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Examining the Antecedents and Consequences of Empowerment in a Traditional Police Agency.

For the degree of Master of Science

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EXAMINING THE ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF  
EMPOWERMENT IN A TRADITIONAL POLICE AGENCY

A Thesis

Submitted to the Faculty

of

Purdue University

by

Bruce A. Biggs

In Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree

of

Master of Science

May 2011

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To my wife Amy and the other remarkable people I am fortunate to call family.  
Also, to all the courageous men and women who incorporate the thin blue line  
and their remarkable families.

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Also, I am very grateful to the Chief Executive Officer of the focus agency for permitting and supporting this study, and to the officers who participated. This research would not have been possible without the assistance of these fine professionals.

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## ABSTRACT

Biggs, Bruce A. M.S., Purdue University, May 2011. Examining the Antecedents and Consequences of Empowerment in a Traditional Police Agency. Major Professor: Linda L. Naimi.

This study examined the effects that the traditional police organizational and management paradigm exert on police officer job satisfaction and job stress through the lenses of structural and psychological empowerment. The extant literature empirically establishes that the current police paradigm is ineffective in sustaining community oriented policing, exerts a negative influence on officer job satisfaction, and increases officer job stress. However, the specific organizational factors that wield these deleterious effects remain largely undefined, and thus unaltered. The theoretical constructs of structural and psychological empowerment have been successfully employed in private entities to investigate the relationship between the organizational environment and employee affective attitudes. While these constructs had yet to be tested and measured in a law enforcement context, a sound theoretical foundation existed to make this utility practicable.

This study theorized that officer perception of structural empowerment (independent variables) was predictive of officer perception of psychological empowerment (mediating variables), which in turn, were predictive of officer perceptions of job satisfaction and job stress. These postulated relationships were incorporated into a hypothesized model which

was tested via Structural Equation Modeling (AMOS) analysis and standard multiple regression analysis. The AMOS results indicated that the data was a good fit to the hypothesized model ( $\chi^2 = 153$ ,  $df = 141$ ,  $p = .216$ ,  $CFI = .972$ ,  $RMSEA = .041$ ,  $PCLOSE = .620$ ) and that all modeled relationships were significant at  $p = .05$ . Also, subsequent regression analysis revealed that all the variable relationships were significant at  $p = .05$ . The findings indicate that officer perception of having access to empowering structures within the organization are positively correlated with job satisfaction and negatively correlated with job stress. As such, an initial empirical foundation was established that suggests that police leaders can influence officer affective attitudes by providing officers with optimal access to empowering mechanisms with the organization.

## CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

In recent years there has been considerable academic and practitioner interest in the subject of employee empowerment (Carless, 2004; Laschinger & Finegan, 2005; Liden & Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000; Spreitzer, 1995, 1996; Shadur, Kienzle, & Rodwell, 1999 ). Workplace empowerment is generally defined as a motivational vehicle through which employees are able to influence their work roles and work context (Spreitzer 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Empowerment strategies essentially constitute a general paradigm shift from traditional scientific management practices to more democratic management practices which grant increased control to employees ( Drucker, 2002; Sparks, Faragher, & Cooper, 2000; Landry, Mahesh, & Hartman, 2005). This shift was not necessarily motivated by a systemic change in managerial philosophy which desired to create a more benevolent and democratic work environment, rather, the shift was precipitated by the ever expanding market competition of a global economy (Sparks et al.). The intense competition in this world context is further exacerbated by the constant influx of advanced production and information technologies which facilitate the rapidity and efficiency of all aspects of the business process. (Landry et al.).

Empowerment has become an important management construct that offers the potential to produce positive outcomes that benefit both organizations and individuals (Leana & Florkowski, 1992; Liden & Tewksbury,1995). Specifically, research of employee empowerment in the private sector has found that such initiatives result in

organizations benefiting from increased employee commitment (McDermott, Laschinger, & Shamian, 1996), increased innovation (Spreitzer, DeJanasz, & Quinn, 1999), and reduced employee turnover and absenteeism (Foster-Fisherman & Keys, 1997).

In addition, study results indicate that individual employees benefit from empowering initiatives through increased job satisfaction (Laschinger, Finegan, Shaiman & Wilkes, 2004; Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997; Thomas & Tymon, 1994) and reduced job stress (Butts, Vandenburg, DeJoy, Schaffer, & Wilson, 2009; Sarimento, Laschinger, & Iwasiw, 2003; Spreitzer et al.).

Some public sector organizations have also enacted employee empowering strategies in an effort to transform inefficient and ineffective bureaucracies (Moynihan, 2006), into more productive organizations (Brudney, Hebert, & Wright, 1999). Research of empowerment in the public domain indicates that the derived organizational and individual benefits mirror those of the private domain (Carless, 2004; Tesluk, Vance, & Mathieu, 1999; Steinhieder & Wuestewald, 2008).

Yet, work place empowerment has received very little attention from the law enforcement profession (Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008). Currently, the prevailing and traditional managerial structure of law enforcement agencies is that of a paramilitary authoritarian hierarchy, where power is concentrated at the top level of the organization (King, 2003; Reiter, 1999). As such, decision-making authority is predominately reserved only to those senior leaders who occupy this level. This organizational schema has been in operation for over 100 years, and many scholars (King, 2003), including some practitioners (Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008), contend that this schema has become archaic and is not conducive to the demands of contemporary policing. A growing body

of literature indicates that the traditional police management environment does not provide the necessary amount of officer empowerment and support to effectively facilitate or sustain the evolution of police service delivery from traditional reactive response to proactive community oriented policing (Adams, Rowe, & Arcury, 2002; Giacomazzi, Riley, & Merz, 2004; Lord, 1996; Rosenberg, Sigler, & Lewis, 2008). Study findings also indicate that the current non-participative authoritarian police paradigm is not conducive to officer job satisfaction (Carlan, 2007; Zhoa, Thurman, & He, 1999) and increases officer stress (Slate, Johnson, & Colbert, 2007; Stinchcomb, 2004; Zhoa, He, & Lovrich, 2002).

It appears that a correlation exists between empowerment theory and the internal mechanics and effects of the traditional police organizational paradigm. However, very little scholarly attention has been given to this possible relationship (Slate et al., 2007; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008). As such, it is necessary and viable that the reported deficiencies of the current police management paradigm be further investigated by determining the degree to which empowering mechanisms, as theorized by Kanter (1977, 1993) and Lawler (1986, 1992, 1996) innately exist within police organizations. Both scholars contend, with subtle but important differences, that employee empowerment occurs only when specific enabling structures are present in the organization.

### 1.1 Statement of the Problem

There is empirical indication that the existing police autocratic hierarchical paradigm is an impediment to the movement toward community oriented policing and also negatively affects officer job satisfaction and psychological wellness. The police

agency of focus in this study is traditionally managed and is in the process of implementing community oriented policing. It seems improbable, based on the extant literature, that this agency will successfully sustain the community oriented policing initiative without first assessing the existence and degree of the requisite mechanisms of support and empowerment internal to the organization. The failure of the community policing strategy would not reflect well on the agency, and the community it serves would be denied the benefit of this police service enhancement. In addition, it is possible, as is consistent with the literature, that the officers of this agency are also experiencing low job satisfaction and high levels of job related stress due to the internal work environment created by the existing paradigm. It is axiomatic that negative officer attitudes are a deterrent to providing effective police service and severely compromise the police-citizen relationship. Thus, the need exists to also investigate officer perception of these consequential traits in an attempt to identify any internal causes, and if identified, to take the appropriate corrective action.

## 1.2 Significance of the Problem

There are several significant problems that motivate this study. First, there exists a general void of scholarship concerning the organizational domain of policing due to the predominant research focus of police science being on the detection, suppression, and reduction of crime (Crank, 2003). In addition, some researchers observe many police focused study methodologies simply assume that the traditional paradigm in general inhibits officer development and impedes community policing, thus specific internal factors related to these negative results remain unidentified (Hart & Cotton, 2002; King,



2003; Zhoa et al., 2002). The situation is further confounded by the observations of Adler and Borys (1996) who contend that there are two types of bureaucracy: coercive and enabling. A coercive bureaucratic climate enacts procedures which stifle creativity, as opposed to an enabling bureaucratic environment which creates rules to guide activities and clarify roles. It would be imprudent and arbitrary to assume that all police agencies are, albeit to some degree bureaucratic, innately coercive. Yet, no published methodology exists that can be applied to empirically determine if a given law enforcement agency is a coercive or enabling entity.

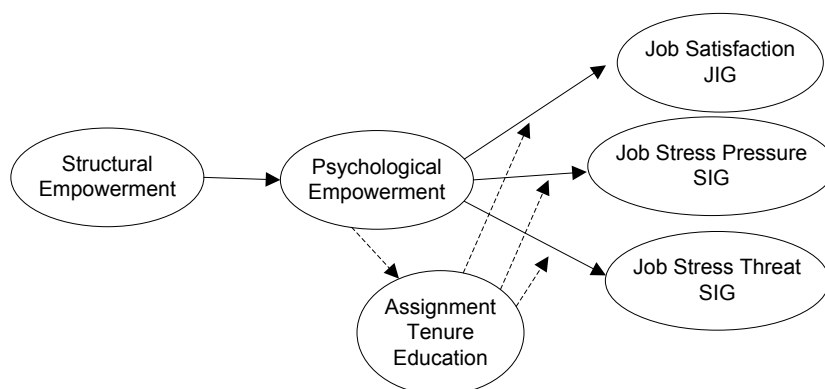
Also, little scholarly attention has been given to the study of empowerment or participative strategies in a policing context, including even an antecedent approach (Slate et al., 2007; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008). This void of research became evident during the literature review for this project as only one published study was located (Winegar, 2003) that specifically measured organizational factors and perception of empowerment in a law enforcement context. Thus, there is insufficient knowledge available to the administrators of the study agency, and police leaders in general, with which they can make informed decisions about what to specifically change in their organizations to improve officer wellness and support community oriented policing. Given the current state of knowledge, progressively minded police leaders would be attempting to take corrective action without knowing what specifically is wrong, which is the equivalent of bailing out a ship without plugging the leaks.

Further, organizational researchers exclusive from the policing domain observe that additional study of the antecedents and consequences of work place empowerment is needed (Carless, 2004). Laschinger et al. (2004) contend that Kanter's (1977, 1993) theory of structural empowerment is applicable to a variety of work contexts, yet thus far research of this construct has been exclusive to the field of nursing. Likewise, Butts et al. (2009) observe that research of Lawler's (1986, 1992, 1996) High Involvement Work Process theory and how these practices affect employee outcomes is still in the "embryonic" stage (p.134).

### 1.3 Statement of the Purpose

This exploratory, cross-sectional and quantitative study seeks to increase the body of knowledge in the police management domain by elucidating the degree to which specific empowering structures (independent variables) innately exist in a traditionally managed medium sized police agency. This was done by testing a hypothesized model very similar to those that have been found reliable in like research in the private sector, but had yet to be tested in the law enforcement domain. Specifically, empowering structures were measured with a previously untested survey instrument, the Police Officer Survey of Structural Empowerment (POSSE), which was designed by the researcher for a police context and that is comprised of items that are a combination of the organizational empowerment constructs theorized by Kanter (1977, 1993) and Lawler (1986, 1992, 1996). Also, this study measured the impact that the existence or non-existence of these structures imposes upon first line officer perceptions of psychological empowerment (mediating variable), job satisfaction (dependent variable), and job stress (dependent

variable). Further, this research measured what impact that the demographic (categorical) variables of officer length of service, level of education and type of assignment exert on the described relationships. In addition, this study produced applied research value as it tested a methodology that identifies the strength or weakness of the empowering structures existing within the agency studied. The manifest state of these structures could then be assessed, and potentially altered, by the agency's leadership to both facilitate and sustain community policing, and better ensure officer wellness.



*Figure 1. Hypothesized Model*

#### 1.4 Research Questions

1. What levels of job satisfaction and job stress are the officers of the study agency experiencing?
2. Does a statistically significant relationship exist between structural empowerment and psychological empowerment?
3. Does a statistically significant relationship exist between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction?

4. Does a statistically significant relationship exist between psychological empowerment and job stress?
5. Do the categorical variables of officer length of service, level of education and type of assignment influence the relationships described in research questions 1 through 4?
6. Assuming that statistical significance is achieved for questions 1 through 5, which of the empowerment components account for the largest variance in the dependent variables?

### 1.5 Definitions

Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS): The structural equation modeling program included in the PASW Statistical Grad Pack 18.

Community Oriented Policing (COP): A law enforcement service delivery strategy predicated on the police forming a partnership with citizens in the community and allowing them to assist with the policing process in order to prevent crime and solve social problems through a decentralized and personalized approach.

Command Officer: A sworn member of the study agency whose rank is either Sergeant (First Line Supervisor), Lieutenant (Mid-Level Supervisor), Captain (Division Commander, Administrative Supervisor), Deputy Chief or Chief (Executive Administrators), who possess command authority over and responsibility for the work activities of subordinate officers.

Comparative Fit Index (CFI): A relative fit index in the AMOS output. Values for the CFI are derived from a comparison of the hypothesized model with the null model, and range from 0 to 1.00, with a value close to .95 indicating a well-fitting model (Byrne, 2010).

First Line Officer: A sworn member of the study agency, with either the rank of Police Officer First Class or Detective, who has no formal supervisory authority and who is the direct provider of police service to the public.

Job Satisfaction: An affective attitude about how an employee feels about their job (Spector, 1997).

Job Stress: An affective attitude of psychological discomfort or anxiety experienced by an employee when occupational demands exceed the employee's ability to meet those demands (Stinchcomb, 2004).

Maximum Likelihood (ML): The statistical estimate used in this study for the analyses of the AMOS models. ML is based in the calculation of the likelihood function, which determines the probability of obtaining the current data as a function of the parameters of the model (Blunch, 2008).

Predictive Analyzing Software (PASW): The computer software program used in this study to analyze the sample data and formerly named SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences).

Principle Component Analysis (PCA): A process through which a set of manifest variables are transformed into new and fewer uncorrelated variables, each representing a dimension in the data (Blunch).

Psychological Empowerment (PE): A set of cognitions and perceptions that an individual has toward their work role. The cognitions are: Meaning, Self-Determination, Impact and Competency (Spreitzer, 1995).

Root Mean Square of Approximation (RMSEA): A relative fit index in the AMOS program that accounts for the error of approximation in the sample population (Byrne). Values of .05 or less are indicative of good fit between the data and the model (Byrne).

Special Unit: Groups of officers in the study agency who are assigned to highly specialized enforcement tasks on a full-time basis. These groups operate outside of the primary service delivery mode of uniformed patrol response.

Structural Empowerment (SE): The presence of tangible mechanisms in the work organization that are accessible to the employee and through which they perceive psychological empowerment. These mechanisms are: Power, Resources, Support, Knowledge, Reward and Information.

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM): A statistical methodology that uses a confirmatory approach, through hypothesis testing, to analyze structural theories thought to be related to some phenomenon (Byrne).

## 1.6 Assumptions

There are significant assumptions incorporated into this study. First, it was assumed that the research methodology, proven to valid in the private sector by Butts et al. (2009) and Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian, & Wilk (2001), is applicable to a law enforcement context. Evidence of this utility is offered by Galbraith (1973) who posits

that the high involvement work process components of power, information, reward, and knowledge are found in all organizations, but tend to be concentrated at the upper management level. This assertion is buttressed by Laschinger et al. (2004), who contend that the presence and development of the components of organizational empowerment, which has been exclusively studied in the nursing profession, would improve all organizations. In addition, Bakker and Heuven (2006) submit that the occupations of nursing and policing share two main characteristics; exposure to emotionally demanding and stressful interpersonal human interactions, and, the need to regulate feelings and expressions as part of the work role. Thus, the inherent similarities between the professions generated the assumption that a research design proven valid in a nursing context (Laschinger et al.) may be valid in the context of law enforcement. Further, Winegar (2003) has demonstrated the utility of employing the psychological empowerment construct in policing. As such, it was assumed that police officers desire to be optimally empowered, and, perceive empowering structures and form attitudinal dispositions as a result of these perceptions as is consistent with the psychological schema empirically demonstrated by employees in other fields (Butts et al. 2009, Laschinger et al., 2004).

### 1.7 Delimitations

Boundaries were imposed upon this study to better ensure that parsimony was achieved in the research design. First, the sample group of this study was comprised of only first line police officers and investigators. As such, probationary officers and command officers were deliberately omitted from the sample frame. This was necessary

as probationary officers are “at will” employees, and it was deemed unethical to include this atypically vulnerable group in the sample. Also, probationary officers typically have less than one year of law enforcement experience, and thus have not gained ample exposure to the mechanics of policing or to the functions of the agency to render fully informed opinions about their work role separate from the hiring and training processes, which are beyond the scope of this study.

Data was not gathered from command officers to preserve respondent confidentiality. The research design included securing data from personnel assigned to specialty units, and due to the relatively small size of these units, the identity and rank of these supervisory personnel could be readily deduced. Thus, the researcher was concerned that compromised anonymity would likely result in highly biased responses or in a significant reduction in returned surveys.

Next, data was not gathered that is specific to the officer demographic characteristics of gender or race. The demographic composition of the study agency is typical of American law enforcement organizations as it is primarily male and Caucasian. As a result, the sample size of female officers (minus probationary officers) would be 3 and the sample size of officers who self-identify as minorities would be 5. The size of these samples would not be conducive to quantitative analysis.

