letter superscript differ significantly at $p < .01$.

and assignment tenure. These differences among the assignment categories suggested the value of treating age, organizational tenure, and assignment tenure as covariates in the analyses of job satisfaction scores. Furthermore the reader is referred to Appendix J which presents the correlations among all of the measured variables, including those between the three demographic variables -- age, organizational tenure, and assignment tenure -- and the career orientations, work settings, and job satisfaction. An inspection of the correlation table reveals that neither age nor organizational tenure was significantly related to either overall or extrinsic satisfaction. Age ($r = .137$, $p < .05$), but not organizational tenure, was significantly related to intrinsic satisfaction. Assignment Tenure was significantly and negatively related to the MSQ-S ($r = -.393$, $p < .0001$), MSQ-I ($r = -.344$, $p < .0001$), and MSQ-E ($r = -.372$, $p < .0001$). Age was positively associated with both organizational tenure ($r = .930$, $p < .0001$) and assignment tenure ($r = .263$, $p < .001$), and organizational tenure was positively associated with assignment tenure ($r = .267$, $p < .0001$). To varying degrees, the self-investor, social activist, careerist, and artisan settings were all significantly and positively correlated with the MSQ-S, MSQ-I, and MSQ-E. With regard to the career orientations, there were significant negative relationships between the self-investor career orientation and all three of the satisfaction scales. The correlations between the social activist and artisan career orientations and the three job satisfaction measures were not significant. Finally, the careerist career orientation was significantly and positively related to the MSQ-S, MSQ-I and MSQ-E.

Subsequent to the above analyses, a 3 X 3 (Career Orientation X Assignment Category) analysis of covariance was performed on each of the three satisfaction measures: MSQ-S, MSQ-I, and MSQ-E. Age, organizational tenure, and assignment tenure served as covariates. In addition, an analysis of variance also was performed. The results of the analysis of variance and the analysis of covariance for MSQ-S are shown in Table 5.1. The results for MSQ-I and MSQ-E are shown in Tables 5.2 and 5.3, respectively. The relevant means are contained in Table 6. As shown in Table 5, the results of the ANOVA differed from the ANCOVA. For instance, the ANOVA indicated that significant main effects of Career Orientation and Assignment Category were found for the MSQ-S, MSQ-I, and MSQ-E, whereas results of the ANCOVA showed significant main effects for Career Orientation and Assignment Category for MSQ-S only. Because of the differences in the ANOVA and ANCOVA results, only the results of the ANCOVA will be emphasized and reported here.

The ANCOVA results for the MSQ-S, contained in Table 5.1, indicated a significant main effect of Career Orientation, $F(2, 214) = 4.33, p < .01$, and a main effect of Assignment Category, $F(2, 214) = 3.95, p < .05$. In addition, the main effects of Age, $F(1, 214) = 4.38, p < .05$, and Assignment Tenure, $F(1, 214) = 12.69, p < .01$, were significant. The Career Orientation by Assignment Category interaction failed to achieve significance. The ANCOVA results for the MSQ-I, contained in Table 5.2, showed a significant main effect of Career Orientation, $F(2, 214) = 6.51, p < .01$. Also, age, $F(1, 214) = 2.46, p < .05$, and

Table 5.1

Career Orientation by Assignment Category ANOVA and ANCOVA for MSQ-5 with Age, Organizational Tenure and Assignment Tenure as Covariates N=226

ANOVA Source	ANCOVA Source	df	SS	F
Career Orientation		2	1812.05	9.24**
Assignment Category		2	4257.42	21.71**
Car. Or. X Assign Categ.		4	415.39	1.06
Within Error		218	9567.90	
	Career Orientation	2	812.05	4.33**
	Assignment Category	2	740.91	3.95*
	Car. Or. X Assign Cat.	4	352.21	0.94
	Age	1	410.72	4.38*
	Organizational Tenure	1	236.79	2.53
	Assignment Tenure	1	1189.33	12.69**
	Within Error	214	20060.48	

* p < .05 ** p < .01

Table 5.2

Career Orientation by Assignment Category ANOVA and ANCOVA for MSQ-I with Age, Organizational Tenure, and Assignment Tenure as Covariates. N=226

ANOVA Source	ANCOVA Source	df	SS	F
Career Orientation		2	611.35	8.75**
Assignment Category		2	1527.50	21.85**
Car. Or. X Assign. Categ.		4	205.71	1.47
Within Error		218	8104.17	
	Career Orientation	2	449.13	6.51**
	Assignment Category	2	191.81	2.78
	Car. Or. X Assign. Categ.	4	217.98	1.58
	Age	1	172.19	2.46*
	Organizational Tenure	1	84.92	2.46
	Assignment Tenure	1	367.49	10.65**
	Within Error	214	7383.48	

* p < .05 ** p < .01

Table 5.3

Career Orientation by Assignment Category ANOVA and ANCOVA for MSQ-E with Age, Organizational Tenure, and Assignment Tenure as Covariates N=226

ANOVA Source	ANCOVA Source	df	SS	F
Career Orientation		2	223.27	7.22**
Assignment Category		2	504.47	16.32**
Car. Or. X Assign. Categ.		4	50.63	0.82
Within Error		218	3642.94	
	Career Orientation	2	48.71	1.56
	Assignment Category	2	93.87	3.00*
	Car. Or. X Assign. Categ.	4	37.78	0.60
	Age	1	43.38	2.78
	Organizational Tenure	1	18.41	1.18
	Assignment Tenure	1	166.38	10.65**
	Within Error	214	3343.88	

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

Table 6

Means for the MSQ-S, MSQ-I, and MSQ-E of Career Orientation by Assignment Category

Career orientation	Assignment category						
	Patrol		Investigation		Sup/Admin.		Total
	<u>n</u>		<u>n</u>		<u>n</u>		
Careerist	34		13		17		64
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	Total
MSQ-S	67.42	10.51	77.13	10.20	78.10	11.49	x 72.25
MSQ-I	43.55	6.44	50.91	4.85	50.96	5.58	vz 46.82
MSQ-E	17.60	4.68	20.88	4.74	19.95	4.77	18.38
Artisan	69		25		22		119
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	Total
MSQ-S	64.42	9.97	71.81	8.70	75.26	10.10	x 68.30
MSQ-I	42.51	6.16	46.63	5.26	47.81	6.00	z 44.39
MSQ-E	16.37	4.00	18.36	3.80	20.07	4.12	17.68
Self-Investor	36		6		4		46
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	Total
MSQ-S	62.48	9.22	73.28	9.20	63.8	21.25	x 64.09
MSQ-I	41.88	6.12	45.75	5.71	40.89	11.98	v 42.34
MSQ-E	14.63	3.86	19.71	3.95	17.08	7.69	15.50
Total	139		44		43		226
	<u>M</u>		<u>M</u>		<u>M</u>		Grand M
MSQ-S	64.41		73.76		75.03		69.39
MSQ-I	42.54	ab	47.50	a	48.47	b	47.32
MSQ-E	15.90	ab	19.06	a	19.51	b	17.10

Assignment Tenure, $F(1, 214) = 10.65$, $p < .05$, were significant. The interaction between Career Orientation and Assignment Category and the main effect of Assignment Category were not significant. The results for the MSQ-E are presented in Table 5.3. This table shows a significant main effect of Assignment Category, $F(2, 214) = 3.00$, $p < .05$. Also, Assignment Tenure, $F(1, 214) = 10.65$, $p < .01$, was significant. The interaction between Career Orientation and Assignment Category and the main effect of Career Orientation were not significant.

The overall means for the MSQ-S, MSQ-I, and MSQ-E are listed in the column at the extreme right of Table 6. The means for the MSQ-S were significantly different from each other. That is, careerists ($M = 72.2$, $p < .05$) reported significantly higher levels of overall satisfaction than artisans ($M = 68.3$), who in turn reported significantly higher overall satisfaction than self-investors ($M = 64.0$, $p < .05$). Concerning the MSQ-I, careerists ($M = 46.8$, $p < .05$) reported significantly more intrinsic satisfaction than artisans ($M = 44.3$) and self-investors ($M = 42.3$). Artisans and self-investors did not differ significantly from one another.

The mean satisfaction scores for Assignment Category are presented in the three rows at the bottom of Table 6. Table 6 indicates that officers in Patrol reported the lowest Overall ($M = 64.4$) and Extrinsic ($M = 15.9$) satisfaction scores. Their scores were lower than officers in Investigation (Overall $M = 73.7$, $p < .05$ and Extrinsic $M = 19.0$, $p < .05$) and Supervision/Administration (Overall $M = 75.0$, $p < .05$ and Extrinsic $M = 19.5$, $p < .05$). Differences between Investigation and Supervision/

Administration were not significant.

In sum, careerists reported the most overall job satisfaction and the most intrinsic satisfaction among the three career orientations. Artisans were not higher than self-investors on intrinsic satisfaction. Patrol officers reported less overall and extrinsic satisfaction than officers in both Investigation and Supervision/ Administration. The Career Orientation by Assignment Category interaction was not significant for any of the satisfaction scales. This means the present results do not reveal different patterns of job satisfaction for the career orientations across the three assignment categories. Hence, the first hypothesis was not supported.

The following section presents the results of the analyses carried out to test Hypothesis 2.

Person-Environment Fit Scores and Job Satisfaction

Hypothesis 2 predicts that there will be a negative relationship between PE lack of fit and job satisfaction in all three police assignment categories. To test this hypothesis Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated between the PE fit scores and job satisfaction scores for each of the three police assignment categories and for the total sample collapsed across assignment category. Recall that the PE fit scores were obtained by taking measures of the person using the Career Orientation Measure (see Appendix B) and taking measures of the environment using the Optimal Work Setting Measure (see Appendix D).

Table 7

Correlations Between Job Satisfaction and PE Fit byAssignment Category.

Assignment category	MSQ-S	MSQ-I	MSQ-E
Patrol n=144	-.301**	-.266**	-.217**
Investigation n=44	-.327*	-.114	-.395**
Supervision/ Administration n=46	-.465**	-.441**	-.360*
Total N=234	-.430**	-.354**	-.379**

* p < .05

** p < .01

PE fit was calculated for each person by taking the score on the career orientation rated highest by the person and subtracting it from the score on the work setting measure that corresponded with that orientation.

The bottom row of Table 7 shows the correlations between PE fit and job satisfaction for the total sample. This row indicates that for each of the satisfaction measures the correlation exceeded the .01 significance level. The PE fit-satisfaction correlations in Patrol and Supervision/Administration were significant and negative for the MSQ-S, MSQ-I, and MSQ-E. The correlations in Investigation were significant and negative for the MSQ-S and MSQ-E but not for the MSQ-I.

In sum, the present results show a significant negative association between PE lack of fit and job satisfaction among police officers regardless of assignment category, and among officers in each of the three assignment categories. That is, to the extent they see misfit between themselves and their work environments, their job satisfaction diminishes. Hence, Hypothesis 2 was supported.

Additional Analyses

In order to further our understanding of the present findings, including the failure to support the first hypothesis, two sets of additional analyses were performed. The following sections outline the rationale for the analyses and report the results. Each section is headed by the question that prompted the analysis.

Do officers in different assignment categories perceive a

difference in their work environments? The first hypothesis of the study rests on the assumption that there are differences among the environments of the three police assignment categories. That is, it was expected that the pattern of differences in satisfaction scores among the various career orientations would vary from one assignment category to another because of differences in the work environments of the assignment categories. If such environmental differences exist, they should be sensitive to a measure that requires the officers to compare the characteristics of their assignment categories with descriptions of work environments that reflect the optimal work settings for each of the four career orientations. For instance, one might expect officers in the Supervision/Administration assignment category to perceive their work environments as closer to the Careerist setting than would officers in the Patrol or Investigation assignment categories.

Thus, a 3 X 4 (Assignment Category X Setting Measure) repeated measures analysis of variance was carried out on the officers' ratings of their work environments, using Setting Measure as the repeated dependent measure. In addition, a repeated measures analysis of covariance was carried out with age, organizational tenure, and assignment tenure as covariates. If the considerations above are to be supported and environmental differences exist, we should expect to find a significant interaction between Assignment Category and Setting Measure. Results of the analysis of variance and covariance are presented in Table 8, and the relevant means are presented in Table 9. As

Table 8

Assignment Category by Setting Measure ANOVA and ANCOVA with
Setting Measure as the Repeated Measure and Age, Organizational
Tenure, and Assignment Tenure as Covariates

ANOVA Source	df	MS	F
Assign. Categ.	2	40.31	16.78**
Error (Sub. within Assign. Categ.)	231	2.40	
Setting	3	14.06	14.20**
Assign. Categ. X Setting Measure	6	1.34	1.36
Error (Set X Sub within Assign. Categ.)	693	.99	