Last, data was not gathered from officers concerning their perceptions of non-work related stress or satisfaction with life outside of the work environment. Also, data was not gathered regarding stressors or job dissatisfaction with work factors external to the organization (operational stressors). It was believed that the potential validity and

narrow scope of the survey instruments would be sufficient to garner responses from officers that are specific to their perceptions of the internal organizational environment.

### 1.8 Limitations

The design of this study and the specific characteristics of the study agency inherently create research limitations. The most salient limitation is the impossibility of this cross-sectional exploratory study to establish causal relationships between the variables. Also, because officers from only one police department are sampled, the study results may not be readily generalizable to all police forces, especially to those agencies that are significantly larger or smaller in size than the study agency. Nevertheless, the perceptions held by the officers in the study agency may not be particularly different from those officers employed in departments of similar size.

An additional limitation is response bias. The sample group officers were asked to respond to sensitive questions, particularly the items in the job stress instrument. As such, the bias of social desirability may have emerged. It is believed that this bias was mitigated by ensuring the anonymity of the respondents which was emphasized in the method of the data collection.

Last, this study is limited in controlling extraneous variables that emerged during the life, albeit short, of the research. For example, it was recently disseminated by the upper leadership of the focus agency that officer salaries would be indefinitely frozen at the 2010 level. Also, it has been confirmed that health insurance costs will increase in the following year, with expected yearly increases into the foreseeable future.



Factors such as these have some inherent degree of negative influence on officer job satisfaction and a degree of influence in an increase of officer job stress, and thus may confound the study results. It is believed that the effects of such influences were mitigated by focusing on officer perception of intrinsic rather than extrinsic rewards.

## CHAPTER 2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

### 2.1 Methodology of the Review

Information for this study was gathered through keyword searches from academic and peer reviewed professional (police science) journal articles and doctoral dissertations on the Google Scholar, ProQuest Research Library and PsychInfo databases provided through the Purdue University Libraries. The keywords utilized included direct or combination queries of: organizational empowerment, organizational structures, organizational change, empowerment theory, psychological empowerment, police management, police administration, police officer stress and police officer job satisfaction. Frequently, citations found in germane articles were used to locate and download additional sources through subsequent database searches or were acquired through Inter-Library Loan.

Also, only relevant studies of police organizations in Western Democracies are cited in this review. This research delimitation was employed to better control for the socio-political disparities of the police function across cultures.

In addition, books on the topics of employee empowerment, psychological empowerment, police administration and management, police officer stress and job satisfaction, and organizational culture were sought. A number of books related to these topics were already owned by the researcher, and additional books were either borrowed or purchased. This review includes several references to these sources.

## 2.2 Literature Findings

Empowerment in the workplace has been a concept of focus by researchers and practitioners for the past four decades. This management philosophy is generally viewed as preferable over authoritarian and hierarchal management orientations. The literature is replete with positive results for both the organization and the individual employee when empowering initiatives are implemented and sustained. However, workplace empowerment remains enigmatic as it has yet to be defined as a unified construct due to the concept taking on different meanings that are contextually and temporally specific. Although organizational theorists tend to agree that workplace empowerment is more than simply allowing employees to participate in organizational decision-making, there remains a collective disparity as to the elements that constitute a comprehensive empowerment construct. Yet, two empowerment constructs are salient in the literature; the structural and psychological theories of empowerment.

Essentially, structural empowerment theorists advocate that true empowerment only occurs when tangible mechanisms, or structures, are present in the organization that enable employee efficacy through the acquisition of power, support, reward, knowledge, information, and resources. In comparison, psychological empowerment is a set of cognitions: meaning, impact, self-determination, and competency, which an employee must perceive in order to feel empowered in their work role.

Several researchers contend that structural and psychological empowerment compliments each other. In fact, some studies have shown that psychological empowerment is an affective consequence of structural empowerment. Research findings also reveal that employees who perceive both empowering dimensions report increased

job satisfaction and reduced job stress. In addition, these positive affective outcomes occur in conjunction with positive organizational outcomes, including increased productivity, reduced employee turn over, and reduced employee absenteeism.

The police management and organizational literature reflects a growing consensus that the current paramilitary paradigm has become ineffective in facilitating the contemporary police mission. Further, there is an abundance of empirical evidence indicating that the primary work stressors of police officers are generated by job context, rather than job content, which reduce officer job satisfaction and increase officer stress. Several theorists believe that altering the bureaucratic reference and autocratic management philosophy of the traditional police organization to more participative practices would facilitate the evolving police mission and improve officer attitudes. Those who advocate for changes in the traditional police paradigm are essentially advocating for the practical application of empowerment theory.

### 2.3 Empowerment Theory

Empowerment theory originates in the behavioral school of management and is regarded as a preferable alternative management paradigm to the bureaucratic practices of scientific management (Wilkinson, 1997). A comprehensive longitudinal study of empowerment oriented practices by Lawler, Mohrman, and Benson (2001) empirically demonstrated the positive growth of empowerment initiatives in a variety of organizations during the preceding 15 years. Organizational theorists such as Hyman and Mason (1985) and Walton (1985) contend that the empowerment paradigm urges organizations to move away from a management philosophy based on compliance,

hierarchical authority and limited employee autonomy to one that emphasizes relations of trust, increased employee autonomy, and utilization of worker expertise. Watson (1995) posits that empowerment theory also reflects the work of humanist psychologists, such as Maslow and his model of the hierarchy of needs, and Herzberg's motivational-hygiene theory. Wilkinson (1997) believes that workplace empowerment acts as a mechanism through which the human growth needs of self-actualization and fulfillment are realized, which in turn, increases individual motivation and performance.

Workplace empowerment has been defined by many terms, including participative management, an engaged workforce, work place democracy, and shared leadership. Multiple definitions of empowerment have emerged due to the concept having a myriad of meanings determined by a myriad of work settings (Bartunek & Spreitzer, 1999; Prasad & Eylon, 2001; Zimmerman & Rapport, 1988). Spreitzer and Doneson (2005) report that more than 70 percent of the organizations they studied have adapted some type of empowerment initiative for some portion of their workforce. Thus, the meaning of empowerment is created and altered by the specific contextual factors of each practicing organization.

A basic definition of workplace empowerment is offered by Wilkinson (1997), who believes that this concept is simply the redistribution of power within the organization. The spirit of Wilkinson's definition is applicable to this study as it seeks to empirically examine how power is innately distributed in a traditional police organization, thus determining the current level of first line officer empowerment. It is theorized that this level of empowerment is encapsulated within internal structural mechanisms that are predictive of the state of officer affective attitudes.

As empowerment does not exist as a single unified construct, it can encompass a wide variety of implementation schemas, including initiating organically oriented changes to enhance employee attitudes or facilitation through mechanistically oriented structural changes (Wilkinson, 1997). However, management scholars and practitioners have primarily employed two different but related approaches to understanding empowerment; the structural perspective and the psychological perspective (Spreitzer & Doneson, 2005).

### 2.3.1 Structural Empowerment

The structural perspective of empowerment is rooted in the socio-political concepts of democracy (Spreitzer & Doneson ,2005), from which are derived the workplace theories and practices of participative management and employee involvement (Lawler, 1986; Wilkinson, 1997). Conger and Kanungo (1988) contend that structural empowerment is founded on power being shared throughout an organization, with power being conceptualized as having formal authority or control over organizational resources. Bowen and Lawler (1995) believe that the structural perspective emphasizes the importance of changing organizational policies, practices and structures away from top-down control systems toward high involvement practices.

Specifically, Lawler ( 1986, 1992, 1996) and Bowen and Lawler (1995) posit that effective high employee involvement occurs when organizational practices distribute power, information, knowledge and rewards throughout the organization, and the more access employees have to these structures, the more they are empowered. These researchers contend that the four empowering elements are interdependent and that they

must be changed concurrently to achieve positive results. For example, if an organization increases the flow of information to employees, but does not provide employees with increased power, knowledge (training), or rewards, systemic employee empowerment will not be realized. Lawler has conceptually defined the elements of employee involvement as:

**Power:** This element refers to giving employees greater decision-making authority, which is synonymous with participative management. Lawler contends that increased employee power will lead to increased job satisfaction, better collective decisions, and improved organizational coordination and communication.

**Information:** This component refers to sharing information with all employees regarding the plans, goals and performance of the organization, which is a necessary foundation to achieving higher levels of employee power. Also, Lawler believes that the full dissemination and disclosure of information enhances organizational communication, which generates quality employee input.

**Rewards:** The element of reward is based on providing employees with intrinsic and extrinsic incentives in order to produce attitudes and actions that are beneficial to both the organization and the individual. Lawler believes it imperative that rewards are tied to and promptly follow performance in order for employees to be motivated to improve the work process.

**Knowledge:** This component focuses on developing employee work skills so they can more effectively perform their jobs, which increases the amount and quality of productivity. It is axiomatic that under- developed employee job skills greatly minimizes the likelihood of meeting organizational performance standards.

Several studies have found that high involvement employee practices at both the organizational and individual levels have resulted in positive effects on organizational outcomes (Ciavarella, 2003; Shadur et al., 1999; Vandenberg, Richardson, & Eastman, 1999). In addition, research by Arthur (1992), Butts et al. (2009), and Spreitzer and Mishra (1999) indicates that employee involvement initiatives are significant predictors of positive individual outcomes including increased job satisfaction, reduced job stress, greater organizational commitment, and reduced turnover intentions.

A similar but separate construct from the structural perspective of empowerment is Kanter's (1977, 1993) theory of organizational empowerment. Kanter believes that structural factors in the organization have a stronger influence on employee attitudes and behavior than do personal predispositions, thus when the work environment is structured so that employees feel empowered they have the ability to meet challenges presented in their organizations. According to Kanter, formal and informal power are the primary structural determinants that affect organizational behaviors and attitudes, and both are obtained by employees through access to support, information, resources, and opportunities within the work setting. This researcher further defines these empowering constructs as:

**Power:** Formal power is generated from workplace positions that are visible and essential to organizational goals. Informal power stems from vertical and lateral employee relationships and alliances in the organization that facilitate achieving work objectives.



**Information:** This structure is based in employees having the expertise and technical knowledge to effectively function in their position. Information also refers to employees having knowledge of organizational decisions, policies, and objectives that provides them with a sense of meaning through which they can contribute to organizational goals.

**Support:** Access to support refers to the employee receiving feedback and guidance from superiors, peers, and subordinates. Support also encompasses emotional encouragement, advice, and physical work assistance that others can provide.

**Resources:** This structure refers to employees having the ability to access the materials and equipment necessary to accomplished work objectives. Also, employees must have the resource of time in order to complete work tasks.

**Opportunity:** Access to opportunity refers to employees having prospects for organizational growth and mobility. This structure also includes individual autonomy, and the possibilities to learn and develop new job skills.

Kanter (1977, 1993) believes that employees who have access to empowering structures are highly motivated and are able to empower and motivate others. Conversely, individuals without access to empowering structures perceive themselves to be powerless and become more rule bound and less committed to organizational goals (Kanter).

A body of research has established correlations between organizational empowerment and significant increases in job satisfaction (Laschinger et al., 2001, 2004) and significantly decreased levels of job stress (Laschinger & Havens, 1996; Lashinger et al., 2001). In addition, Kanter's (1977, 1993) construct has been found to be predictive of

employee commitment (McDermott et al., 1996), work effectiveness (Laschinger & Wong, 1999), and organizational trust and respect (Laschinger & Finegan, 2005).

While the structural approach to empowerment has been successfully employed as a research construct, some organizational theorists believe this perspective to be limited as it does not examine the nature of empowerment as perceived by employees (Spreitzer & Doneson, 2005). Laschinger et al. (2004) support this assertion and submits that Kanter's (1977, 1993) theory focuses on employee's perception of the actual work conditions in the organization, and not on how they psychologically interpret the work environment. In accessing Lawler's (1992, 1996) employee involvement theory, Spreitzer and Doneson (2005) argue that in some work situations power, knowledge, information and rewards had been shared with employees, yet they did not feel empowered. Conversely, in other work settings, employees had no access to objective empowering structures yet perceived they were empowered (Spreitzer & Doneson). These concerns have spawned the emergence of the psychological perspective of empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995, 1996; Spreitzer & Doneson).

### 2.3.2 Psychological Empowerment

Psychological empowerment is defined as a set of cognitions and perceptions that an individual has toward their work role (Spreitzer, 1992; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990), and is rooted in theories of job characteristics and job enrichment (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Lawler, 1992). Bandura (1977) initially established the basis for psychological empowerment with the development of social-cognitive theory, which proposes that learning is the acquisition of knowledge through the cognitive processing of information.

This theorist refers to the social construct as what individuals learn from being interactive in a society and described the cognitive construct as being the human thought process that influence individual motivations, attitudes and actions as a result of this interaction.

Using Bandura's model as a theoretical base, Conger and Kanungo (1988) assert that empowerment is not limited to structural interventions, but is also a process of enabling or enhancing employee efficacy. Building on this assertion, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) define empowerment as individual intrinsic task motivation comprised of four cognitions: meaning, competence, self-determination, and choice. Further, Thomas and Velthouse contend that these individual cognitions are influenced by the work environment.

Employing the Thomas and Velthouse (1990) model as a theoretical foundation, Spreitzer (1995, 1996) focuses on empowerment in a psychological context as being a composite of individual thoughts and perception that affect work behavior. Spreitzer believes that psychological empowerment is a cognitive state that employees must experience for empowerment interventions to be successful. In addition, Spreitzer et al. (1997) assert that a review of the literature reveals a consensus that empowerment has two empirically distinct constructs; structural and psychological, and that psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between structural empowerment and individual behavior. Further, Spreitzer (1995) asserts that when individuals perceive their work environment as "providing opportunities for, rather than constraints on, individual behavior, they feel empowered" (p. 607). These assertions are supported by Neilsen (1986) who contends that the structural context within the organization is not an adequate condition to change individual behavior and ultimately, a personal sense of empowerment

is necessary to produce behavioral outcomes. A number of studies have found an empirical distinction between structural and psychological empowerment, and that the former is influenced by the latter (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Lawler, Mohrman & Ledford, 1992; Spreitzer, 1996, Speitzer et al.).

Based on an extensive review of interdisciplinary literature on empowerment and multiple qualitative interviews, Spreitzer (1992) identified a set of empowering dimensions similar to those described by Thomas and Velthouse (1990). Subsequently, Speitzer (1995) defined the constructs of psychological empowerment in the workplace as employee perception of meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact.

Spreitzer (1995) believes that meaning refers to the congruence of the employee's work role and their beliefs, values, and behaviors. Competence is the ability of the employee to perform their job task with skill. Spreitzer defines self-determination as the employee having a sense of choice in initiating and regulating their actions, and impact refers to the degree to which the employee can influence the strategic, administrative, or operational outcomes in their work organization. Subsequently, Spreitzer developed and validated a four-dimensional scale to measure the constructs of psychological empowerment.

Several studies employing Spreitzer's (2005) instrument have found that employee perception of psychological empowerment is positively associated with job satisfaction (Butts et al., 2009; Carless, 2004; Laschinger et al., 2001; Spreitzer et al., 1997; Wayne & Sparrowe, 2000). Also, research results indicate that employee job stress has been found to be negatively correlated with psychological empowerment (Butts et al.; Laschinger et al.; Spreitzer et al.).

Only one study was found that employed Spreitzer's (1995) psychological empowerment instrument in a law enforcement context. Winegar (2003) studied the psychological empowerment perception of 352 police officers from 20 law enforcement agencies in Oregon. This researcher theorized, based on the extant literature, that officer perception of the work environment (independent variables) was predictive of officer perception of psychological empowerment (dependent variables). Winegar operationalized the police work environment with six constructs: organizational role (specific work responsibilities), feedback on performance, training, job enrichment, information and control (officer perception of the imposed work constraints within the agency). The author found that a relationship did exist between perception of work environment and perception of psychological empowerment. Specifically, Winegar found the work environment constructs to be significantly correlated with the impact and self-determination dimensions of psychological empowerment, however, no significant relationship was found between the work environment and the dimensions of meaning and competence. Winegar concluded that while the model proved to be generally valid, and demonstrated the utility of employing the psychological empowerment scale in a policing context, the work environment construct required further development.

#### 2.4 Job Satisfaction

Theories of organizational behavior presume a reciprocal relationship between employees and the work setting, such that the attitudes and behaviors of people influence the organization in which they work, and vice-versa (Brief & Weiss, 2002). Employee job satisfaction is among the most salient elements of this relationship (Russell et al.,

2004). Although job satisfaction is one of the most critical and highly researched variables in industrial-organizational psychology, no universally agreed upon definition of this construct has been established (Gruneberg, 1979). Specter (1997) defines job satisfaction as “simply how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs” (p.6).

Several organizational theorists believe that an employee’s job satisfaction is largely determined by their immediate work environment. For example, Carless (2004) asserts that individual job satisfaction is a psychological state reflecting an affective response to the work situation. This belief is consistent with Hackman and Oldham’s (1980) Job Characteristic Model that proposes employees perceiving the critical psychological states of meaning, feelings of responsibility, and knowledge in the work environment are more satisfied with their jobs. Likewise, Herzberg’s (1968) Motivator-Hygiene theory emphasizes the effects of the immediate work environment on an individual’s level of job satisfaction (Lawton, Hickman, Piquero, & Greene, 2000; Zhou et al., 1999).