ANCOVA Source	df	MS	F
Assign. Categ.	2	6.81	2.83*
Age	1	0.56	0.23
Organization Tenure	1	0.17	0.07
Assignment Tenure	1	8.94	3.71*
Error	220	2.41	
Setting Measure	3	2.97	3.11*
Assign. Categ. X Set. Measure	6	2.21	2.31*
Age X Set. Measure	3	1.05	1.06
Organ. Tenure X Set. Measure	3	0.73	0.77
Assign. Tenure X Set. Measure	3	0.22	0.88
Error	660	.96	

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

Table 9

Mean Ratings For Setting Measure by Assignment Category

Assignment category	Setting measure								Total
	Self-Inv.		Social Act.		Careerist		Artisan		
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	
Sup/Admin. (n=46)	3.67	1.1	2.83	1.2	3.37	1.2	3.14	1.2	3.25
Investigation (n=44)	3.00	1.2	2.52	1.2	2.66	1.3	3.02	1.2	2.80
Patrol (n=144)	2.94	1.3	2.24	1.0	2.29	1.1	2.58	1.1	2.51
Total (N=234)	3.09		2.40		2.55		2.78		

Table 8 shows, a significant Assignment Category by Setting Measure interaction was revealed by the ANCOVA and not the ANOVA. Only the results of the ANCOVA will be reported in this section.

The lower portion of Table 8 shows the results of the analysis of covariance. This table indicates that the main effect of Assignment Category, $F(2, 220) = 2.83, p < .05$ and the main effect of Setting Measure, $F(3, 660) = 3.11, p < .05$ were significant. Moreover, the interaction between Assignment Category and Setting Measure, $F(6, 660) = 2.31, p < .05$ was significant, as was the effect of Assignment Tenure, $F(1, 220) = 3.71, p < .05$.

Subsequent to the analyses reported above, four one way (Assignment Category x Work Setting) analyses of covariance were performed using age, organizational tenure, and assignment tenure as covariates. Results of these analyses showed that for the self-investor, social activist, and artisan settings the effect of Assignment Category on the work setting ratings was not significant, whereas the effect of Assignment Category on the careerist setting, $F(2, 220) = 5.34, p < .01$ was significant. The mean ratings for the work settings are presented in Table 9. Examination of this table, reveals that officers in the Supervision/Administration assignment category ($M = 3.37$) rated the careerist setting higher than officers in Investigation ($M = 2.66$), who in turn rated the careerist setting higher than patrol officers ($M = 2.29$). Thus, it appears that the significant interaction found between Assignment Category and Setting Measure was due largely to the fact that the only work setting to be rated significantly different among the assignment categories

was the careerist setting.

In sum, a significant Assignment Category by Setting Measure interaction was found. Separate one way analyses of variance indicated that ratings on the self-investor, social activist, and artisan settings were not significantly different, however, ratings were different for the careerist setting. Thus, these results suggest that, as expected, officers did perceive environmental differences among the assignment categories, and these differences were particularly discernible on the careerist setting.

Do officers with different career orientations rate their work settings differently. Based on earlier findings that careerists, regardless of assignment category, reported being more satisfied overall than artisans and self-investors, one should expect careerists to rate their work environments higher on the careerist setting. This expectation is derived out of thinking that is consistent with the PE fit approach to job satisfaction. Recall that Holland (1973, 1985) and Cherniss (1980) both argue that job satisfaction is determined to the extent that the work environment matches the rewards valued and the demands made by the person. Holland posits six personality types along with six corresponding work environments. According to Holland, job satisfaction peaks when a given personality type works in its corresponding environment. As the environment moves away from the personality, job satisfaction diminishes. More relevant to this present study, Cherniss advocates that for each of his four career orientations there is an optimal work setting.

An optimal work setting is defined as a work setting that reflects the goals and values of its corresponding career orientation. In a manner similar to Holland, Cherniss proposes that job satisfaction is determined to the extent that a person with a given career orientation works in a setting that fits his or her career orientation. Hence, because the present results show careerists to be more satisfied than the other two career orientations, it follows that careerists should perceive their work environments as closer to their career orientations. In other words, careerists should rate the careerist setting higher than should the other two orientations.

Thus, using a 3 X 4 (Career Orientation X Setting Measure) repeated measures analysis of variance, the environment ratings of officers were analyzed. A repeated measures analysis of covariance was also performed using age, organization tenure, and assignment tenure as covariates. As in the preceding section, if our speculations are to be supported, we should expect to find a significant Career Orientation X Setting Measure interaction. Results of these analyses are presented in Table 10, and the mean ratings for Career Orientation and Setting Measure are shown in Table 11. In order to maintain consistency with the other sections, only the results of the ANCOVA will be emphasized and reported here.

As shown in Table 10, the analysis revealed a significant main effect of Career Orientation, $F(2, 220) = 5.81, p < .01$, and a significant effect of Setting Measure, $F(3, 660) = 3.38, p <$

Table 10

Career Orientation by Setting Measure ANOVA and ANCOVA with Setting Measure as the Repeated Measure and Age, Organizational Tenure, and Assignment Tenure as Covariates. N = 234

ANOVA Source	df	MS	F
Career Orientation	2	15.41	5.30**
Error (Sub. within Car. Or.)	231	2.91	
Setting Measure	3	56.95	19.84**
Car. Or. X Setting	6	30.62	10.67**
Error (Set. X Sub. within Car. Or.)	678	2.87	

ANCOVA Source	df	MS	F
Career Orientation	2	13.65	5.81**
Age	1	1.79	0.76
Organization Tenure	1	1.09	2.47
Assignment Tenure	1	30.01	12.76**
Error	220	2.35	
Setting Measure	3	3.19	3.38*
Car. Or. X Set. Measure	6	4.31	4.57**
Age X Set. Measure	3	2.15	2.29
Org. Ten. X Set. Measure	3	0.62	0.66
Assign Categ. X Assign. Ten.	3	1.70	1.80
Error	660	0.94	

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

Table 11

Means of Career Orientations for Setting Measure

Career orientation	Setting measure								Total
	Self- Investor		Social Activist		Career		Artisan		
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	
Careerist n=119	2.97	1.3	2.65	1.1	3.08	1.4	3.09	1.2	2.93
Artisan n=64	3.10	1.2	2.41	1.1	2.51	1.1	2.84	1.2	2.72
Self-Inv. n=46	3.22	1.4	2.17	1.1	1.98	0.9	2.19	0.9	2.38
Total n=234	3.04		2.45		2.70		2.83		

Setting Measure, $F(6, 660) = 4.57, p < .01$, was significant. The effect of Assignment Tenure, $F(1, 220) = 12.76, p < .01$, was also significant.

A series of four one way (Assignment Category X Work Setting) analyses of variance were performed to ascertain if the mean ratings for each work settings differed significantly among the career orientations. The results indicated that the differences among the ratings for the self-investor setting and the social activist setting were not significant. The effect of career orientation on the careerist setting, ($F(2, 220) = 10.90, p < .01$), and the artisan setting $F(2, 220) = 6.08, p < .01$, was significant. Referring to the means shown in Table 11, careerists were higher on the careerist setting ($M = 3.08$) than artisans, and artisans were higher than self-investors. On the artisan setting, careerists ($M = 3.09$) again were the highest, followed by artisans ($M = 2.51$) in the middle and self-investors ($M = 2.19$) the lowest.

In sum, it appears that the interaction between Career Orientation and Setting Measure is attributable to significant differences among the ratings for the careerist and artisan work settings but differences among the self-investor and social activist ratings which were not significant. Thus, these results indicate that officers did perceive environmental differences among the career orientations, and that these differences were with respect to the careerist and artisan settings.

CHAPTER IV

Discussion

One of the primary objectives of the present study was to replicate Burke et al.'s (1984) research on the relationship between satisfaction scores and career orientation among police. Recall that Burke et al., using a sample largely comprised of relatively young patrol constables, found careerists were more satisfied than self-investors and social activists. There was no difference between the satisfaction levels of careerists and artisans.

Despite deleting social activists from the analyses due to insufficient numbers, the present findings generally replicated Burke et al.'s results. The data showed that, in the Patrol assignment category, careerists were more satisfied than self-investors but not more satisfied than artisans. Moreover, artisans' satisfaction scores fell in between and were not significantly different from either careerists or self-investors. Thus, Burke et al.'s finding that among a sample of patrol constables, careerists were most satisfied and self-investors least satisfied was largely supported by the present research. In the following section, results are discussed relative to the second objective of the study -- extending Burke et al.'s work to address the question of PE fit as developed by Cherniss (1980).

PE Fit and Job Satisfaction: Hypothesis 1

The second primary objective of the present study was to extend Burke et al.'s research by examining the career orientation-environment fit of police among different police

assignment categories. Recall that although Burke et al.'s research was based on Cherniss' (1980) theory of burnout, one of the limitations of their study was that they did not address the notion of person-environment fit as developed by Cherniss. Cherniss posits that for each career orientation there is an optimal work setting. According to Cherniss, if a person has a particular career orientation (e.g., careerist) and works in an environment that corresponds to the optimal work setting for that orientation (e.g., careerist setting), burnout and job dissatisfaction should be less likely to occur. In other words, if there is a lack of fit between the career orientation of the worker and his or her work setting, burnout and job dissatisfaction should result.

The present investigation examined the relationship between job satisfaction and police career orientations across more than one assignment category. More specifically, the satisfaction scores (overall, intrinsic, and extrinsic) of police representing different career orientations (Careerist, Artisan, and Self-Investor) were compared across three police assignment categories (Patrol, Investigation, and Supervision/ Administration). The results (Table 6) showed that careerists reported the highest level of overall satisfaction and more intrinsic satisfaction than artisans and self-investors. In addition, the results showed that officers in Patrol reported the lowest overall satisfaction and lower extrinsic satisfaction than officers in Investigation and Supervision/ Administration. Nonetheless, no significant interaction was found between Career Orientation and Assignment Category. Thus, the present results do not support

Hypothesis 1; the pattern of job satisfaction scores for the three career orientations was not significantly different across the three assignment categories.

This finding appears to be inconsistent with Cherniss' thinking that human service professionals with different career orientations should be differentially satisfied with their jobs depending on the properties of the environment in which they work. However, given that a statistical interaction was predicted, we can take a look at the pattern of mean satisfaction scores for the three career orientations in the three assignment categories. The pattern of means (Table 6) appears consistent with the first hypothesis, and, therefore, Cherniss' model. For example, self-investors reported the lowest level of overall and extrinsic satisfaction of the three career orientations in the Patrol and Supervision/Administration assignment categories. Nevertheless, the overall ($M = 73.2$) and extrinsic ($M = 19.7$) satisfaction scores of self-investors' in the Investigation assignment category were higher than the satisfaction of artisans' (MSQ-S, $M = 71.8$; and MSQ-E, $M = 18.3$). In other words, despite the lack of statistical significance, self-investors appeared to be more extrinsically satisfied in the Investigation assignment category than they were in the other two assignment categories. The lack of statistical support for this effect in the present study may be attributable in part to the small number of self-investors in the Investigation ($n=6$) and Supervision/Administration ($n=4$) assignment categories.

There is another plausible reason for the failure to find

support for Hypothesis 1. The present research was carried out in a fully functioning and highly complex police organization. That is, although theoretical connections can be logically drawn between the values sought by particular career orientations (e.g., artisans) and the functions and properties of certain police assignment categories (e.g., Investigation), in reality these connections may be obfuscated by a multitude of uncontrolled and hidden factors. For example, in the Investigation assignment category of the police force under study, the satisfaction of artisans relative to careerists may be reduced by a prevailing managerial atmosphere that better reflects the values of the careerist orientation than those of the artisan. That is, artisans may not be given what they feel is adequate time to complete investigations to their high standards. Or, they may not be satisfied with the nature and amount of training available to them.

As stated above, one of the primary objectives of the present investigation was to extend the research of Burke et al. (1984) by comparing the satisfaction levels of the career orientations across the three police assignment categories. Recall, that Burke and his colleagues found that, in a sample comprised primarily of patrol officers, careerists and artisans reported more job satisfaction than social activists and self-investors. The present study found that, regardless of assignment category, careerists reported more overall job satisfaction than artisans who in turn reported more overall job satisfaction than self-investors.

Further, Burke et al. used only an overall measure of job

satisfaction in their study of burnout among police. The present study extended the research of Burke and his associates by obtaining measures of intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. Results showed that, regardless of assignment category, careerists reported significantly more intrinsic satisfaction, but not more extrinsic satisfaction, than artisans and self investors.

In sum, the failure to find a statistically significant Career Orientation by Assignment Category interaction resulted in a lack of support for Hypothesis 1. However, the mean satisfaction scores did suggest a pattern that was consistent with Hypothesis 1: self-investors in the Investigation assignment category appeared more satisfied than self-investors in the Patrol and Supervision/Administration assignment categories. This effect may not have achieved statistical significance due to the small number of self-investors in Investigation and Supervision/Administration and the presence of uncontrolled error. Future research will likely need to sample a greater number of officers and control some of the extraneous error in the work settings before it can provide an adequate test of the hypothetical interaction between Career Orientation and Assignment Category among police.

The following section discusses the results as they apply to Hypothesis 2.