## 2.5 Job Stress

From an interactive perspective, occupational stress is defined as an imbalance between environmental demands and individual resources (Cherniss, 1980). Accordingly, Stinchcomb (2004) contends that stress occurs when the demands placed on an individual exceeds their capacity to avoid, alter, or control those demands. There is substantial support in the literature for the relationship between workplace factors and stress (Burke, 1988; Leong, Furnham, Cary, & Cooper, 1996; Lashinger et al., 2004; Slate et al., 2007;

Zhoa et al., 2002). Yet, Rees (1995) and Young and Cooper (1995) report that the same workplace factors are not consistently related to stress in all work places, and that this relationship can vary depending on the context being studied. For example, Sparks and Cooper (1999) studied 7, 099 employees from 13 different occupations and found significant associations between a number of workplace factors and indicators of employee distress including anxiety and depression. However, Sparks and Cooper also reported that the quality of the social environment in the work organization was commonly associated with stress. Additionally, Burke and Nelson and Burke (2000) report the organizational factors of lack of power, role ambiguity, and role conflicts were linked to employee stress.

Job Stress is associated with impairing employee functioning in the workplace (Fairbrother & Warn, 2003). Negative effects include reduced employee performance, decreased employee commitment to the organization, reduced employee initiative and increase rigidity of thought (Greenberg & Baron, 1995; Matson & Ivancevich, 1982). High levels of job stress have been associated with low levels of job satisfaction (Landesbergis, 1988; Terry, Neilsen, & Perchard, 1993). Further, research findings indicate that organizational factors have direct effects on stress and job satisfaction, as well as job stress influencing job satisfaction ( Laschinger et al., 2001; Lyne, Barrett, Williams, & Coaley, 2000).

#### 2.6 Structural Empowerment, Psychological Empowerment, Job Satisfaction and Job Stress

Bowen and Ostroff (2004) report that most empowerment research has been limited to showing direct statistical associations between empowering work systems and

employee outcomes, thus very little is known about the process that produces the desired outcomes. As such, very little research has investigated the relationship between structural empowerment, psychological empowerment, and consequential employee attitudes (Butts et al. 2009; Laschinger et al. 2004). Accordingly, this methodology has yet to be tested in a law enforcement context, but is theorized to be readily applicable to this unique occupational group and context.

Recently, Butts et al. (2009) conducted a unique study that employed an overall structural empowerment construct derived from Lawler's (1986, 1992, 1996) employee high involvement theory. These researchers were interested in better defining how empowering work systems operate by theorizing that psychological empowerment, using Spreitzer's (1995) instrument, was a predicted outcome of employee involvement. These researchers further postulated that psychological empowerment functioned as a mediator between the employee involvement construct and employee attitudes including job satisfaction and job stress. It is important to note that Butts et al. additionally utilized organizational support as a moderating variable; however, this concept does not appear as a sub-construct in Lawler's original theory. Regarding the inclusion of support as a sub-construct, the authors explained " Because of the beneficial reciprocity in behaviors suggested by theories of organizational support...employee perceptions of a supportive work environment may be particularly important, especially with regard to empowerment and its effects on employee outcomes" (p. 123). Butts et al. believed organizational support to refer to the degree to which employees perceive that their employer values their contributions and cares about their well-being.



Butt et al. (2009) gathered data from 1,723 workers employed at 21 retail centers owned by the same corporation. These centers were located throughout the southeastern United States. The researchers found that employee perception of empowering organizational structures was positively associated with psychological empowerment, and that psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between employee involvement structures and employee attitudinal outcomes. Further, Butts et al. found that psychological empowerment is positively associated with job satisfaction and negatively related to job stress. In addition, the researchers concluded that empowerment had a stronger positive relationship with employee outcomes when organizational support was perceived as high rather than low.

Last, Butts et al. emphasize that their findings suggest that organizations can create a healthy work environment by creating and maintaining empowering structures and mechanisms of employee support. It is believed that the findings of Butt et al. are not necessarily exclusive to private sector entities and are applicable to a police context.

Studies have also utilized Kanter's (1977, 1993) organizational empowerment theory to investigate the structural empowerment-psychological empowerment- employee attitude relationship. For example, based on the sub-construct definitions described in Kanter's theory, Laschinger (1996) derived an overall construct to test structural empowerment. Subsequently, Laschinger et al. (2001) conducted a cross-sectional survey study to test a model linking staff nurse work empowerment to job strain and job satisfaction. The authors postulated that structural empowerment would have a direct positive effect on psychological empowerment, employing Speitzer's (1995) instrument, which in turn would have a direct positive effect on work satisfaction. Laschiner et al.

also predicted that psychological empowerment would lead to decreased feelings of job strain (the initial manifestation of job stress), which would enhance job satisfaction.

Laschinger et al. (2001) randomly selected 300 male and 300 female nurses working in urban tertiary care hospitals in Ontario, Canada. The authors' final sample size was 404 usable questionnaires. Laschinger et al. found, as predicted, that structural empowerment had a direct positive effect on psychological empowerment, and that psychological empowerment had a direct positive effect on job satisfaction. These researchers also found that psychological empowerment strongly influenced the degree of job strain experienced by the nurses. However, Laschinger et al. did not find that job strain independently predicted job satisfaction; rather job satisfaction was found to be directly predicted by psychological empowerment. The scholars explained "that this apparent contradiction is resolved by considering the fact that past research has typically looked simply at the relationship between job strain and job satisfaction and has not included structural and psychological empowerment" (p. 268).

Laschinger et al. concluded that increasing employee access to workplace empowerment structures increases employee feelings of personal empowerment. The increase in personal empowerment, in turn, reduces job strain and increases job satisfaction.

In a subsequent study, Laschinger et al. (2004) employed a longitudinal design to provide a stronger test of the hypothesized relationship between workplace empowerment and employee perception of job satisfaction. The researchers contacted the same nurses sampled in their previous study, and obtained a final sample size of 198. Laschinger et al. theorized that changes in employee perceptions of structural empowerment would predict

changes in job satisfaction. Specifically, the authors postulated that those nurses who became more structurally empowered would gain greater access to resources and support and thus report increases in job satisfaction. Conversely, Laschinger et al. believed that those nurses who had not received increased access to empowering structures would become more dissatisfied with their jobs over time. Further, these researchers theorized that the influence of structural empowerment on job satisfaction would be mediated by respondent perception of psychological empowerment, measured by Spreitzer's (1995) instrument.

Laschinger et al. (2004) determined that the study results supported the proposition that changes in perceptions of access to structural empowerment influenced changes in perception of both psychological empowerment and job satisfaction. However, the authors found that changes in psychological empowerment did not predict changes in job satisfaction. In regard to this result, Laschinger et al. speculated that “perhaps people have dispositional tendencies to respond in a particular way to work that are stable over time...perhaps people tend to view work similarly, regardless of circumstances and the passage of time” (p. 539).

In conclusion, Laschinger et al. (2004) contend the fact that changes in structural empowerment directly influence job satisfaction underscore the importance of studying structural empowerment. The authors believe that the results of their studies would generalize to other occupations, but state “...to the best of our knowledge, research using Kanter's model has been tested primarily within nursing. Kanter would argue that structural empowerment should help all groups” (p. 539). This study sought to test this assertion in a law enforcement context.

## 2.7 The Traditional Police Organizational Environment

The prevailing law enforcement hierarchical structure is conceptually described as being formed in the shape of a pyramid that consists of multiple ascending levels of authority (Reiter, 1999). The higher a position is on the pyramid the greater the authority of the position, conversely, the number of personnel at each level decrease with ascension. These characteristics create a military rank structure with power primarily contained at the top of the hierarchy. Communication is theoretically conducted through a two way chain-of-command, but decision making authority remains the domain of the upper level ranks (Reiter, 1999; French & Stewart, 2001; Wuestewald & Steinheider, 2006).

The paramilitary structure was adopted by police leaders as part of the intense reforms which occurred in the early 20<sup>th</sup> century to remedy prolific corruption, disorganization, and political interference that threatened the credibility of American law enforcement (Uchida, 1997; Wuestewald & Steinheider, 2006). Police administrators of this era were influenced, as were their counterparts in the corporate sector, by the scientific management theories of Frederick Taylor and Max Weber which proposed that optimal productivity could be realized through worker discipline and control facilitated by the implementation of an authoritarian hierarchy (Uchida, 1997; Wuestewald & Steinheider, 2006).

This organizational structure persists in present day law enforcement primarily due to it having a significant and enduring positive impact on the professionalization of American policing (Uchida, 1997; Wuestewald & Steinheider, 2006). Yet, Johnson (1994) submits that the structure and organization of law enforcement agencies are

underdeveloped, and that practitioners in the field of criminal justice management rarely examine the two issues. In illustration, King (2003) reports that 383 of the largest responding local police agencies (this meaning municipal agencies with 100 or more full-time sworn officers) had a mean and median of six command ranks. Gaines, Kaune, and Miller (2005) observe that this structure facilitates nearly every member of the organization being directly accountable to a superior in order to increase discipline and control while concurrently limiting abuses, which was the objective of the early police reformers.

Rasor (1999) and Sparrow (1988) contend that excessive rank structure is one of the primary defective facets of police organizations. Conversely, King (2003) argues that while general critiques have sufficiently recognized general problems with police organizations, these critiques have been insufficient in identifying the specific problems caused by multiple rank structures. Further, King contends that police entities, like any other organization, are a system of interrelated parts and that the perceived problems with rank structure are likely caused by other under examined organizational factors. King is supported in his assertion by other scholars.

For example, Clark (2004), Johnson and Cox (2004) and Steinheider and Wuestewald (2008) refer to the managerial orientation of police leaders as focused on the control of subordinates. Van Maanen (1978) observed that management through control mechanisms, such as rules and policies, is conducive to police management as behavior is regulated in an attempt to create predictability and regularity. Umiker (1999) felt that exerting sound control over subordinates gave leaders the belief that they could determine events and predict outcomes. This believe is consistent with that of Wilson (1989) who

submits that the primary focus of police management is control because officers have considerable authority and are virtually unsupervised while on patrol. Additionally, it is disturbing that Ruess-Ianni (1983) described the basic administrative view of the line officer as “impersonal resources to be used” (p. 7), inferring that the leadership process is dehumanizing and purely one of transaction rather than transformation.

However, providing police service via a paramilitary hierarchy creates a pronounced paradox as policing is highly discretionary, particularly at the first line level (Reiter, 1999; Wuestewald & Steinhide, 2006). The majority of calls for service are handled by line level police officers without supervisory presence at the call scene. The officer is free to choose from several proscribed options, based on the specific facts of the call, to bring the issue to resolution. A recent study by Lane (2006) of 140 reporting agencies found that the average supervisor to officer ratio (span of control) is 1 to 7. However the researcher cautions that this is a “normal” average as the responding agencies stated that the span of control is often greater depending on a variety of circumstances (p.79). In essence, police officers act primarily as their own supervisors as they perform their daily duties, yet exert little influence on the administrative decisions which determine policy formulation, operational modality, or training methodology (Gilmartin, 2002; Reiter, 1999; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008).

Authorities contend that control-oriented supervision in police agencies persists as it has also contributed, to a degree, in professionalizing the American police (Johnson & Cox, 2004; Wilson, 1989). Also, Wuestewald and Steinheider (2006) posit that many police administrators are zealous about accountability and conformity due to continuous

scandals, charges of inequity, and, ubiquitous public scrutiny and criticism. Thus, police leaders are resistive to adopting alternative management philosophies.

### 2.7.1 The Traditional Police Organization and Community Policing

The police control paradox is currently exacerbated by the widespread attempt of police leaders to implement and sustain community oriented policing (COP). Basically, this strategy of policing expands the police mandate beyond the traditional narrow focus of fighting crime to efforts that also address the fear of crime, social and physical disorder, and neighborhood decay (Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux, 1990). Thus, police officers are challenged to solve community problems in new and innovative ways (Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux). Community policing is predicated on the belief that the police must form a partnership with the citizens in the community and allow them to have input into the law enforcement process so that contemporary problems are solved through a decentralized and personalized approach (Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux).

However, over a decade ago, Lord (1996) admonished that few American police agencies have successfully implemented community policing. This assertion appears to remain accurate in the present day. Recently, Rosenberg et al. (2008) submit that “community policing strives to change the very nature of policing...implementing such changes has proved difficult on a number of levels” (p. 291). Further, these researchers citing Wilms (1996), state “The tenants upon which the culture of traditional policing are based are challenged through consensual agreement and commitment to change” (p. 291). As Craine (2007) observes, radical changes in the normative structure and value system of an organization severely challenges prior knowledge and comfort levels of staff. Jones

(1981) argues that an organization's structural elements must be in alignment with an organization's values and goals in order for the organization to effectively institute change. This assertion is supported by Dwyer and Laufersweiler-Dwyer (2004), Kennedy (2003), McCoy (2006) and Wuestewald and Steinheider (2006) who observe that the community policing philosophy, which requires officers to have the authority to take decisive and innovative action, is in direct conflict with the authoritarian management reference which mandates strict adherence to established rules and procedures, and which is highly centralized in decision making. Further, Walsh and Vito (2004) observe that while many police agencies assert that they are engaged in some form of community policing, most are "still bureaucratically structured and delivering their services based on the strategies of the rational-legal bureaucratic model" (p. 26). This observation is supported by Wycoff and Skogan (1994) who found indication that the internal change exacted by one agency's leaders from traditional management practices to more participative management practices supported the external change from traditional response police service to proactive community policing. Likewise, Adams et al. (2002) studied COP initiatives in six mid-sized to small police agencies in North Carolina, and found that officers who perceived their agency as practicing participatory management were more positive about community policing. Similar results were reported by Giacomazzi et al. (2004) who studied COP initiatives in 15 law enforcement agencies, and found that empowering officers to make decisions is critical to the success of community policing efforts.

The observation by Eck and Rosenbaum (1994) is compelling as they assert that the greatest value of COP is social equity that creates fairness in the delivery of police



services across social classes and the fostering of greater trust between the police and the community. However, these researchers also contend, in regard to the relationship between the internal mechanisms of the police organization and front line officers, that the equity of COP “is more about participatory management and power sharing” (p.12). However, Rosenberg et al. (2008), who investigated community policing in the Racine, Wisconsin Police Department, submit that upper command is reluctant to surrender decision-making authority in order to give officers greater autonomy leading to participative management.

In conclusion, the relationship between the current police organizational paradigm and community policing is summated by Pelfrey (2004) who notes that in the majority of police agencies a small number of officers assume this role of service delivery and are treated as a specialized unit, while the majority of officers continue to serve in reactive patrol. Thus, this author concludes that the previous law enforcement shift from the political era to the reform era was a “true shift in philosophy” (p. 596), but the shift to community policing is not a true philosophical change, but rather has only caused a “second layer of concepts to be placed on top of reform era policing” (p. 597).

## 2.8 Police Officer Job Satisfaction

The research of police officer job satisfaction and organizational environment is a relatively new area of study than is similar research involving other professions (Buzawa, Austin, & Bannon, 1994; Zhao et al., 1999). Bennett (1997) noted that job satisfaction is a “neglected but important and timely topic in police studies” (p. 296). Zhao et al. (1999) observe that the study of police job satisfaction is primarily subsumed under two distinct

constructs. The first construct is focused on explanatory demographic variables, and the second construct originates in the school of management which emphasizes the importance of an individual's immediate work environment. The latter helps to establish the theoretical base for the present study.

Those few studies that have been done in the area of organizational environment and officer job satisfaction also fall into two constructs of police management: The traditional paramilitary environment, or to a much lesser extent, an empowering environment created either by the implementation of community policing strategies or by the implementation of a strategic participative initiative.

As has been discussed, the traditional police environment is characterized as an autocratic hierarchy where decisions are primarily made by senior leaders in order to achieve command and control over their subordinates. Conversely, the management premise of community policing is to provide a participative and supportive environment that empowers officers to make problem-solving decisions (Wycoff & Skogan, 1993, 1994). In contrast, strategic participative environments are characterized by officers exercising decision-making influence in all aspects of the organization (Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008).

### 2.8.1 Demographic Variables and Officer Job Satisfaction

Currently, much of the research concerning the impact on officer satisfaction in the traditional management environment has been limited to testing demographic characteristics, such as age, ethnicity, gender, education, type of assignment and length of tenure, as explanatory variables (Dantzker, 1992, 1994; Zhou et al., 1999). However,

Carlan (2007) and Zhoa et al. (1999) conclude that much of the research involving demographics has produced conflicting results, so consistent empirical conclusions establishing how these relate to job satisfaction have not been attained. Despite this ambiguity, the present study employed level of education, length of service, and work assignment as categorical variables as a modicum of empirical evidence suggests these are related to job satisfaction. As such, a review of the literature regarding these relationships is appropriate. In addition, as Carlan (2007) submits “It is readily observable that job satisfaction fluctuates among agencies and individuals, yet one constant of job satisfaction research is that demographics contribute little to the explanation of this emotional phenomenon” (p. 75).

The extant literature concerning police officer level of education and job satisfaction has produced mixed results. An early study by Leftkowitz (1974) found that patrol officers with some college education had lower job satisfaction than their lesser educated peers. Yet, another early study by Griffin, Dunbar, and McGill (1978) found that there was no significant relationship between increased levels of education and increased job dissatisfaction among police officers. Subsequently, Buzawa (1984) found a correlation between education and job satisfaction among police officers in the Detroit, Michigan and Oakland, California Police Departments, though a consistent linear relationship was not produced. In addition, two studies conducted by Dantzker (1992, 1994) are particularly vexing. Initially, this researcher (1992) conducted a study postulating that college educated patrol officers would become less satisfied with policing as their tenure increased than would their colleagues who had only high school level educations. Dantzker found that that these variables appeared to be inversely

related; officers with college degrees had the highest job satisfaction level during the first five years of their career, however, their job satisfaction decreased as their tenure increased. Also, in general, college educated officers were less satisfied with their jobs than were officers who had only a high school diploma. Later, Dantzker (1994) conducted a second study that employed officer demographic characteristics, including level of education, as independent variables to determine their impact on job satisfaction. The researcher's findings contradicted those of his previous study as no significant relationship was found between education level and job satisfaction.