PE Fit and Job Satisfaction: Hypothesis 2

The data (Table 7) showed that the relationship between PE

lack of fit (i.e., career orientation score minus work setting score) and job satisfaction was significant and negative. In all three assignment categories, as the perceived misfit between the officers' career orientations and measures of work setting increased, overall and extrinsic satisfaction diminished. In addition, the relationship between PE lack of fit and intrinsic satisfaction in the Patrol and Supervision/Administration assignment categories was also significant and negative; in Investigation, the association was negative but not significant. Thus, these data largely supported Hypothesis 2 and provided confirmation of Cherniss' PE fit theory of burnout.

Why is it that the first hypothesis was not supported and the second hypothesis was supported, yet both hypotheses were based on the notion of PE fit? As explained previously, a combination of the relatively small number of self-investors and the presence of uncontrolled error may have masked support for the first hypothesis. Support for the second hypothesis is consistent with this thinking. Recall that it was suggested in the Introduction that there may be an advantage to using French et al.'s (1974) PE fit approach over Holland's (1973, 1985) PE fit approach in the study of job satisfaction. That is, obtaining measures of PE fit on commensurate work dimensions and correlating them with measures of job satisfaction may supply us with more information than would be possible by comparing the satisfaction scores of officers with different career orientations across different assignment categories. In the present case, although the satisfaction of police officers with different career orientations did not differ significantly across

the assignment categories, it is still possible to argue that, regardless of the career orientation-assignment category combination, as officers perceived increases in the lack of fit between themselves and their work environments, their job satisfaction was reduced. Thus, the value of French et al.'s method of studying job satisfaction was supported by this research.

Additional Analyses

Some interesting findings resulted out of the additional analyses. Of particular interest to this study is that the Optimal Setting Measure was found to be a useful tool in discriminating among police work settings. In the present case, descriptive paragraphs were created to reflect the four optimal police work settings, each one corresponding to a career orientation paragraph that was developed by Burke et al. (1984). Unlike French et al.'s single work dimensions, each of the police work setting measures integrated several dimensions into one complex dimension. The results showed that officers were able to relate to the setting measures in a meaningful and useful way.

An unexpected finding is that officers in Supervision/Administration tended to rate the self-investor setting higher than officers in the Patrol and Investigation assignment categories. This finding along with other considerations leads us to question the validity of the Self-Investor Setting Measure. Why would officers in the Supervision/Administration assignment category see their work environment as resembling the self-

Investor setting? How can officers in Supervision/ Administration, who reported relatively high levels of job satisfaction, also perceive their work environment as resembling an environment which is supposed to reflect the characteristics of the self-investor career orientation (i.e., little organizational commitment and job involvement; Burke et al., 1984)? The answer may lie in the fact that the self-investor setting may not reflect a work setting that is uniquely characteristic of the self-investor career orientation.

In retrospect, it appears that the paragraph used in the Self-Investor Setting Scale of the Optimal Work Setting Measure may be qualitatively different from the other setting scales. The work setting scales for the social activist, careerist, and artisan settings each describes an environment that has in it certain unique characteristics that mirror the values of its corresponding career orientation. The social activist setting describes an environment that provides officers with sufficient opportunities to make meaningful contributions to improvements in society, the careerist setting describes a work environment that includes sufficient opportunities for recognition and promotion, and the artisan setting describes an environment that provides independence, freedom, challenge, and skill development. In contrast, the self-investor setting describes an environment that is not excessively demanding and does not interfere with the officers' enjoyment of off-the-job activities. Thus, it seems apparent that officers could see their work environments as not overly demanding or interfering in addition to resembling any one of the other work settings. For

instance, one's work environment can be both high in recognition and opportunities for promotion (i.e., careerist characteristics) and allow for ample time to invest in off-the-job activities. The results (Table 11) indicating that the self-investor setting scores of the three career orientations do not appear to differ significantly is consistent with this hypothesis. That is, careerists, artisans, and self-investors tended to rate the self-investor setting at approximately the same level. Hence, the self-investor setting scale may not be measuring work environmental qualities that are unique to the self-investor career orientation.

Another interesting finding centres on the careerist work setting. The careerist setting scale was the most successful scale of the Optimal Work Setting Measure in discriminating among the career orientations. On the careerist setting scale the three career orientations appear to have rated their work environments differently. Careerists rated the careerist setting higher than artisans and self-investors, and artisans rated their environments relatively higher than self-investors. This finding is significant when viewed against the backdrop of their satisfaction scores. That is, the descending pattern of overall satisfaction scores of the career orientations was the same as the descending pattern of careerist setting scores by orientation (i.e., careerist, artisan, self-investor). This leads one to focus on the extent to which police job satisfaction is influenced by the officers' perceptions of the attainability of formal organizational rewards (i.e., promotion). Other studies

have reported a direct relationship between lack of recognition and opportunities for promotion and job dissatisfaction among police (Acuri, 1976; Hylton, 1980; Lefkowitz, 1973; Linden, 1985; Slovak, 1978). Considering the substantial amount of correlational data that points to a direct association between police job satisfaction and opportunities for promotion, more controlled and longitudinal research is needed in this area before statements concerning causality can be made.

In sum, the self-investor setting scale may not be adequately describing characteristics which are unique to a self-investor work setting, and, as such, it might have failed to discriminate among the career orientations and among members in the various assignment categories. The careerist setting scale, on the other hand, seemed to discriminate among the career orientations and assignment categories. Scores on this measure followed a descending pattern (i.e., careerists, artisans, and self-investors) that paralleled the descending pattern of satisfaction across the career orientations. This finding, along with results from other studies, suggest an important causal relationship between police job dissatisfaction and the lack of opportunities for promotion. Further research is needed to determine the direction of this relationship.

Limitations of Study and Future Research Questions

One of the more serious limitations of the present study was its reliance on simple zero order correlations to investigate the relationship between PE fit and job satisfaction. By using correlational analysis, we were not able to distinguish between

two rival hypotheses. First, the hypothesis espoused by this research was that job satisfaction is a function of the person's perception that there is a good fit between himself or herself and his or her work environment. Another hypothesis, equally tenable, is that the goodness of PE fit is a function of job satisfaction. That is, the more satisfied a person is in a particular job, the more he or she tends to see the work environment as matching his or her values, goals and abilities. Future research may need to involve path-analysis to test an appropriate model.

Another valuable method in establishing the direction of the relationship between variables is longitudinal research. The present research used a cross-sectional research design where comparisons were made based on sample data that were collected on a single occasion. This type of research has allowed us an appreciation of the association between certain police assignment categories and Cherniss' career orientations. But, it has not provided us with any insight into the dynamics of the interrelationships among the various variables. For example, the present research, coupled with Burke et al.'s findings, provide a relatively good picture of the static relationships among the career orientations in the various assignment categories at the time of the survey; yet, we have no idea of either the stability or the causal factors that underlie those relationships. In this research organizational and practical considerations took precedence over the use of a more elaborate research design. However, if future research is to produce a greater understanding

of the changing relationships between career orientation and job satisfaction among police, it will be required to systematically sample police officers over extended periods of time.

Longitudinal research, although time consuming and costly, could determine the direction and extent of individual career orientation change, identify reasons for career orientation change across an entire police force or within different assignment categories, and investigate the type and effectiveness of various coping strategies used by the different career orientations as defenses against the stress that results when lack of PE is experienced.

The lack of generalizability is another limitation of the present study. That is, data were collected from a single-medium sized police force in southwestern Ontario. Would the results be the same if we sampled a large metropolitan force with thousands of personnel and a multitude of divisions and branches? Or, would the results still reflect the same relationships if a small force with less than 50 police officers was sampled?

Moreover the present results may reflect idiosyncratic characteristics of the force sampled. For example, social activists make up a very small proportion ($n=12$, 5%) of the present force sampled, so small in fact that it was inappropriate to include them in the analyses. Perhaps the percentage of Social Activists is not typical for police organizations. However, the proportion of social activists found in the present study was consistent with the proportion of social activists reported by Burke et al. In their study, out of the 291 officers who reported their initial career orientations, 44 (15%) were

social activists. In addition, out of the 96 officers who reported their career orientation at the time of the study, only 8 (8.3%) were social activists. Thus, the proportion of the career orientations found on Windsor Police Force may be representative of other police forces in Ontario or Canada.

The finding that there appears to be relatively few social activists in policing leads one to question whether the police environment provides a good fit for the social activist career orientation. If it does not, three hypotheses come to mind. First, social activists may change their orientation to one of the other career orientations in an attempt to achieve PE fit. Second, social activists might leave policing soon after joining in an effort to escape the discomfort that is assumed to accompany lack of PE fit. Third, policing may not be an attractive career choice for social activists, thus few join in the first place. There is some support for these hypotheses in the low satisfaction scores of the social activists in Patrol. Of the 12 social activists in the original sample, three were in Patrol. The mean satisfaction scores of these officers were: MSQ-S, \bar{M} = 55.3; MSQ-I, \bar{M} = 37.0; and MSQ-E, \bar{M} = 12.3. Although these scores were not analyzed, they are substantially lower than the mean satisfaction scores of the lowest career orientation in Patrol, the self-investors (MSQ-S \bar{M} = 62.4, MSQ-I \bar{M} = 41.7, and MSQ-E \bar{M} = 14.6). Albeit tenuous, this general indication is supported by evidence reported by Cherniss (1980) and Burke et al. (1984). That is, social activists were the least satisfied group and reported the highest incidence of symptoms of burnout

in both studies. Future research is needed to identify what it is about patrol work, perhaps policework in general, that is dissatisfying to social activists. If policing is truly inhospitable to idealists such as social activists, then perhaps police forces should be attempting to identify this type of individual prior to hiring. This may permit the force to screen out this type of applicant or to initiate steps that will assist social activists to reshape their ideals to match the realities of policing.

Conclusions

As a result of the present research, what can be said about the relationship between career orientations among the police and job satisfaction that adds to or supports previous research?

1. In a sample of 226 police men and women drawn from three police assignment categories (i.e., Patrol, Investigation, Supervision/Administration) that represented approximately 70% of a single police force and were categorized according to three career orientations (i.e., Careerist, Artisan, and Self-Investor), the pattern of job satisfaction scores of the career orientations did not differ among the assignment categories.

2. Careerists, regardless of their assignment category, had the highest level of overall job satisfaction, followed by artisans, with self-investors reporting the lowest level. 3. Further, careerists, regardless of their assignment category, reported the highest level of intrinsic job satisfaction.

4. Officers in Investigation and Supervision/Administration reported more overall and extrinsic satisfaction than officers in

the Patrol assignment category.

5. As police officers, regardless of their career orientation or assignment category, perceive an increase in the lack of PE fit between themselves and their work environments, their overall job satisfaction diminishes.

Based on the present results, the following hypotheses can be made about the relationship between job satisfaction and career orientation in a police work environment:

1. There is evidence to suggest that the Investigation assignment category possesses environmental characteristics that act to enhance the satisfaction of self-investors working in that assignment category relative to the satisfaction of self-investors in Patrol and Supervision/Administration assignment category.

2. Based on the finding that the job satisfaction scores of the police men and women in this sample paralleled the degree to which they see their work environment providing them with organizational rewards (e.g., recognition and promotion), a primary determinant of police job satisfaction might be the extent to which officers perceive that an adequate amount and appropriate type of organizational rewards are attainable.

3. There is evidence to suggest that the police work environment, in all assignment categories, may be aversive to persons having a social activist career orientation.

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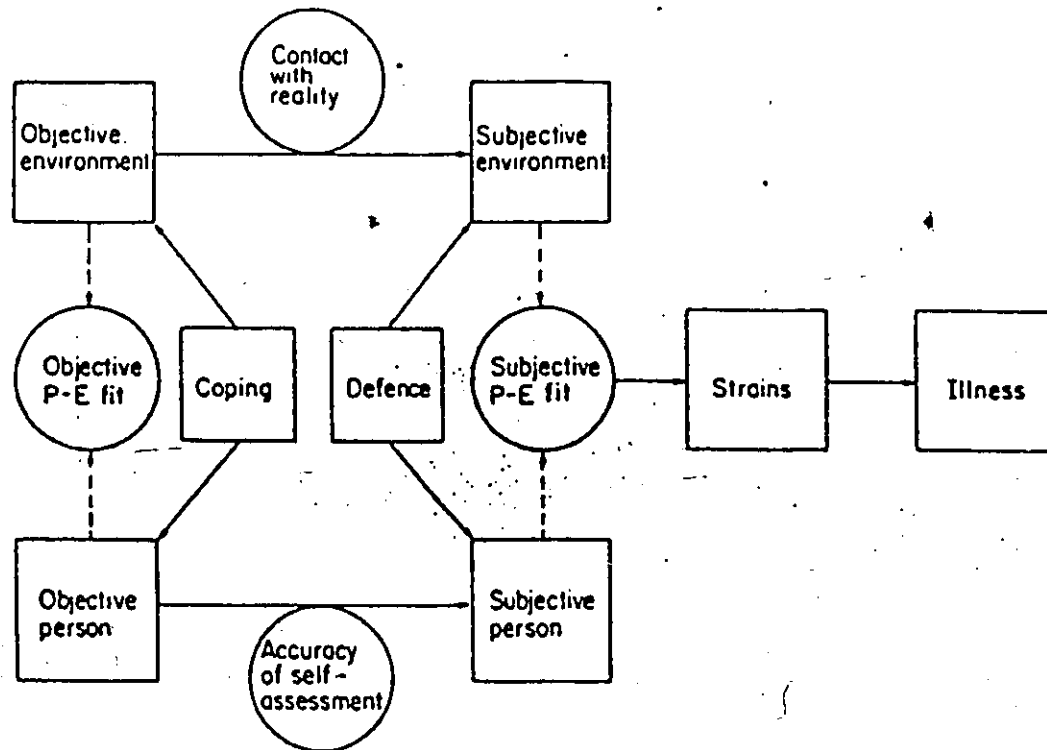
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APPENDIX A
MODEL OF FRENCH'S THEORY