More recently, Krimmel and Gormely (2003) found higher job satisfaction for officers with more formal education. However, studies conducted by Carlan (2007) and Zhou et al. (1999) found no significant relationship between these two variables.

The findings of studies examining the officer tenure-job satisfaction relationship have produced more consistent results. Buzawa (1984), operationalizing age to be synonymous with years of police service, found officers from two departments with longer tenure to demonstrate lower levels of job satisfaction.

A compelling study by Burke (1989) theorized that police officers in the intermediate stages of their career would have less job satisfaction and perceive greater job stress than would officers in either early or late career stages. Burke employed career stages (less than 1 year, 1-3 years, 5-15 years and over 15 years) as the independent variables. The researcher found that the intermediate career group, consisting of officers with 5-15 years of service, did have higher levels of work stress and lower job satisfaction than did the other three cohorts.

More recently, Zhoa et al. (1999) found years of service to be negatively associated with job satisfaction. Also, Mire (2005) reported that new officers had higher levels of job satisfaction and more senior officers to have lower levels of job satisfaction. Mire found that the lowest perceptions of job satisfaction were reported by officers with 10 to 15 years of service. In contrast, this researcher found that officer job satisfaction began to increase beyond 15 years of service.

Some research evidence suggests a correlation between work assignment and job satisfaction. The bulk of the research pertaining to this relationship has been done in a community policing context, which will be discussed in a following section. However, some study of this correlation has been done in the traditional policing environment. For example, Hoath, Schneider and Starr (1998) investigated the relationships between police officer's job satisfaction and their career orientation, job assignment, and tenure. The researchers noted that few studies had examined these relationships concurrently, and found that officers who worked in investigations and administration were more satisfied with their jobs than were officers assigned to patrol. Also, Hoath et al. found that police officers who had low seniority perceived greater job satisfaction than their veteran peers. These findings are consistent with those of Slate et al. (2007) who reported that officers not assigned to patrol duties were highly more likely to be satisfied with their jobs.

### 2.8.2 The Traditional Police Environment and Officer Job Satisfaction

The research that has been done in the traditional policing context indicates that the organizational variables of job context, rather than demographic characteristics or the job content factors of work assignment, are the strongest predictors of officer job

satisfaction. Although, scholars caution that little research assesses the relationship between work environment and job satisfaction in the policing domain (Davey, Obst, & Sheehan, 2001; Zhoa et al.,1999).

Traditional management practices seem to have a consistent negative effect on police officer job satisfaction. For example, the studies mentioned earlier by Buzawa (1984) and Buzawa et al. (1994), found that that over a decade of time officers' job dissatisfaction was not related to occupational characteristics, but rather correlated with non-participative management practices, a lack of officer autonomy and perceived lack of opportunity for career advancement. Further, Halsted, Bromley, & Cochran (2000) reported higher levels of autonomy to increase officers' job satisfaction. More recently, Carlan (2007) found officer perception of autonomy to be instrumental to job satisfaction, and that the variables showed a positive correlation.

Also, organizational support emerges as a predictor of job satisfaction. A study by Davey, Obst, and Sheehan (2001) determined that support within the police organization was a strong predictor of job satisfaction, with higher levels of support leading to greater levels of job satisfaction. These findings were supported by the results of a longitudinal study conducted by Brough and Frame (2004). These authors found strong supervisory support to be correlated with high levels of officer job satisfaction. Also, Dowler reported this same correlation in 2005.

The size (number of officers employed) of an agency appears to have an effect on the job satisfaction of police officers. Idson (1990) noted that larger organizations are more rigidly structured and this could affect job satisfaction. The findings of Dantzker (1997) support this assertion. This researcher operationalized agency size as the predictor

variable and officer job satisfaction as the criterion variable in a sample of fourteen urban police agencies. Dantzker categorized department size into three groups: Group 1 (Less than 100 officers); Group 2 (101 to 500 officers); and Group 3 (More than 500 officers). The researcher then administered a survey that included items to tap officer satisfaction levels with administrative functions such as training, actions of top administrators, supervisor support, and supervisor assistance. The survey was also designed to tap officer satisfaction with the quantity and quality of equipment resources, and included a global job satisfaction scale. The author found that agencies with fewer than 100 officers had the highest job satisfaction with administrative function, while the other two groups were found to be equally dissatisfied with this aspect (no significant statistical difference between Groups 2 and 3). In addition, Dantzker found that Group 1 was the most satisfied with their equipment resources, while Group 3 was the least satisfied. Group 2 was less satisfied with equipment resources than Group 1, but more satisfied than Group 3. Regarding the global job satisfaction scale, the author concluded that the smallest group was the most satisfied, and that the other two groups were equally dissatisfied. Overall, Dantzker's findings suggest that officer job satisfaction is generally lower in agencies with more than 100 officers. Also, this author found that management practices and job resources in all groups had an impact on job satisfaction levels.

A unique study was conducted to investigate the effects of the organizational environment on officer job satisfaction by Zhao et al. (1999). These researchers theorized that as findings from the dominant construct of explanative demographic variables has been inconclusive, there might be utility in applying a construct design from the behavioral school of management. Zhao et al. employed Hackman and Oldham's Job

Diagnostic Survey (1975) to operationalize the influences of the traditional police environment as independent variables. The authors used the Job Descriptive Index, developed by Smith (1974) to measure the dependent variable of officer job satisfaction. The authors found that that job satisfaction appears to be intrinsic to an officer's work environment, and that job satisfaction is strongly correlated with job autonomy and effective two-way communication with supervisors. Last, these researchers also concluded that it was extremely viable to employ theoretical constructs from the behavioral management school in a law enforcement context.

### 2.8.3 Officer Job Satisfaction and Empowering Initiatives

There has been little disagreement among criminal justice scholars that community oriented policing has become a dominant service philosophy for modern police agencies (Lawton et al., 2000). The accumulated research findings have demonstrated that involvement in community policing assignments seems to have a positive effect on officer job satisfaction (Lurigio & Rosenbaum, 1994; Lurigio & Skogan, 1998), but exactly why this positive relationship results remains unclear (Lawton et al.). In explanation, Cordner (1999), Russell and MacLachlan (1999), and Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux (1990) posit that it is the participative and empowering climate inherent to being involved in community policing activities that likely increases officer job satisfaction. However, this explanation is questioned by other researchers who argue that officer engagement in COP activities is incidental, and thus, COP itself has no direct effect on officer job satisfaction. For example, Adams et al. (2002) and Giacomazzi et al. (2004) found that it is the officer perception of participative management being



practiced within the organization, not being engaged in community policing assignments per se, which increases officer job satisfaction. Further, Adams et al. and Giacomazzi et al. contend that empowering practices reduce officer resistance to COP, and are a necessary antecedent to successfully implementing and sustaining community policing strategies.

In a study comparing the job satisfaction of both traditional and COP officers in the Philadelphia Police Department, Pelfrey (2004) used work assignment (traditional or COP) as independent variables. This researcher, citing Zhao et al. (1999), employed the Job Diagnostic Survey (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969), as a moderator of the dependent variables of policing style, perceptions of job impact, time allocation, and information usage. Pelfrey found that COP officers were significantly more satisfied with their jobs than were officers assigned to traditional patrol duties. The author concluded that the COP officers perceived a heightened sense of autonomy which was linked to a marked increase in job satisfaction. Pelfrey states that “individuals placed in positions with higher autonomy, who have the ability to affect positive outcomes, and who perceive positive outcomes will experience more work-related job satisfaction” (p. 594). Another notable finding of this study was there being no difference between traditional officers and COP officers in the endorsement of traditional policing responsibilities, and there being no difference between the groups in the frequency of conducting traditional police activities, such as effecting arrests. Pelfrey believes this to be indicative of COP and traditional officers being more similar than the literature indicates as “both groups have a foundation of belief in the traditional practices of law enforcement” (p. 596). The researcher suggests that a possible explanation for this similarity is that the organizational reward structure,

which adheres to the traditional style of policing (i.e. valuing arrests and issuing citations), may be collectively seen by officers as the primary means to recognition and promotion. Last, Pelfrey concluded that it was viable to apply behavioral management theories in law enforcement studies.

Very few strategic empowerment initiatives exist in either the private sector or the policing domains (Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008). However, the findings of two notable studies provide further empirical support for the proposition that organizational context is more predictive of officer job satisfaction than is work content.

A seminal longitudinal study by Wycoff and Skogan (1994), evaluated a Quality Leadership initiative in the Madison, Wisconsin Police Department, where strategic participative measures were implemented concurrently with community oriented policing operations. The study results indicated that the implementation of participative leadership, separate from the implementation of community policing, increased the satisfaction levels of officers who perceived they were involved in organizational decision-making. The authors also found that the internal organizational change to a more empowering environment facilitated the external change to COP.

More recently, Wuestewald and Steinhieder (2006) performed a seminal longitudinal study involving the implementation of a strategic participative initiative designated the Leadership Team at the Broken Arrow, Oklahoma Police Department. The agency was also pursuing community policing strategies. The Leadership Team, comprised of representatives from all ranks and areas of the organization, was directly involved in making the important policy and strategic decisions for the agency. The results of this study were consistent with those found earlier by Wycoff and Skogan

(1994) in that a positive relationship was found between job satisfaction and perception of an empowering work environment, exclusive to the implementation of community policing. In fact, these researchers concluded that the empowering initiative induced greater officer commitment to the community policing initiative.

## 2.9 Police Officer Job Stress

There are two generally recognized constructs of police stress (McCreary & Thompson, 2006). One construct is formed by operational or job content stressors that are aspects of police work inherent to the profession. Operational stressors include dealing with death, victims of crime, violence, and accidents (Dietrich & Smith, 1986), unpredictable and uncontrollable daily workload (Coman & Evans, 1991; Duckworth, 1987), long work hours (Cooper, Davidson, & Robinson, 1988), and court appearances (Coman & Evans). The second construct is composed of organizational or job context stressors that are aspects of police work created by the internal environment.

Organizational stressors include lack of support from the command hierarchy (Brown & Campbell, 1990; Kiely & Peek, 2002; Newman & Rucker-Reed, 2004), and inadequacies in communication within the organization, particularly from upper command to the line level (Brown & Campbell; Sims, Ruiz, Weaver, & Harvey, 2005). Further, stressors of this type include a lack of resources, primarily shortages in both staffing and equipment (Shanahan, 1992). In addition, cumbersome paperwork and numerous arbitrary bureaucratic procedures are reported as contextual stressors (Kroes, 1985). These internal stressors generate officer perceptions of being powerless, being

unvalued, and having a sense of meaninglessness in their organizational role (Mitchell, 1990; Shanahan).

Contrary to popular belief, a growing body of research is empirically demonstrating that the primary stressors for police officers are organizational and not operational (Brooks & Piquero, 1998; Gains et al., 1991; Reiser, 1974; Slate, Wells, & Johnson, 2003; Slate et al., 2007; Stinchcomb, 2004; Zhoa et al., 2002). Further, Cullen, Link, Travis, and Lemming (1983) found that police officers themselves described their profession as more potentially dangerous than actually dangerous. Additionally, Storch and Panzarella (1996) found that unless researchers specifically ask police officers about encounters with violence and human misery they seldom mention these as stressors.

Thirty-Five years ago, Reiser (1974) examined the impact of stress in the traditional police organization and found that the most common stress factors for line officers were the authoritarian management practices and the internal discipline structure. Perceived negative administrative practices and interactions were seen as primary officer stressors in several subsequent studies (Newman & Rucker-Reed, 2004; Storch & Panzeralla, 1996; Sims et al., 2005; Slate et al., 2007; Speilberger, Westbury, Grier, & Greenfield, 1981; Zhoa et al., 2002).

These conclusions are buttressed by the findings of Gains et al. (1991) who argue that work in bureaucratic police agencies is often frustrating and stressful due to the perceptions by officers that the agency is self-serving and unresponsive.

There appears to be a correlation between officer perception of having influence or power in the organization and perception of job stress. Slate et al. (2007) examined the relationship between officer perceptions of having the opportunity to participate in

organizational decisions and officer stress levels in an agency in the southeastern United States. These authors found that significant stress levels were reported by officers who wished to participate in workplace decisions, but believed the environment not to be conducive to participation. Previous studies have indicated that organizational factors such as participation in decision-making can affect officer stress (Morash & Haar, 1995; Morash, Haar, & Kwak, 2006).

Recently, Stinchcomb (2004) observed that the less control employees have over what they are expected to do and the outcome of their efforts, the more likely they are to experience significant stress. Stinchcomb further asserts that in law enforcement organizations officers are confronted with an unsupportive management system that causes them to experience stress due to a lack of control, and the less control an officer has over a situation the more stressful it will be. This assertion is supported by Crank and Caldero (1991) and Davey et al. (2001) whose studies found organizational stressors to be more severe than operational stressors, primarily because officers cannot control them.

However, Pasillas, Follette, and Perumean-Chaney (2006) posit that the majority of the literature examining job stress and the impact it exerts on officer psychological distress is anecdotal, and that a limited amount of empirical data concerning this relationship exists. Zhao et al. (2002) concur and submit that the dominant research focus in this area has been identifying specific stress factors associated with the typical police bureaucracy through the use of self-report surveys where respondents are asked to rank-order a long list of possible stressors. These authors argue that this methodology is primarily based on the assumption that all police organizations have the exact traits, and that officers in the same agency share the same perceptions of their work environment.

Thus, Zhao et al. conclude that there is a limited amount of research available were the relationship between organizational stressors and individual perceptions of stress are measured by report of actual psychological discomfort.

In a step toward closing this gap, Zhao et al. (2002) studied the police work environment and officer stress relationship in two large municipal departments in the northwest region of the United States (city populations of 180,000 and 150,000 respectively). The researchers employed the Job Diagnostic Survey, developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975), as independent variables representing individual perceptions of the work environment. Zhao et al. developed ten additional survey items as independent variables, which included questions about workload, inadequate equipment, and general work conditions, to measure the presence of bureaucracy in the organizations. Also, the authors used the Brief Symptom Inventory, developed by Derogatis and Melisaratos (1983) to measure officer psychological perceptions of stress. Zhao et al. found that individual perceptions of the work environment are strong predictors of stress; their findings were consistent with previous research that the bureaucratic nature of police agencies have an adverse impact on officer stress, and that the two environmental dimensions of autonomy and communication are major predictors of officer stress. Last, Zhao et al. concluded that there was significant utility in using theories from the behavioral school of management to study the sources of stress among police officers.

### 2.9.1 Demographic Characteristics and Police Officer Stress

The findings of the research examining the correlation between officer stress and demographic variables, including those considered in the present study, have been inconclusive. It seems that these correlations, like those of demographic characteristics and officer job satisfaction, are subject to temporal and contextual fluctuation.

In regard to officer education level and stress, Storch and Panzerella (1996) found no relationship between officer level of education and perception of stress. Conversely, Dantzker (1999) found that officers with Associate's degrees experienced lower levels of stress than those who possessed a high school diploma. However, this author also found that officer's possessing a Bachelor's degree perceived higher stress levels than those who possessed a high school diploma, and officer's who possessed a Master's degree perceived lower stress than the those who held a Bachelor's degree. Also, Zhao et al. (2002) observed there was a positive correlation between officer levels of education and level of perceived stress. More recently, Newman and Rucker- Reed (2004) found no relationship between education level and stress in a sample of U. S. Marshals.

In examining officer tenure and stress, Violanti and Aaron (1993) found officers experience the least stress in the first (1-5 years) and last (15 years to retirement) stages of their career, with stress levels being highest in the middle career stage (6-14 years of service). Similar findings were reported by Storch and Panzarella (1996) who found that officer tenure and stress were negatively associated. Yet, recent study results indicated no correlation between an officer's length of service and perception of stress (Zhao et al., 2002; Newman & Rucker-Reed, 2004).

In regard to the link between officer assignment and stress, some study findings indicate that patrol officers report higher stress levels than those assigned to other duties (Brooks & Piquero, 1998; Slate et al., 2007). However, Davey et al. (2001) and Zhoa et al. (2002) found no relationship between officer work assignment and stress.

In addition, agency size appears to have a relationship to officer stress. For example, Spielberger et al. (1981) reported that officers from smaller jurisdictions reported staffing shortages as more stressful than officers from larger urban agencies. Regoli, Crank, & Culbertson (1989) submit that officers from smaller agencies are less prone to stress due to the environment being more relaxed and informal than larger police organizations. Last, Brooks and Piquero (1998) surveyed officers from ten different sized agencies, located in Virginia and Maryland. These researchers placed the agencies into three distinct groupings: Six departments had less than 50 officers, two departments had between 300 and 550 officers, and two departments had approximately 1,550 officers. Brooks and Piquero found that agency size was not as predictive of officer stress as was the organizational environment, specifically in the areas of communication, support, and officer input in department decisions, and, that these factors were negatively related to officer stress perceptions.