A Model of French's Theory



A model describing the effects of psychosocial stress in terms of fit between the person and the environment. Concepts within circles are discrepancies between the two adjoining concepts. Solid lines indicate causal effects. Broken lines indicate contributions to interaction effects

From "Person-Environment Fit and Job Satisfaction" by R. Van Harrison. In C.L. Cooper and L. Paayne (Eds.), Stress at Work. New York: Wiley, p. 176.

APPENDIX B

CAREER ORIENTATION MEASURE: MALE

Career Orientation Measure: Male

The following paragraphs briefly describe four different police officers. Please read each paragraph. CIRCLE the number on the scale provided below each paragraph indicating HOW SIMILAR that description is to the way you see yourself now.

JOHN: John is more interested in his personal life outside his job than in his career in policework. His main source of pleasure comes from off-the-job interests, such as family and personal development. John is not particularly interested in career development or a demanding job.

very little like me 1-----2-----3-----4-----5 very much like me

BILL: Bill has a vision of an ideal society. He values the opportunity to contribute both to improving Canadian society and to positive changes in his profession through his efforts in policing. Personal status and job security are relatively unimportant to Bill. However; crusading for justice is important to him.

very little like me 1-----2-----3-----4-----5 very much like me

JACK: Jack is interested in recognition and advancement in his career. Prestige, respect, and financial security are important to him. He wants to make a good impression on other who might control the advancement of his career.

very little like me 1-----2-----3-----4-----5 very much like me

BOB: Bob values independence and freedom. He prefers jobs that provide challenges, new experiences, and the development of professional skills. Performing well according to his own internal standards is important to Bob. Career and financial success are less important to him.

very little like me 1-----2-----3-----4-----5 very much like me

In the event that you have rated two or more of the paragraphs as the highest, please go back and circle the NAME of the paragraph that MOST resembles you at present. I understand that this may be difficult to do, but it is important that you identify only one paragraph as being MOST similar to you at this time.

APPENDIX C

CAREER ORIENTATION MEASURE: FEMALE

APPENDIX D
OPTIMAL WORK SETTING MEASURE

APPENDIX E
MINNESOTA SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE - SHORT FORM (AMENDED)

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire - Short Form

The purpose of this questionnaire is to give you a chance to tell HOW YOU FEEL ABOUT YOUR PRESENT JOB, what things you are SATISFIED with and what things you are NOT SATISFIED with.

Below you will find statements about your PRESENT job.

Read each statement carefully. Decide HOW SATISFIED YOU FEEL ABOUT THE ASPECT OF YOUR JOB described in the statement.

Indicate your response by checking one of the boxes labelled "VERY SATISFIED", "SATISFIED", "NEUTRAL", "DISSATISFIED", or "VERY DISSATISFIED".

Do this for ALL statements. Please answer EVERY item.

ON MY PRESENT JOB, THIS IS HOW I FEEL ABOUT...	Very Dissat.	Dissat.	N.	Sat.	Very Sat.
1. Being able to keep busy all the time....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. The chance to work alone.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. The chance to do different things from time to time.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. The chance to be "somebody" in the community.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. The way my supervisor(s) handles his/her workers.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. The competence of my supervisor(s) in making decisions.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. The way my job provides for steady employment.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. The chance to do things for other people	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. The chance to tell people what to do....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. The way Force policies are put into practice.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	V.D.	D.	N.	S.	V.S.
13. My pay and the amount of work I do.....	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
14. The chance for advancement on this job..	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
15. The freedom to use my own judgment.....	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
16. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.....	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
17. The working conditions.....	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
18. The way my co-workers get along with each other.....	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
19. The praise I get for doing a good job...	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
20. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.....	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

Note. Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire modified for research purposes and reproduced by permission of Vocational Psychology Research, University of Minnesota, copyright 1977.