## 2.10 Consequences of Police Officer Stress

There potentially exists a myriad of negative implications resulting from police officers laboring under stress. It is axiomatic that the impression made by an officer on a citizen as they carry out their duties creates a long held belief by the citizen about the organization and the profession. Weitzer and Tuch (2005) note that police-citizen



encounters that result in unnecessary conflict and negativity are recounted into perpetuity as opposed to those encounters that result in collaboration. In addition, Thayer (1989) posits that stress causes irritability, which lowers the quality of officers' decisions and increases their being prone to act out of anger. Accordingly, officers may respond with inappropriate aggression to the slightest provocation by misjudging the magnitude of the perceived threat. Yet, Hart and Cooper (2001) and Wright and Cropanzano (2000) argue that many police leaders continue to view officer stress as an individually based occupational health and safety issue rather than an exigent concern that is central to the management practices of the organization.

Many study results indicate that officer perception of stress induced by the traditional organization could be reduced by leaders adapting and implementing employee empowerment practices (Brooks & Piquero, 1998; Morash et al., 2006; Stinchcomb, 2004; Slate et al., 2007; Zhoa et al., 2002). However, Slate et al. concluded that greater study of empowering management schemas in law enforcement are required in order to compare the effect these interventions impose on officer stress with that imposed by traditional police management. However, these schemas have yet to be systemically implemented.

## 2.11 Summary of Findings

The deleterious effects of the traditional law enforcement paradigm emerge as a salient concern from the literature. Several scholars suggest that these effects could be altered by replacing the current autocratic police management reference with more benevolent participative practices. Yet, these suggestions seem speculative as the specific

composition of these participative initiatives remains undefined. Further, many studies have attempted to define specific factors internal to the traditional police organization that negatively influence officer attitudes and impede the community policing strategy, yet, these correlates remain enigmatic. In addition, many theorists call for further research of the antecedents and consequences of employee empowerment within police organizations, but concurrently stipulate that very few police agencies have implemented such initiatives. As such, the investigation of the police organization-officer empowerment dynamic is primarily limited to examining this relationship as it innately exists.

The literature strongly suggests that a step toward closing this research gap may be taken by applying empowerment theories to further investigate the antecedents and consequences of the police organization-police officer relationship. Research methodologies have successfully employed the structural and psychological empowerment constructs in private sector entities to better explain the correlation between employee attitudes and organizational context.

The utility of applying similar methodologies in a police context is plausible as they are conducive to studying the natural state of the organization without imposing an intervention or alteration. The outcome of these applications would potentially result, as evidenced by private sector research findings, in identifying specific restrictive or negative organizational factors that impede both the police mission and adversely effect officer attitudes.

## CHAPTER 3. PROCEDURES AND DATA COLLECTION

### 3.1 Research Design

This cross-sectional and quantitative study investigated the relationship between officer perception of empowering organizational structures and officer perception of job satisfaction and job stress in a traditionally managed police agency. This was accomplished through a research design that tested a new theoretical model that is a derivative of previous empirical models established by Laschinger et al. (2001) and Butts et al. (2009).

Specifically, Laschinger et al. (2001) employed a model that operationalized Kanter's (1977, 1993) theory of Organizational Empowerment as the causal structural empowerment variables and psychological empowerment as mediating variables using Spreitzer's (1995) instrument. The modeled dependent variables were job satisfaction and job strain.



Figure 2. Laschinger et al. (2001) Structural Empowerment Model

In contrast, Butts et al. (2009) utilized a research model that operationalized Lawler's (1986, 1992, 1996) High Involvement Work Process Theory as the causal variables of structural empowerment and psychological empowerment, using Spreitzer's (1995) instrument, as mediating variables. Also, the researchers modeled perceived organizational support as a moderating variable and job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job performance and job stress as dependent variables.

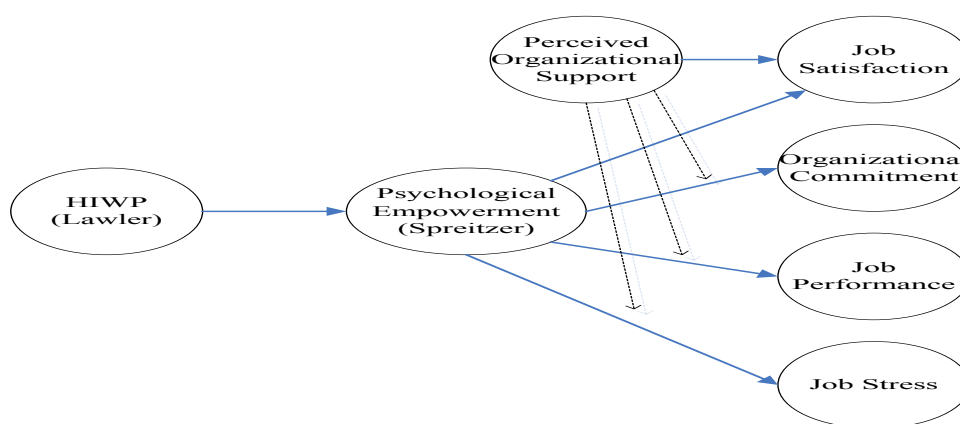
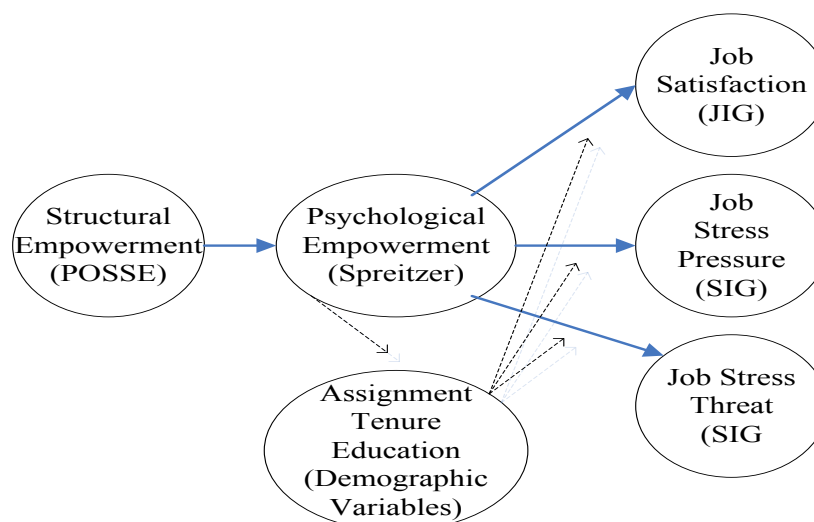


Figure 3. Butts et al. (2009) Structural Empowerment Model

Thus, the research design is well grounded in theoretical and methodological precedents. However, the study design was also innately exploratory due to the unique nature of the independent variable constructs of structural empowerment being measured via a new and previously untested survey instrument and the unique application of a model of this type in a law enforcement context. In addition, the research design included testing for the influence of officer demographic characteristics. Further, the support construct was tested as one of the causal components of structural empowerment.



*Figure 4.* The Biggs Model of Police Officer Structural Empowerment

### 3.2 Sample Population

A convenience sample was used for this study as this sampling technique was highly conducive to the applied research objectives and the innate exploratory nature of the study. The sample population was comprised of first line officers and investigators employed at a full service medium sized municipal police agency located in the Midwest region of the United States. This agency has a current sworn staffing level of 136, and is categorized as medium sized based on the previous research trichotomy established by Dantzker (1996), who classified police departments as small (less than 100 officers), medium (101-500 officers) and large (greater than 500 officers). When this study was initiated the sworn personnel of the agency included 27 supervisory positions, eight probationary officers and two positions that were unfilled due to budgetary constraints.

As this study was exclusive to perceptions of non-probationary and non-supervisory line level personnel engaged in enforcement duties. As such, it was determined that the maximum possible final sample size was 98 (N = 98).

### 3.3 Measures

#### 3.3.1 Structural Empowerment Measure

The independent study variables of officer perception of empowering structures within the organization were operationalized and measured by a previously untested survey instrument, the Police Officer Survey of Structural Empowerment (POSSE), created by the researcher ( please see Appendix C). The creation of this instrument was necessary as the empirically validated instruments employed by Butts et al. (2009) and Laschinger et al. (2001) were specifically designed for private sector entities, and as such, the phrasing and verbiage of these instruments was not conducive to the unique job context of law enforcement. Further, Butts et al. operationalized Lawler's (1986, 1992, 1996) theoretical constructs of structural empowerment, whereas Laschinger et al. operationalized the theoretical constructs of structural empowerment as defined by Kanter (1977, 1993). It is imperative to recognize that the respective theories differ significantly, and that each does not incorporate potentially critical sub-constructs that are present in the other.

Specifically, Lawler's construct does not include the element of organizational support, which has been empirically demonstrated by Butts et al. to be a critical factor for employee empowerment. Also, Lawler's construct does not include the element of resources, which Laschinger et al. have likewise shown to be a critical element of employee empowerment. Conversely, Kanter's construct does not include the employee

reward element, which has also been empirically demonstrated by Butts et al. to be an important component of empowerment. It should be recounted that Lawler's sub-construct of knowledge and Kanter's sub-construct of opportunity share very similar definitions.

Table 1.  
*Theoretical Constructs of Structural Empowerment*

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Lawler's (1986, 1992, 1996) High Involvement Work Process Theory	Kanter's (1977, 1993) Organizational Empowerment Theory	Police Officer Survey of Structural Empowerment (POSSE)
- Power	- Formal & Informal Power	- Informal Power
- Information	- Information	- Information
- Reward	- Support	- Resources
- Knowledge	- Resources	- Reward
	- Opportunity	- Knowledge
		- Support

---

Therefore, the researcher believed that a more comprehensive empowerment measure that was specific to the context and subjects of the present study needed to be designed, applied and tested. The POSSE instrument was the result of this design, and contains 36 items distributed among the six components, which are measured on a five point Likert Scale, with a range of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The operational definitions of informal power, information and resources of the POSSE survey instrument are those contrived by Kanter (1977, 1993). The operational definitions of reward and knowledge are those established by Lawler (1986, 1992, 1996).

However, the items designed to measure the reward construct in the POSSE instrument are phrased to gauge officer perception of intrinsic rewards rather than extrinsic rewards. This is necessary to control for respondent bias as police officers generally feel under-compensated, and this perception may be exacerbated in this study as the responding officers will not receive a pay increase in the upcoming fiscal year. The component of organizational support was operationalized using the definition established by Butts et al. (2009). Also, as this study seeks data from non-supervisory personnel only, Kanter's component of formal power is omitted. The operational definitions of the POSSE constructs are:

**Informal Power (Kanter, 1977, 1993):** Vertical and Lateral relations and alliances in the organization that facilitate work objectives. 8 items.

**Information (Kanter):** Employees having knowledge of organizational decisions, policies and objectives. This creates a sense of meaning and purpose through which employees can contribute to organizational goals. 5 items.

**Support (Butts et al., 2009):** Employee perception that they are valued in the organization and that the organization cares about their well-being.

**Resources (Kanter):** Employees having access to the tangible items they require to do their job, including having adequate time. 6 items.

**Reward (Lawler, 1986, 1992, 1996):** Providing employees with intrinsic and extrinsic incentives in order to produce attitudes and behaviors that are beneficial to the organization. 5 items.

**Knowledge (Lawler):** Increasing employee efficacy through the acquisition of work skill training and education. 5 items.



### 3.3.2 Psychological Empowerment Measure

The mediating variables of psychological empowerment were operationalized and measured by utilizing Spreitzer's (1995) 16 item Psychological Empowerment Scale (please see Appendix D). This scale is designed to measure the four components of psychological empowerment: Meaning, Competence, Autonomy, and Impact. Each component is measured by four items on 5-point Likert Scales, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

The validity of the instrument has been repeatedly proven and it has been successfully used in over 50 studies (Spreitzer & Quinn, 2001). These include the research of Butts et al. (2009) and Laschinger et al. (2009). In addition, the Psychological Empowerment Instrument has proven reliability in varying work contexts (Spreitzer & Quinn), including law enforcement (Winegar, 2003).

### 3.3.3 Job Satisfaction Measure

This study operationalized officer job satisfaction as a dependent variable, which was measured with the Job in General Scale (JIG). The JIG is a global job satisfaction scale developed and validated by Balzer et al. (2000). These authors submit that the JIG scale was developed to evaluate an individual's global and long-term satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their job (please see Appendix E). Accordingly, Balzer et al. explain that "...items were chosen that were evaluative and global rather than descriptive and specific, and had a long-term, rather than a short-term, frame of reference" (p. 45).

Russell et al. (2004) report that the two most common methods of assessing job satisfaction in organizations is the use of facet and global surveys. Facet surveys treat job

satisfaction as a multidimensional construct and are frequently used to identify areas in which employees' satisfaction is acceptable or in need of improvement (Russell et al). Conversely, global job satisfaction measures gauge an overall affective judgment about one's job, and are applied in studies, such as the current research, where the interest is the relationship between organizational factors and the respondent's general feelings about the job ( Balzer et al., 2000; Russell et al.). Both Butts et al. (2009) and Laschinger et al. (2001) employed global job satisfaction scales in their studies, comprised of 5 items and 4 items, respectively. Researchers have successfully used the JIG in many studies and a myriad of occupational contexts (Russell et al.).

The JIG scale asks respondents to consider and rate eighteen global items that evaluate general job satisfaction (Balzer et al. 2000). Respondents answer yes for affirmative responses, no for non-affirmative responses, and “?” when they are undecided. The no response receives 0 points, the yes response receives 3 points, and the undecided response receives 1.5 points (Balzer et al.). The scale is generically quantified by summing the responses (0-54) to measure individual levels of job satisfaction (Balzer et al.)

#### 3.3.4 Job Stress Measure

Officer perception of stress was operationalized as a second dependent variable. This construct was measured with the Stress in General Scale (SIG) developed in 2001 by Stanton, Balzer, Smith, Parra, and Ironson (please see Appendix F). The SIG was validated as a measure of job stress that is distinct from general job satisfaction and as a

global stress measure rather than one that focuses on particular stressors or strains (Stanton et al.), which is a characteristic that is conducive to the objectives of this study.

After analyzing the instrument, Stanton et al. found that “All evidence converged on the existence of two distinct subscales, each of which measured a different aspect of work stress” (p. 866). One sub-scale demonstrated a high correlation with work stress generated by time pressure, thus this factor was labeled as the Pressure subscale (Stanton et al.). The second sub-scale, labeled by the researchers as the Threat subscale, was indicative of a more serious level of work stress that is associated with a “threatening and negative quality to the work experience” (Stanton, et al., p. 876).

In addition, Stanton et al. (2001) posit that the SIG provides broader construct coverage with greater brevity than do facet or component measures of stressors or strains. These researchers also demonstrated that the instrument is applicable to a wide range of occupational contexts and organizational levels. Also, Stanton et al. submit that researchers of occupational stress “might find the SIG helpful in statistically modeling environmental antecedents and consequences of job stress and for distinguishing them from the antecedents and consequences of job satisfaction” (p. 884).

It is also relevant to the present study to note that Stanton et al. (2001) report a basis for their development of the SIG was established by the previous work of Greller and Parsons (1988) who studied stress symptoms associated with the work stress of police personnel. Greller and Parsons developed an instrument utilizing nine adjectives (i.e. tense, relaxed), placed on a Likert scale, with each adjective (item) functioning as a report of the feeling of stress. Stanton et al. state that this instrument did not fully function but that “The list of adjectives, however, exhibited excellent psychometric

characteristics” (p. 869). These findings indicated that a general and brief stress measure could be developed that would have strong correlations with indicators of stress, yet would not be linked to specific stressors or strains (Stanton et al). Subsequently, the SIG has been successfully employed in the study of the general work stress of police officers (Kohan & O’Connor, 2002). Thus, the SIG appears to be very conducive to the methodology, sample population, and research questions of the present study.

The Stress in General Scale asks respondents to consider and rate 15 items describing their work environment. Each item is scored by assigning a numeric value to the responses. The NO (N) response receives 0 points, the Yes (Y) response receives 3 points, and the Undecided (?) response receives 1.5 points (Stanton et al. 2001). The responses are summed (0-45) to determine an individual level of work stress (Stanton et al.).

### 3.3.5 Demographic Measures

The factors of officer level of education, length of service and current assignment were operationalized as demographic variables (please see Appendix G). The research results concerning the relationship between officer demographic characteristics and officer perception of job satisfaction and officer perception of job stress have proven to be inconclusive (Dantzker, 1992; Zhao et al., 1999). However, Carlan (2007) observes that employee attitudes fluctuate between work contexts. Thus, as the named officer characteristics are the most salient in the study agency, the relationship between these and perception of structural empowerment, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and job stress were measured to better ensure the rigor of the study methodology.

The officer characteristic of education was measured by asking the respondent to mark the appropriate box on a general questionnaire. The level of education was formatted as: High School Diploma, Some College, Associate's Degree, Bachelor's Degree and Graduate Degree.

The demographic characteristic of officer length of service was measured by asking the respondent to mark the appropriate box on a general questionnaire. Officer length of service was formatted as: 1-5 years of service, 6-10 years of service, 11-15 years of service, and more than 16 years of service.

Last, the demographic characteristic of officer assignment was measured by asking the respondent to mark the appropriate box on a general questionnaire. Officer assignment was formatted as: Patrol (excluding traffic) or Other. The category of Other signifies all full-time specialty units.

### 3.4 Data Collection

The general survey questionnaire and specific survey instruments were compiled into six page packets. A cover letter was included in the packet that explained the purpose of the study and provided general instructions to the respondent. The cover letter also contained language emphasizing that participation in the study "was completely voluntary and absolutely confidential". A stamped and pre-addressed return envelope was included in the packet. Both the forwarding and return address on the envelope bore the home address of the researcher. None of the documents in the survey packet, or the envelopes used to send or receive the documents, were marked or coded in any way, thus ensuring respondent anonymity.

The survey packets were mailed by U.S. Post to the homes of the 98 (N = 98) sample group officers in the fall of 2010. It is germane to note that this data collection technique was used by Laschinger et al. in their 2001 study. The home addresses of the sample group officers was accessed and employed with the written permission of the Chief Executive Officer of the study agency.

A reminder letter was sent to the sample group officers approximately two weeks after the initial mailing. The letter asked the recipients to consider participating in the study and their response was needed within a suspense time of two weeks if they elected to participate.

A total of 56 (n = 56) completed survey packets were received, which constituted a 57% response rate from the sample group. All of the surveys were usable. No survey had omitted responses or contained erroneous or non-relative responses.

## CHAPTER 4. PRESENTATION OF THE DATA

### 4.1 Methodology of the Analysis

A mixed methods approach was used to analyze the study data. This strategy was desirable due to the exploratory nature of the study and the diversity of the applied and basic research questions, which precluded the use of a singular analysis technique or strategy. Analytical techniques that were successfully employed in previous like research were used to access the data and answer specific research questions. All the statistical analyses were performed with Predictive Analyzing Software (PASW) Statistics GradPack 18 (formerly SPSS Statistics GradPack). This software includes the capability to perform Structural Equation Model (SEM) analysis via the Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) program. Also, statistical guidance and assistance with data interpretation was provided to the researcher by consultants from the Purdue University Statistical Consulting Service.

The individual item responses from all 56 returned surveys were inputted into the data editor field of the PASW version 18 program. Principle component analysis and Chronbach's alpha tests were performed to measure the reliability of the instruments and to create optimally weighted sub- scales that were then employed in the descriptive and inferential analyses. The descriptive analyses included frequency distributions, descriptive statistics and tests for non-normality. The inferential analyses included AMOS modeling and standard multiple regression analysis.

## 4.2 Initial Reliability Analysis

All the instruments and the sub-components of the POSSE and psychological empowerment instrument were measured for reliability. This was performed with the Reliability Analysis function of the PASW v. 18 program, which provides an option for Cronbach's Alpha test. Also, the analyses were conducted using a function option that indicates the change in the alpha value of the scale if an item is deleted. The alpha test is designed to measure the internal consistency of an instrument to determine if all the items within the instrument measure the same thing (George & Mallery, 2003). Alpha is measured on the correlation coefficient scale of 0 to 1, and the closer the alpha is to 1, the greater the internal consistency of the items in the instrument being examined (George & Mallery). Yet, these authors caution that the alpha value is inflated by a large number of variables, and as such, no firm interpretation of what is an acceptable alpha value has been established. However, George and Mallery suggest "a rule of thumb that applies in most situations is:  $\alpha > .9$  – excellent,  $\alpha > .8$  – good,  $\alpha > .7$  – acceptable,  $\alpha > .6$  – questionable,  $\alpha > .5$  – poor,  $\alpha < .5$  – unacceptable" (p. 369).

The alpha for the cumulative POSSE instrument was .96, indicative that the instrument is very reliable. The initial alpha value for the informal power component was slightly questionable at .68. However, the test also revealed that one of the items, "My fellow officers often ask my opinion about work issues", had a value of - .13. The item was removed from the scale due to the negative value, which suggests that the item measures something opposite of what the other items measure (George & Mallery, 2003). The subsequent alpha value for the informal power component was an acceptable .73.



Acceptable alpha values were determined for the components of support ( $\alpha = .77$ ), reward ( $\alpha = .77$ ) and resources ( $\alpha = .69$ ). Also, the alpha values for information ( $\alpha = .70$ ) and knowledge ( $\alpha = .78$ ) were at sufficient levels.

The alpha value for the cumulative psychological empowerment instrument was good at .81. However, the alpha of the competency component ( $\alpha = .56$ ) fell into the poor range. It is believed that this score may reflect the eclectic work experience of the response group, with lesser experienced officer reporting feeling less competent, which may influence this value. The component was initially retained in further analyses due to the exploratory nature of the study.

Also, strong alpha values were determined for the construct components of meaning ( $\alpha = .85$ ) and impact ( $\alpha = .89$ ). The alpha value for the self-determination component was acceptable ( $\alpha = .69$ ).

The alpha value for the cumulative Job in General Scale was found to be high at .91. Also, the alpha value for the Stress in General Scale was good at .86. The alpha of the pressure component was found to be acceptable ( $\alpha = .76$ ) and the alpha of the threat component was strong ( $\alpha = .81$ ).

#### 4.3 Principle Component Analysis

Principle Component Analysis (PCA) was used to identify those items that accounted for the largest amount of variance in the respective constructs in order to create optimal revised scales to be used in further analyses. Blunch (2008) admonishes that such identifications are necessary to ensure that a scale summated from a group of items is uni-dimensional and measures only one concept. Principle component analysis, which is

one of a group of analytical techniques that are subsumed under the factor analysis suite, is commonly used to create optimal scales and consistently produces results nearly identical to exploratory factor analysis (Blunch). This technique is described by Bunch as a process “whereby a set of manifest variables (e.g. items) are transformed into new and fewer uncorrelated variables called *principle components*, each representing a dimension in the data” (p. 47).

Blunch (2008) posits that in order for a group of items to compose a reliable summated scale the analysis should result in the first un-rotated component accounting for a large portion of the total variance in the data, with 40% as a minimum. Then, each of the subsequent components should account for about an equal amount of variance and each item should have about equal weight in the calculation of the component score (Blunch). If these conditions are met, then the simple summation of item scores is equivalent to the component scores (Blunch). These requirements were strictly adhered to in performing the analyses and creating the subsequent revised scales.

The mean of the revised scales was used to create optimal construct sub-scales and aggregate scales conducive to measurement with descriptive and inferential analyses. Creating mean sub-scales for interval scale variables is a data conditioning technique previously used in similar research conducted by Carless (2004). Carless found that the use of sub-scale scores in the AMOS application kept the size of the tested models manageable by minimizing the number of indicators for the latent constructs.

The PCA of the POSSE constructs resulted in the retention of 4 of the 8 informal power items, which comprised 57% of the total construct variance. The analysis of the support construct resulted in the retention of 3 of the 7 original items, accounting for 69%

of the total variance, and 3 of the 5 reward items were selected as they explained 68% of the construct variance. The results regarding the knowledge construct indicated that 76% of the variance was explained by 3 of the original 5 variables, and 3 of the 5 initial items designed to tap the information construct were retained, accounting for 62% of the total variance.

Alpha tests on all the retained items were performed as is suggested by Blunch (2008). The results revealed acceptable levels for all constructs: Informal power ( $\alpha = .74$ ), support ( $\alpha = .75$ ), reward ( $\alpha = .76$ ), information (.71) and knowledge ( $\alpha = .84$ ). These alpha values indicate that the revised scales adequately capture the meaning of the constructs.

The analysis of the resources construct proved to be problematic. The results revealed that the items measured two dimensions, with one dimension being exclusive to equipment resources, and the other being comprised of the items designed to tap time and personnel resources. The two equipment resource items accounted for 87% of the total construct variance, whereas the time and personnel resource items explained 51% of the construct variance. Retaining both constructs was not a plausible remedy as a construct exclusive to only equipment was not theoretically sound. Simply stated, the equipment items tap only officer perceptions of equipment. Thus, it was decided to retain the time and personnel resources items to form the resources construct. However, this solution also proved to be somewhat troublesome as the subsequent alpha was questionable at .61. Yet, the resources component and resulting scale was retained in further analyses for exploratory purposes and to serve the interest of scientific rigor.

The results of the principal component analysis for the Psychological Empowerment Instrument indicated that all of the items should be retained for the meaning construct as they accounted for 70% of the total variance. Also, all of the items were retained for the self-determination and impact constructs, with total variances of 52% and 89%, respectively. The alpha values for the retained items proved to be sound: Meaning ( $\alpha = .86$ ), self-determination ( $\alpha = .69$ ) and impact ( $\alpha = .89$ ). The competency component analysis indicated that the items measured one component accounting for a total variance of 47%. However, the alpha remained poor at .56, although the construct was employed in further analyses for exploratory purposes.

The analysis for the Job in General scale indicated that 4 of the 18 items be retained as they accounted for 74% of the variance in the job satisfaction construct. The subsequent alpha value was good at .88.

As was reported by Stanton et al. (2001), the analysis of the Stress in General Scale indicated that the instrument measures two stress dimensions, pressure and threat. The analysis further revealed that 4 of the 7 pressure items accounted for 70% of the total construct variance, and that 3 of the 8 threat items accounted for 74% of the total variance for that construct. The subsequent alpha values were acceptable for the revised pressure scale ( $\alpha = .70$ ) and acceptable for the revised threat scale ( $\alpha = .74$ ).

#### 4.4 Descriptive Statistics

The categorical (demographic) variables of current assignment, length of service and level of education were analyzed using descriptive analysis via frequency distributions that identify the percentage of responses from the aggregate data that fall

into specific categories. It was deemed that defining the percentage distribution of the categorical variables carried the greatest descriptive import given the sample size and objectives of this study.

Table 2.  
*Frequency Distribution of Demographic Variables*

Variable	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative %
<b>Education</b>			
High School	5	8.9	8.9
Some College	17	30.4	39.3
Associate's	8	14.3	53.6
Bachelor's	26	46.4	100.0
Total	56	100	
<b>Service</b>			
1-5	14	25.0	25.0
6-10	13	23.2	48.2
11-15	14	25.0	73.2
16 or more	15	26.8	100.0
Total	56	100.0	
<b>Assignment</b>			
Patrol	37	66.1	66.1
Not Patrol	19	33.9	100.0
Total	56	100.0	

The results regarding current assignment indicated that the majority of the respondents, 37 (66.1%), were assigned to the Patrol Division. Nineteen of the respondents (33.9%) were currently assigned to specialty units.

Regarding length of service, the frequency distribution showed that 14 respondents (25%) had served 1 to 5 years. Additionally, 13 respondents (23.2%) had 6 to 10 years of service, 8 respondents (14.3%) had served 11 to 15 years, and 14 respondents (26.8%) who had served 16 or more years.

Descriptive statistics were obtained for all of the research variables. This analysis included the demographic variables, but as was previously mentioned, the frequency distributions were viewed as carrying the greatest import for these officer characteristics.

Table 3.  
*Descriptive Statistics*

Construct	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
<b>Demographic Variables</b>				
Education	2.9821	1.07011	-.425	-1.301
Service	2.5357	1.14359	-.053	-1.410
Assignment	1.3393	.47775	.693	-1.571
<b>Structural Empowerment</b>				
I Power	2.8616	.74760	-.091	-.180
Support	3.1846	.74873	-.245	-.742
Reward	2.9341	.85127	-.351	-.680
Resources	3.3286	.76287	-.646	.144
Information	2.8530	.72769	.337	-.702
Knowledge	3.3709	.85123	-.450	-.310
<b>Psychological Empowerment</b>				
Meaning	4.4314	.51367	-.842	-.372
Impact	2.2857	.82494	.376	.115
Self-Determination	3.9107	.50097	-.710	.961
<b>Dependent Variables</b>				
Job Satisfaction	2.4388	.88551	-1.743	1.908
Job Stress Pressure	1.5714	1.02011	.025	-1.263
Job Stress Threat	.8103	.89949	.979	-.302

The descriptive analysis of the aggregate POSSE scale, revealed a mean of 3.05 and a standard deviation of .57. This indicates that, based on a 1 to 5 scale and using the median value of 3 as the average, the respondents as a whole reported a slightly above average perception of structural empowerment within the organization.

The analysis of the component sub-scales revealed a mean of 3.18 and a standard deviation of .75 for support, a mean of 3.33 and standard deviation of .76 for resources, and a mean of 3.37 and a standard deviation of .85 for knowledge, indicating that the respondents had a moderately above average perception of access to these empowering structures. However, a slightly below average level of perception was indicated for the sub-scales of informal power, with a mean of 2.8 and a standard deviation of .75. The results for the reward component revealed a mean of 2.93 and a standard deviation of .85, and the information component had a mean of 2.85 and a standard deviation of .73. Thus, revealing a slightly below average perception of these components.

Tests for non-normality were performed on the POSSE data. George and Mallery (2003) submit that kurtosis and skewness values between plus and minus 2.0 is acceptable for most psychometric purposes. All the values for the data fell within this suggested range.

The descriptive statistics for the aggregate of the Psychological Empowerment Instrument data revealed a mean of 3.53 and a standard deviation of .44. As such, it was indicated that, based on a 1 to 5 scale and using the median value of 3 as the average, the respondents reported a moderately above average perception of psychological empowerment.

The analysis of the component sub-scale values showed a mean of 2.28 and a standard deviation of .82 for the impact component, reflecting that the sample group had a below average perception of exerting influence in the organization. However, the results revealed that the sample group held above average perceptions of competency, with a mean of 4.16 and a standard deviation of .46, and self-determination, with a mean of 3.91 and a standard deviation of .50. The meaning component sub-scale descriptors showed a mean of 4.4 and a standard deviation of .51. Thus, reflecting that the cumulative perception of police work being meaningful was well above average.

Tests for non-normality were also performed on the psychological empowerment data. The results indicated that there were no substantive violations of the normality assumption.

The aggregate mean for the Job in General scale was found to be 2.44, with a standard deviation of .50. Thus, it was indicated that, based on a 0 - 3 scale and using the median of 1.5 as the average, the respondents were highly satisfied with their jobs.

In regard to the pressure component of the Stress in General scale, the aggregate mean was found to be 1.57, with a standard deviation of 1.02. Indicating that as a group the respondents perceived a slightly above average degree of pressure induced work stress. Conversely, the mean of the threat component of the Stress in General Scale was found to be .81, with a standard deviation of .89. As such, it is indicated that the respondents as a whole perceived a very low degree of threatening work stress.

The tests of non-normality were performed on the data from the Job in General Scale and the Stress in General Scales. The results of these analyses indicated that there were no substantive violations of the normality assumption.



#### 4.5 Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) Models

As was previously mentioned, AMOS is the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) program in the PASW v.18 software. Byrne (2010) reports that SEM is a statistical methodology that uses a confirmatory approach, through hypothesis testing, to analyze structural theories thought to be related to some phenomenon. There are two important components in the SEM procedure. First, the relationships being examined are represented by a series of structural regression equations, and second, these structural relations can be graphically modeled to facilitate a clearer conceptualization of the theories being studied (Byrne). The theoretical model can then be statistically tested with a simultaneous analysis of all the incorporated variables to define the degree to which the model is consistent with the data (Byrne). The analysis supports the postulated relations among the variables in the model if the goodness-of-fit indices are adequate, however, if the fit indices are inadequate then the plausibility of these relations are rejected (Byrne). SEM use is advantageous to other multivariate procedures as it accesses error variance rather than assuming the disappearance of error variance, is able to analyze both manifest and latent variables, and provides a means to simultaneously measure an entire model composed of multivariate relationships (Byrne). However, AMOS is also capable of performing standard multivariate procedures including multiple regression analysis (Arbuckle, 2009; Blunch, 2008).

The use of AMOS modeling for this study was somewhat initially dubious due to the relatively small sample size ( $n = 56$ ). In general, SEM analysis is predicated under the assumption of large sample sizes (Blunch, 2008; Byrne, 2010). Loehlin (1992)

recommends a sample size of at least 100 cases, with 200 being preferable. Loehlin also cautions that the consequences of using a small sample size include increased convergence failures caused by the software being unable to reach a proper solution, improper solutions that include negative error variance estimates for measured variables, and a decrease in accurate measurement of parameter estimates. Conversely, Bentler and Chou (1987) note that smaller sample sizes may be used in SEM if the data is reasonably normal.

The choice to use AMOS analysis in this study was based in the exploratory research design, and the pragmatic limitation of SEM being the only practical means of testing the entire hypothesized study model. In addition, all tests for non-normality indicated that the properties of the data in general, and that of the revised scales specifically, were within acceptable ranges. Further, none of the potential small sample consequences enumerated by Loehlin (1992) were encountered in any of the subsequent AMOS analyses. It should be noted that the AMOS statistical output can be viewed in Appendix Tables A.1-A.16 and all standardized model diagrams can be viewed in Appendix Figures B.1-B.8.

All the models tested in this study were drawn into the AMOS graphics application and were analyzed using Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation, which determines the probability of obtaining the current data as a function of the parameters of the model Blunch (2008). Likewise, Byrne (2010) observes that maximum likelihood defines the extent to which the hypothesized model adequately fits the sample data.

There is little agreement in the literature concerning the best index of overall fit for evaluating structural equation models (Blunch, 2008; Byrne, 2010; Laschinger et al.

2001). The three fit indices used in this study were selected as they were among the fit indices used previously in similar research by Laschinger et al. (2001). These included each model's overall chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) value together with the attendant degrees of freedom and test statistic probability value. In addition, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and the Root Mean Square of Approximation (RMSEA), with a 90% confidence interval and the attendant Closeness of Fit (PCLOSE) value, were also employed in the analyses.