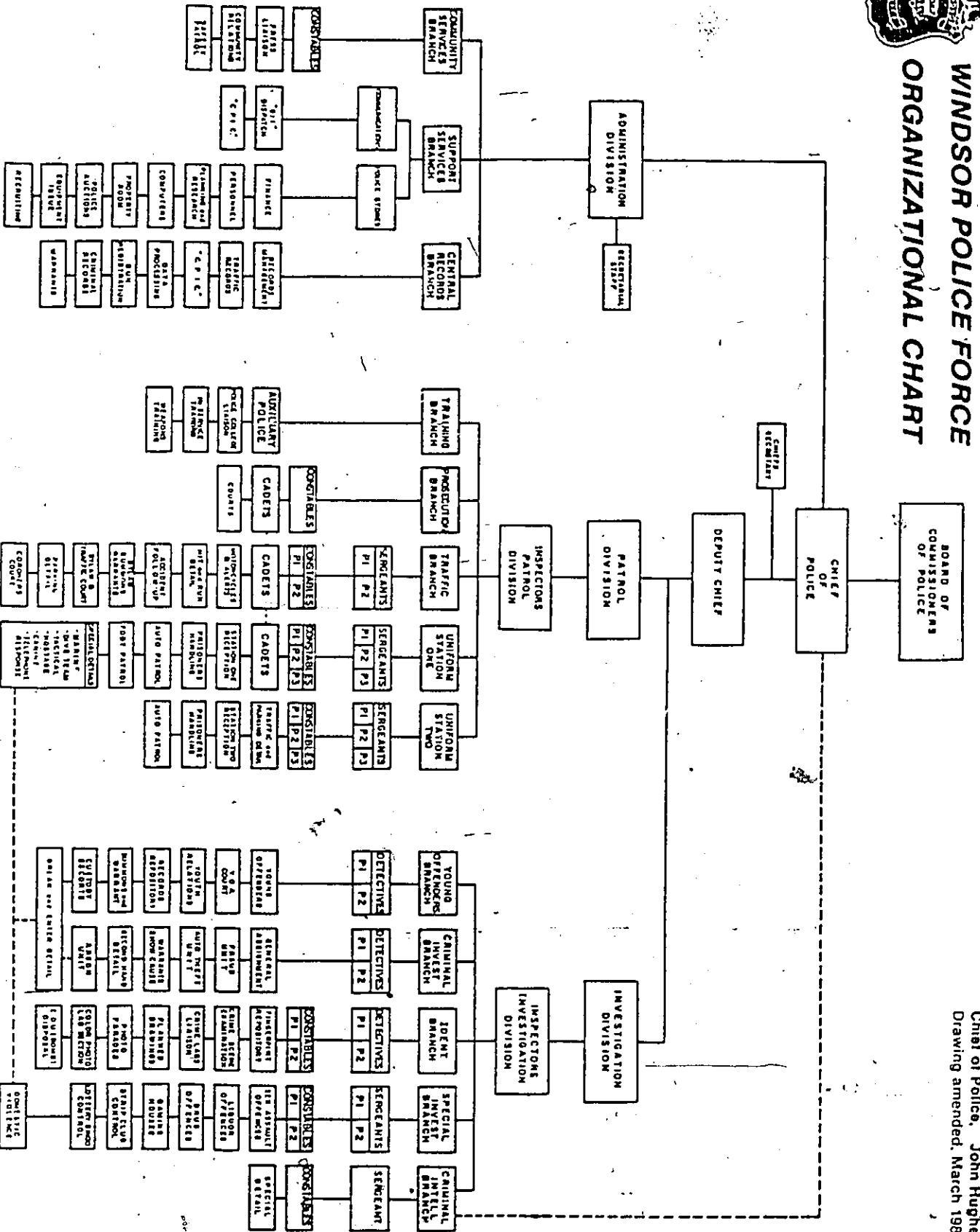
APPENDIX F
ORGANIZATIONAL CHART OF THE WINDSOR POLICE FORCE



WINDSOR POLICE FORCE ORGANIZATIONAL CHART

Chief of Police, John Hughes
Drawing amended, March 1986

Appendix F



APPENDIX G
DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLE FORM

Demographic Variable Form

Windsor Police Force

SEX.....Male
Female

AGE.....

Marital Status...Single
Married
Separated
Divorced
Widow(er)

EDUCATION..Some High School.....
High-School (12 or 13)...
Some College/University..
College Graduate.....
University Graduate.....
Graduate Degree.....

RANK....Cadet.....
4th Class P.C.
3rd Class P.C.
2nd Class P.C.
1st Class P.C.
Sergeant.....
Detective.....
Staff Sergeant..
Inspector.....
Staff Inspector

The number of years you have been in policework, including time spent with all other police Forces.years

The number of years you have spent with the W.P.F., including your cadet timeyears.

Your present assignment:

Patrol....General.....
Traffic.....
Investigation....Criminal (Fraud, B & E, etc.).....
Traffic.....
Support Services.(Crime Prevention, safety, etc.....
Administration.....

The length of time you have been in your present assignment:years.....months.

APPENDIX H

MINNESOTA SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE - LONG FORM SCALES

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire - Long Form Scales

1. Ability Utilization. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.
2. Achievement. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.
3. Activity. Being able to keep busy all of the time.
4. Advancement. The chances for advancement on this job.
5. Authority. The chance to tell other people what to do.
6. Company policies and practices. The way company (departmental) policies are put into practice.
7. Compensation. My pay and the amount of work I do.
8. Co-workers. The way my co-workers get along with each other.
9. Creativity. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.
10. Independence. The chance to work alone on the job.
11. Moral values. Being able to do the things that don't go against my conscience.
12. Recognition. The praise I get for doing a good job.
13. Responsibility. The freedom to use my own judgment.
14. Security. The way my job provides for steady employment.
15. Social Services. The chance to do things for other people.
16. Social status. The chance to be "somebody" in the community.
17. Supervision - human relations. The way my boss handles his men.
18. Supervision - technical. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.
19. Variety. The chance to do different things from time to time.
20. Working conditions. Conditions in work place, heat, humidity, danger, etc.

APPENDIX J
CORRELATION MATRIX OF ALL MEASURED VARIABLES

Pearson Correlation Coefficients Between all Measured Variables

	MSG-I	MSG-E	Age	Orgten	Assten	SIS	SAS	CS	AS	SI	SA	CO	AO	WSM
MSG-S	.933****	.878****	.101	.041	-.393****	.202***	.385****	.568****	.504****	-.287***	.009	.280***	.004	.600****
MSG-I		.669****	.137*	.080	-.344****	.203***	.384****	.518****	.470****	-.278***	.044	.245***	.014	.570****
MSG-E			.075	.021	-.372****	.146*	.329****	.536****	.423****	-.246***	.019	.268***	.020	.526****
Age				.930****	.263***	.292****	.085	.136*	-.073	.056	.053	-.122	-.040	.102
Organizational Tenure					.267****	.277****	.102	.105	-.062	.055	.063	-.154	-.067	.159*
Assignment Tenure						.032	-.136	-.224****	-.272	.326****	.001	-.209****	-.031	-.215****
Self-Investor Setting							.198**	.195**	.093	.139*	.081	.128*	-.011	.563****
Social Activist Setting								.414****	.392****	-.078	.267***	.188**	.029*	.707****
Careerist Setting									.502****	-.210****	.160**	.386****	-.076	.767****
Artisan Setting										-.169**	.132*	.290***	.108	.716****
Self-Investor Orientation											.071	-.261****	.050	-.112
Social Activist Orientation												.125*	.280**	.228***
Careerist Orientation													-.155**	.261****
Artisan Orientation														.016
Work Setting Mean														

* p<.05 ** p<.01 ***p<.001 ****p<.0001

+ Note. WSM = Work Setting Mean (SIS + SAS + CS + AS/4)

VITA AUCTORIS

- 1949 Born in Owen Sound, Ontario to Doris and Perry Hoath.
- 1963-68 Educated at Hillcrest Elementary School and West Hill Secondary School Owen Sound, Ontario.
- 1979 Graduated with a Certificate in Criminology, University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario.
- 1986 Graduated with Distinction with an Honours Bachelor of Arts degree (Major in Psychology), York University, Toronto, Ontario.