The overall chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) statistic represents the Likelihood Ratio Test, which tests the general null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) that the difference between the residuals of the hypothesized model and the true model ( $\Sigma - \Sigma(0) = 0$ ) is zero (Byrne, 2010). The probability associated with  $\chi^2$  defines the likelihood of obtaining a  $\chi^2$  value that exceeds the  $\chi^2$  value when  $H_0$  is true (Byrne). As such, higher probability values associated with  $\chi^2$  indicate a closer fit between the hypothesized model and a perfectly fit model (Blunch, 2008; Byrne). For example, a  $\chi^2$  value that produces a probability of less than .0001 ( $p < .0001$ ) reveals that the fit of the data to the hypothesized model is inadequate. A literal interpretation of this p-value indicates an unlikely event occurring less than one time in 1,000 opportunities (Byrne). Further, Blunch explains "In SEM analysis the null hypothesis is not performing its usual part as 'straw man', so we are interested in getting large values of p" (p. 106). However, authorities (Blunch, 2008; Byrne 2010; Laschinger et al., 2001) caution that the  $\chi^2$  statistic is problematic as it is very sensitive to sample size and is innately dubious for use due to theoretical models fitting real world data only approximately and never exactly. As such, the  $\chi^2$  statistic is used to evaluate general relative fit, and the use of additional fit indices is strongly recommended (Blunch; Byrne; Laschinger et al.).

The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) is a relative fit index that takes sample size into account (Byrne, 2010). This is a desirable characteristic given the sample size of this study as other relative fit indices underestimate fit in small samples (Byrne). Values for the CFI are derived from a comparison of the hypothesized model with the null model, and range from 0 to 1.0, with a value close to .95 indicating a well-fitting model (Byrne).

The third fit index used in this study was the Root Mean Square of Approximation (RMSEA), which has recently become recognized as one of the most informative fit indicators in structural modeling (Byrne, 2010). The RMSEA accounts for the error of approximation in the population, and asks the question “How well would the model, with unknown but optimally chosen parameter values, fit the population covariance matrix if it were available?” (Byrne, p. 80). RMSEA values less than .05 indicate good model fit (Byrne). Further, MacCullum and Austin (2000) strongly recommend routine use of the RMSEA as it appears to be sufficiently sensitive to model misspecification, is conducive to commonly used interpretative guidelines (significance level of .05) that produce valid conclusions regarding model quality, and, as it is possible to build confidence intervals around the reported values. Accordingly, AMOS reports a 90% confidence interval around the RMSEA value, with a narrow interval indicating good precision and reflecting model fit in the population (Byrne). In addition, AMOS also measures for the Closeness of Fit (PCLOSE), which tests the hypothesis that the RMSEA is “good” in the population (Byrne, p. 81). It is recommended that the p-value for this test be  $>.50$  (Byrne).

It is important to note that the fit indices in the AMOS output are depicted in tables with categories denoting the default model, the saturated model, and the independence model. Byrne (2010) suggests that these model categories be considered on

a continuum, with the independence model on one end, the saturated model on the other, and the default model somewhere in between. The default model is the hypothesized model being studied (Byrne). The independence model represents the null model where all the variables are completely independent, such that all the correlations among the variables are zero, thus this model is the most restricted (Byrne). In contrast, the saturated model is one where the number of estimated parameters equals the number of data points and is the least restricted (Byrne). Fit measures are provided for these models for comparative purposes as they suggest the limits between which the default model is placed (Blunch, 2008). However, the indices for the default model have the greatest import (Byrne), and were the focal values for this study.

In addition to the fit indices, the AMOS output provides tests of statistical significance for the model's parameter estimates, which function as regression coefficients (Blunch, 2008). The AMOS program refers to the regression coefficients as regression weights, and provides both unstandardized and standardized (Beta) values (Blunch). The test statistic used is the critical ratio (C.R.), which is derived from the division of the parameter estimate by its standard error (Byrne, 2010). As such, the C. R. operates as a z-statistic, testing if the estimate is statistically different from zero, with a probability level of .05 indicating statistical significance (Byrne).

Also, the AMOS program provides model Modification Indices (MI) that present a statistic for each fixed parameter in the model (Byrne, 2010). Specifically, this statistic represents the estimated change, in either a positive or negative direction, for each parameter in the model and provides valuable information that can be used to evaluate fit through the alteration of the parameters (Byrne). The MI values were frequently used in

the analyses to evaluate model fit. Alterations were cautiously and judiciously made that were well reasoned and theoretically sound as is admonished by Byrne (2010).

Last, the AMOS output provides squared multiple correlation ( $R^2$ ) values for each endogenous variable (Arbuckle, 2009). The squared multiple correlation values produced in AMOS are interpreted exactly as in standard regression analysis, where the  $R^2$  of a variable is the proportion of its variance that is explained by the predictor variables (Arbuckle).

#### 4.5.1 First - Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) Models

The optimal sub-scale items derived from the principle component analysis of the POSSE and psychological empowerment instruments were measured with first order confirmatory factor analysis models to determine data fit to the theorized constructs. Specifically, this application tested the hypothesis that structural empowerment is a multidimensional construct composed of six factors: Informal Power, Support, Reward, Resources, Information, and Knowledge. Likewise, this application tested the hypothesis that psychological empowerment is a multidimensional construct composed of four factors: Meaning, Competency, Self- determination, and Impact.

It should be emphasized that the psychological empowerment instrument has repeatedly been found to be a four factor structure, and is the premier measure of choice of the construct for which it was designed. However, it was critical to confirm that the data generated in this study also fit the established four factor structure.

The results of the initial first-order CFA model of the Structural Empowerment factors indicated that the data was a poor fit to the model ( $\chi^2 = 226$ ,  $df = 171$ ,  $p = .003$ ,  $CFI = .877$ ,  $RMSEA = .077$ ,  $PCLOSE = .070$ ). In addition, the parameter estimates for the resources factor, which may be recalled as being problematic in the previous principle component analysis, were not statistically significant at .05, indicating that they should be removed from the model. Byrne (2010) suggests that non-significant parameters are unimportant to the model and should be removed in the interest of scientific parsimony; however, all alterations must be made based on sound theoretical, statistical, and practical reasoning.

A second first-order CFA model was measured with the resources factor omitted, thus testing the hypothesis that structural empowerment is a multidimensional construct composed of five factors. The results revealed that the data fit well with the model ( $\chi^2 = 97$ ,  $df = 91$ ,  $p = .304$ ,  $CFI = .981$ ,  $RMSEA = .036$ ,  $PCLOSE = .641$ ). Also, all parameter estimates were significant at .05. As such, the analysis supported the hypothesis that structural empowerment is a five factor construct for the study data.

The first-order CFA model of the psychological empowerment items indicated adequate fit between the data and the model ( $\chi^2 = 105$ ,  $df = 94$ ,  $p = .202$ ,  $CFI = .969$ ,  $RMSEA = .047$ ,  $PCLOSE = .525$ ). All the parameters estimates were statistically significant at .05. Thus, the results supported the hypothesis that psychological empowerment is a multi-dimensional construct comprised of four factors.

#### 4.5.2 Second-Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) Models

Second-order CFA models were constructed and analyzed to test that the items identified via principle component analysis from among the respective responses to the POSSE instrument and the psychological empowerment instrument were a valid measure of these constructs. Specifically, the CFA model for the POSSE instrument hypothesized that the structural empowerment construct can be explained by five first-order factors (Informal Power, Support, Reward, Information and Knowledge), comprising one second-order factor (structural empowerment). Likewise, the CFA model for the psychological empowerment instrument hypothesized that this construct can be explained by four first-order factors (Competency, Meaning, Self-determination, and Impact), comprising one second-order factor (psychological empowerment).

The second-order CFA model of the POSSE instrument items revealed a good fit between the data and the model ( $\chi^2 = 99$ ,  $df = 96$ ,  $p = .391$ ,  $CFI = .991$ ,  $RMSEA = .025$ ,  $PCLOSE = .730$ ). All the parameter estimates were statistically significant at .05. The results confirmed the validity of the POSSE instrument and supported the hypotheses that the structural empowerment construct is explained by five first-order factors and one second-order factor.

The second-order CFA model of the psychological empowerment items indicated that the data fit the model well ( $\chi^2 = 92$ ,  $df = 94$ ,  $p = .522$ ,  $CFI = 1.00$ ,  $RMSEA = .000$ ,  $PCLOSE = .822$ ). All the parameter values were statistically significant at .05, with the exception of the impact and psychological empowerment parameter ( $p = .076$ ). However, this parameter was retained in the current model and initially in the analyses of subsequent causal models due to its closeness to statistical significance. Overall, the



results confirmed that the study data was a valid measure of the psychological empowerment construct. Also, the fit indices supported the hypotheses that the psychological empowerment construct is explained by four first-order factors and one second-order factor.

#### 4.5.3 Partial Causal Models

The objective in this portion of the data analysis process was to build and test individual partial causal models comprised of the structural empowerment (independent) construct, the psychological empowerment (mediating) construct and the job satisfaction and job stress (dependent) constructs. It is important to note that the use of the word causal in SEM does not infer causation between variables, which can only be achieved in controlled experiments. Rather, causal in SEM refers to the directional or linear relationship between variables (Blunch, 2008).

It was deemed logical and prudent that the individual hypothesized relationships between the study constructs should be tested independently prior to attempting a test of the full hypothesized model. Byrne (2010) submits that in causal models “The hypothesis to be tested argues for the validity of specified causal linkages among the variables of interest” (p.161).

The initial causal analysis of the structural empowerment and psychological empowerment constructs indicated that the data was a good fit with the model ( $\chi^2 = 24$ ,  $df = 26$ ,  $p = .542$ ,  $CFI = 1.00$ ,  $RMSEA = .000$ ,  $PCLOSE = .711$ ). All of the parameters estimates were statistically significant at .05, with the exception that the psychological empowerment and competency parameter was not significant ( $p = .340$ ). Further, the  $R^2$

value (.02) of competency indicated that this component only accounted for a miniscule amount of the variance in the psychological empowerment construct.

A second causal model of the SE and PE constructs was analyzed with the omission of the psychological empowerment and competency parameter. The results indicated an even stronger fit between the data and the model ( $\chi^2 = 13$ ,  $df = 19$ ,  $p = .789$ ,  $CFI = 1.0$ ,  $RMSEA = .000$ ,  $PCLOSE = .878$ ). Also, all the parameter estimates were statistically significant at .05. Specifically, the regression weight (Beta) of the structural empowerment and psychological empowerment pathway was .92, and was statistically significant at  $p = .032$ . In addition, the  $R^2$  value of structural empowerment (.85) indicated that this construct accounted for a great amount of variance in the psychological empowerment construct. Thus, the cumulative results indicated strong support for the hypotheses that the data composed a valid model and that there existed a strong positive relationship between structural empowerment and psychological empowerment.

The competency construct was retained in additional analyses in observance of scientific rigor. However, this retention was becoming increasingly suspect due to the lack of significance that had thus far emerged.

The initial partial causal model analysis of the structural empowerment, psychological empowerment and job satisfaction constructs revealed a very good fit between the data and the model ( $\chi^2 = 70$ ,  $df = 63$ ,  $p = .245$ ,  $CFI = .973$ ,  $RMSEA = .046$ ,  $PCLOSE = .518$ ). Additionally, all of the parameter estimates were statistically significant at .05, with the exception that the competency component was again non-significant ( $p = .342$ ).

A second model was analyzed with the competency and psychological empowerment parameter removed. The fit indices indicated an even stronger fit between the data and the model ( $\chi^2 = 53$ ,  $df = 52$ ,  $p = .404$ ,  $CFI = .993$ ,  $RMSEA = .025$ ,  $PCLOSE = .660$ ). Further, all the parameter estimates were statistically significant at .05, including the structural empowerment and psychological empowerment pathway ( $R^2 = .96$ ,  $\beta = .98$ ,  $p = .012$ ), and the psychological empowerment and job satisfaction pathway ( $R^2 = .52$ ,  $\beta = .72$ ,  $p = .011$ ). As such, the results showed a high degree of support for the hypotheses that the data formed a valid model, which included strong positive relationships between structural empowerment and psychological empowerment, and, between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction.

The competency component was retained in additional partial causal model analyses to determine if this empowering facet was significant in tests involving the job stress constructs. The competency component was also retained in the initial tests of the full causal model. This was done to achieve unequivocal confirmation that the construct was in fact not relevant to the model.

The analysis of the first partial causal model for the structural empowerment, psychological empowerment and job stress pressure constructs indicated proper fit between the data and the model ( $\chi^2 = 66$ ,  $df = 61$ ,  $p = .293$ ,  $CFI = .975$ ,  $RMSEA = .041$ ,  $PCLOSE = .569$ ). However, a review of the parameter estimates revealed that the competency and psychological empowerment parameter remained non-significant ( $p = .586$ ), yet all the other estimates were significant at .05.

An analysis of a second model that excluded the competency and psychological empowerment parameter indicated increased fit between the data and the model ( $\chi^2 = 52$ ,

df = 50, p = .373, CFI = .988, RMSEA = .031, PCLOSE = .626). Each of the parameter estimates were significant at .05. The structural empowerment and psychological empowerment estimate showed a strong positive relationship between the constructs ( $R^2 = .91$ ,  $\beta = .95$ , p = .011), and the psychological empowerment and job stress pressure estimate revealed a strong negative relationship between the constructs ( $R^2 = .47$ ,  $\beta = -.69$ , p = .015). The cumulative results indicated sound support for the hypotheses that the data formed a valid model, which included statistically significant relationships between structural empowerment, psychological empowerment and pressure induced job stress.

The analysis of the causal model for the structural empowerment, psychological empowerment and the job stress threat constructs indicated good fit between the data and the model ( $\chi^2 = 49$ , df = 51, p = .528, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .000, PCLOSE = .760). However, the competency and psychological empowerment parameter remained non-significant (p = .672). Yet, the other parameter estimates were significant at .05.

A second causal model of the mentioned constructs, minus the competency and psychological empowerment parameter was tested. This analysis revealed an increase in model fit ( $\chi^2 = 36$ , df = 41, p = .683, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .000, PCLOSE = .849). Also, all of the parameter estimates were significant at .05. Specifically, the structural empowerment and psychological empowerment parameter demonstrated a strong positive relationship between these constructs ( $R^2 = .97$ ,  $\beta = .98$ , p = .013). Also, the psychological empowerment and job stress threat parameter showed a strong negative relationship between these constructs ( $R^2 = .74$ ,  $\beta = -.86$ , p = .020). Thus, the cumulative results supported the hypotheses that the data fit the proposed model, and that statistically significant relationships existed between the model variables.

#### 4.5.4 Full Causal Model

The validity of the individual partial causal models suggested the likelihood that a full causal model would be validated. In addition, the results thus far indicated that the postulated relationships among the study variables would show statistical significance in a full causal model.

Initially, a full model was tested that included the competency and psychological empowerment parameter. Also, a direct pathway between psychological empowerment (mediating variable) and job stress threat was included, as it was theorized that the relationship between these constructs interacted independently of the other model parameters.

The results of the initial model indicated poor fit between the data and the model ( $\chi^2 = 223$ ,  $df = 161$ ,  $p = .001$ ,  $CFI = .867$ ,  $RMSEA = .084$ ,  $PCLOSE = .028$ ). The estimate of the psychological empowerment and job stress pressure parameter was not statistically significant ( $p = .060$ ), nor was the estimate of the psychological empowerment and job stress threat statistically significant ( $p = .072$ ). In addition, the competency and psychological empowerment parameter was again non-significant ( $p = .877$ ). A review of the modification indices revealed that the variable of job stress threat was dependent on job threat pressure and job satisfaction, and not dependent on psychological empowerment.

A second model was tested with dependent pathways drawn from job stress threat to job stress pressure and job satisfaction. The dependent pathway from job stress threat to psychological empowerment was removed. The results indicated a vast improvement

in fit ( $\chi^2 = 178$ ,  $df = 159$ ,  $CFI = .958$ ,  $RMSEA = .048$ ,  $PCLOSE = .524$ ). However, the competency and psychological empowerment parameter remained non-significant ( $p = .877$ ). All the other parameter estimates remained statistically significant at .05.

The final full causal model included the previous path alterations and omitted the competency and psychological empowerment parameter. The analysis revealed very good fit between the data and the model ( $\chi^2 = 153$ ,  $df = 141$ ,  $p = .216$ ,  $CFI = .972$ ,  $RMSEA = .041$ ,  $PCLOSE = .620$ ).

Table 4.  
*Fit Indices Full Causal Model*

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.758	.706	.974	.966	.972
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE	
Default model	.041	.000	.078	.620	
Independence model	.222	.204	.241	.000	

Additionally, all of the parameter estimates were statistically significant at .05. This included the structural empowerment and psychological empowerment parameter ( $R^2 = .96$ ,  $\beta = .98$ ,  $p = .005$ ), indicating a strong positive relationship. Also, the psychological empowerment and job satisfaction parameter indicated a strong positive relationship ( $R^2 = .69$ ,  $\beta = .54$ ,  $p = .012$ ). Further, the estimate of the psychological empowerment and job stress pressure parameter demonstrated a significant negative relationship ( $R^2 = .69$ ,  $\beta = -.42$ ,  $p = .022$ ). Likewise, the estimate of the job satisfaction

and job stress threat parameter showed a strong negative relationship ( $R^2 = .46, \beta = -.68, p < .001$ ), and the estimate of the job stress pressure and job stress threat parameter indicated a significant positive relationship ( $R^2 = .48, \beta = .69, p < .001$ ).

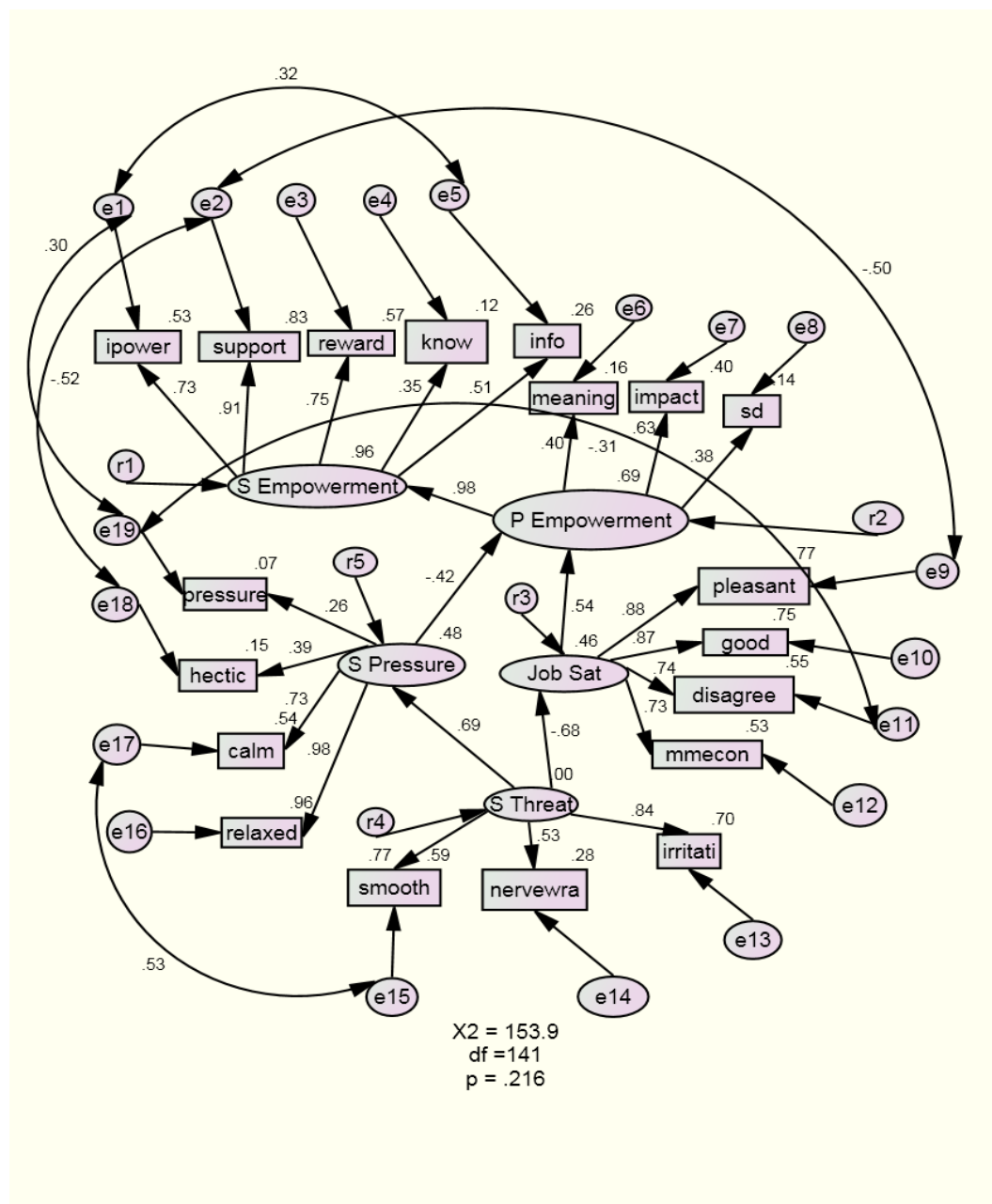


Figure 5. Full Causal Model

Table 5.  
*Regression Weights Full Causal Model*

		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
S Pressure	<--- S Threat	.816	.161	5.080	***
Job Sat	<--- S Threat	-.644	.139	-4.625	***
P Empowerment	<--- Job Sat	.105	.042	2.518	.012
P Empowerment	<--- S Pressure	-.065	.029	-2.291	.022
S Empowerment	<--- P Empowerment	2.537	.904	2.807	.005
ipower	<--- S Empowerment	1.000			
support	<--- S Empowerment	1.226	.183	6.686	***
know	<--- S Empowerment	.550	.218	2.518	.012
meaning	<--- P Empowerment	1.000			
impact	<--- P Empowerment	2.512	.909	2.763	.006
sd	<--- P Empowerment	.909	.427	2.128	.033
pleasant	<--- Job Sat	1.000			
good	<--- Job Sat	.882	.105	8.363	***
disagree	<--- Job Sat	.825	.124	6.652	***
mmecon	<--- Job Sat	.810	.127	6.363	***
smooth	<--- S Threat	.938	.161	5.837	***
hectic	<--- S Pressure	.425	.142	2.992	.003
pressure	<--- S Pressure	.295	.142	2.068	.039
info	<--- S Empowerment	.688	.158	4.361	***
reward	<--- S Empowerment	1.189	.211	5.623	***
irritati	<--- S Threat	1.000			
nervewra	<--- S Threat	.604	.157	3.861	***
relaxed	<--- S Pressure	1.000			
calm	<--- S Pressure	.782	.129	6.086	***

In addition, the analysis empirically demonstrated that psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between structural empowerment and job satisfaction and the pressure component of the job stress measure. In addition, the analysis demonstrated that the stress pressure component and the job satisfaction component mediated the relationship between psychological empowerment and the threat stress dimension. Baron and Kenny (1986) state that to demonstrate mediation “One must



establish strong relations between (a) the predictor and the mediating variable and (b) the mediating variable and some distal endogenous or criterion variable” (p. 1178). The strength of these relationships was demonstrated in the model.

Also, tests of non-normality were included in the analysis. All values of skewness and kurtosis were within or very close to the acceptable ranges recommended by George and Mallory (2003) and Byrne (2010).

Table 6.  
*Assessment of Normality Full Causal Model*

Variable	min	max	skew	c.r.	kurtosis	c.r.
info	1.660	4.330	.328	1.003	-.746	-1.139
pressure	.000	3.000	.178	.545	-1.939	-2.962
hectic	.000	3.000	.071	.217	-1.936	-2.957
calm	.000	3.000	-.233	-.711	-1.869	-2.855
relaxed	.000	3.000	-.109	-.334	-1.811	-2.767
smooth	.000	3.000	.659	2.013	-1.389	-2.121
nervewra	.000	3.000	1.046	3.194	-.809	-1.236
irritati	.000	3.000	.597	1.823	-1.495	-2.283
mmecon	.000	3.000	-.868	-2.651	-1.002	-1.530
disagree	.000	3.000	-1.263	-3.857	-.289	-.441
good	.000	3.000	-1.337	-4.086	.048	.074
pleasant	.000	3.000	-1.172	-3.581	-.489	-.747
sd	2.500	5.000	-.690	-2.109	.772	1.179
impact	1.000	4.750	.366	1.119	-.001	-.001
meaning	3.000	5.000	-.820	-2.504	.234	.358
know	1.330	5.000	-.438	-1.339	-.388	-.593
reward	1.330	4.330	-.342	-1.045	-.726	-1.109
support	1.330	4.330	-.238	-.728	-.783	-1.195
ipower	1.000	4.500	-.088	-.270	-.270	-.412
Multivariate					19.117	2.532

Byrne (2010) advises that no clear consensus has been established as to how large a value of kurtosis should be to consider it extreme. However, Byrne observes that, based on the literature, values equal to or greater than 7 are indicative of extreme kurtosis. A review of the normality assessment revealed that all kurtosis values are below the suggested level of concern. Further, a check of the index of multivariate kurtosis and the attendant critical ratio showed a value of 2.5. Byrne posits that values greater than 5 are indicative of data that are non-normally distributed. Thus, there is no indication that the model data violates the normality assumption.

To summarize, the cumulative analysis of the final full causal model indicated firm support of the hypothesis that the study data fit the hypothesized model. Also, the results provided empirical support for the existence of statistically significant relationships among the study variables.

#### 4.5.5 Multiple Regression Model of Manifest Variables

A multiple regression model drawn into AMOS graphics was used to test for the potential influence that the demographic variables might impose upon the relationships established in the full causal model. The regression model contained only manifest variables comprised of the optimal sub-scales of the interval variables and the internally computed values for the demographic variables (please see Appendix Figure B.9).

The regression analysis revealed that no statistically significant relationships existed between psychological empowerment and any of the demographic variables. In addition, the only statistically significant relationship between any of the demographic variables and the dependent variables occurred between assignment and job satisfaction

( $p = .021$ ). However, the regression model is not able to extrapolate the specific nature of this relationship. In the interest of clarity and scientific rigor an Independent Samples T-Test was performed using the assignment and job satisfaction variables (please see Appendix Tables A.17, A.18 and A.18.1). The results indicated that the respondents who were assigned to patrol had a job satisfaction mean of 2.2858, whereas the respondents who had non-patrol assignments had a job satisfaction mean of 2.7368, yielding a mean difference of .45103. The difference between group means was statistically significant at the same level determined in the regression model ( $p = .021$ ). As such, it is indicated that those respondents who are assigned to non-patrol duties have a slightly higher level of job satisfaction than those who are assigned to patrol duties. However, it should be recognized that the patrol officers in this study report a very high level of job satisfaction.

#### 4.5.6 Multiple Regression Analysis

Standard multiple regression (stepwise) analyses were used to determine which of the empowerment facets wielded the greatest influence upon the dependent variables (please see Appendix Tables A.19-A.24). The use of regression analysis was necessary as the AMOS analysis is not able to extrapolate which of these attendant criterion variables have the greatest direct impact upon the dependent variables as they are linked to intervening latent constructs within the SEM model. Carless (2004) employed this type of mixed analysis methodology in similar research. Doing so creates the advantage of being able to perform a “more fine grained analysis of the specific components of empowerment that are important” (Carless, p. 416).

The stepwise multiple regression function in PASW v. 18 is a form of hierarchical regression where each variable is entered in sequence and its value assessed (Brace, Kemp, & Snelgar, 2003). If the added variable contributes to the model, then it is retained and all the other variables in the model are re-tested to ensure their contribution is significant (Brace et al.) Variables that make no significant contribution are removed from the model, ensuring that the smallest number of predictor variables are identified (Brace et al.).

Three stepwise regression models were analyzed. Each model consisted of the five structural empowerment components and the four psychological empowerment components entered as predictor variables, and, with job satisfaction, job stress pressure or job stress threat, respectively, entered as criterion variables.

The analysis of the job satisfaction model revealed a statistically significant relationship with the empowerment components of support and self-determination ( $R^2 = .47$ ,  $\beta = .549$ ,  $.293$ ,  $F = 25.2$ ,  $p = .011$ ). These same two components were also statistically significant in the job stress pressure model ( $R^2 = .40$ ,  $\beta = -.488$ ,  $-.299$ ,  $F = 19.0$ ,  $p = .027$ ). However, support and meaning were the statistically significant components in the job stress threat model ( $R^2 = .45$ ,  $\beta = -.498$ ,  $-.342$ ,  $F = 23.4$ ,  $p = .002$ ). Thus, these findings indicate that the empowering component of support exerts the greatest predictive influence on perception of job satisfaction and on perceptions of both the dimensions of job stress. Also, self-determination emerged as an attenuated predictor of job satisfaction and job stress pressure, and, meaning emerged as an attenuated predictor of job stress threat.

## CHAPTER 5. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### 5.1 Conclusions

This study examined the antecedents and consequences of empowerment in a traditionally structured and managed medium-sized municipal police agency. The components of the antecedent facet were operationalized as structural empowerment and psychological empowerment. The latter was defined as the degree to which front line officers perceive having access to empowering mechanisms (Informal Power, Support, Reward, Information, Resources and Knowledge) within the organization. The former was defined as four dimensions of individual thoughts and perceptions (Impact, Self-determination, Competency and Meaning) that affect work behavior, which result from the cognitive interpretation of structural empowerment. The literature contends that structural empowerment and psychological empowerment are distinct constructs, and that psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between structural empowerment and individual affective attitudes.

The consequential components of the study were the individual affective attitudes of officer job satisfaction and officer work stress. Job satisfaction was operationally defined as the degree to which the respondent officers were happy with their jobs. Job stress was operationally defined as the degree of work related negativity perceived by the officers that is induced by work demands exceeding the officers' ability to meet or alter those demands.

This study was motivated by both basic and applied research objectives, which were framed within six research questions:

1. What levels of job satisfaction and job stress are the officers of the study agency experiencing?
2. Does a statistically significant relationship exist between structural empowerment and psychological empowerment?
3. Does a statistically significant relationship exist between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction?
4. Does a statistically significant relationship exist between psychological empowerment and job stress?
5. Do the demographic variables of officer length of service, level of education and type of assignment influence the relationships described in research questions 1 through 4?
6. Assuming that statistical significance is achieved for questions 2 through 5, which of the empowerment components account for the largest variance in the dependent variables?

The first research question was very generic, yet very important to the researcher, and simply sought an empirical determination as to the innate job satisfaction and job stress levels perceived by the responding officers. The analysis of the data generated by the Job in General and the Stress in General Scales indicated that, as a group, the responding officers were very satisfied with their jobs. Also, the findings indicated that the respondent officers perceived a moderate degree of pressure induced work stress and a very low degree of threat induced work stress. It is proper to recount that pressure induced work stress is associated with time constraints, that when perceived as excessive, can induce a high degree of negative affectivity. However, this perception being collectively reported as moderate indicates that pressure related stress within the focus

organization is at a manageable level. Overall, the findings auger well for the study agency as they suggest a psychologically healthy and functional first line officer force.

Research questions 2 through 4 were incorporated into a hypothesized model that was tested with SEM analysis. The results indicated that the model, including the POSSE instrument, was valid and that statically significant relationships existed between the incorporated variables. The initial result of import was the significance of the structural empowerment and psychological empowerment correlation (Research Question 2). A strong positive relationship between these constructs was established, indicating that as officer perception of structural empowerment increases a corresponding increase in perception of psychological empowerment also occurs. This finding is consistent with those of previous studies (Butts et al., 2009; Carless, 2004; Laschinger et al.,2001 ). In addition, this finding further elaborates the existing evidence that structural empowerment and psychological empowerment are distinct constructs and that the latter is influenced by the former (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Lawler et al., 1992; Spreitzer, 2005; Spreitzer et al., 2007). In addition, the findings of this study further the evidence that these relationships transcend occupational and organizational contexts.

Next, the statistically significant relationship established between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction (Research Question 3) demonstrated a strong positive correlation between the constructs. This finding is also consistent with that of previous research (Butts et al., 2009; Carless, 2004; Laschinger et al., 2001), indicating that as perception of psychological empowerment increases there is a corresponding increase in perception of job satisfaction. Further, this finding also augments the previously

established evidence that psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between structural empowerment and individual affective attitudes ( Butts et al.; Carless; Laschinger et al.; Spreitzer, 2005; Spreitzer et al., 2007).

The significant relationship demonstrated between psychological empowerment and both the pressure and threat dimensions of the Stress in General Scale (Research Question 4) indicated a strong negative association between the constructs. Thus, further confirming the existence and nature of this relationship as previously reported by Butts et al. (2009) and Laschinger et al. (2001), reflecting that as perception of psychological empowerment increases there is a corresponding decrease in perception of work related stress. However, it is important to note that the methodology of this study deviated somewhat from that employed by Laschinger et al. These researchers theorized not only that a negative relationship existed between psychological empowerment and job strain (the initial manifestation of work stress), but that there was also a simultaneously occurring negative association between job strain and job satisfaction. As such, Laschinger et al. intentionally tested for and confirmed the negative correlation between these variables. The difference between the studies lies in that the present study did not intentionally theorize or intentionally test the stress-satisfaction relationship, rather, the test and the resulting significant negative correlation occurred innately in the data analysis process. This occurrence is noteworthy as it provides further confirmation of the influence wielded by psychological empowerment upon the job satisfaction and job stress relationship. In addition, this concurrence further buttresses the body of evidence supporting the mediating quality exerted by psychological empowerment between structural empowerment and affective work related attitudes.



The answer to Research Question 4 was produced through the results of a multiple regression analysis that indicated no statistically significant relationships existed between officer perception of psychological empowerment and the demographic variables of length of service, level of education or type of assignment. This finding likely adds to the body of police management knowledge as it appears to be the first time the relationship between psychological empowerment and officer demographic characteristics was measured.

In addition, the relationship between type of assignment and job satisfaction was the only statistically significant relationship found between the demographic variables and the dependent variables. A subsequent independent samples t-test of this relationship elucidated that officers assigned to non-patrol duties had a slightly higher degree of job satisfaction than those officers who are assigned to the patrol function. These mixed findings are consistent with the extant literature which is replete with conflicting results regarding the relationship between officer demographic characteristics and officer affective attitudes (Carlan, 2007; Zhoa et al., 1999). However, the significant relationship between type of assignment and level of job satisfaction found in this study coincides with the same result reported by Hoath, Schneider and Starr (1998) and Slate et al. (2007).

The answer to the final research question was provided through the application of multiple regression analyses. The results of these tests indicated the empowerment constructs of support and self-determination accounted for the greatest amount of variance in job satisfaction.

The finding of support being a significant predictor of job satisfaction is consistent with that reported by Butts et al. (2009). Also, the finding of the influence exerted by self-determination upon job satisfaction is likewise consistent with similar results reported in previous research (Thomas & Tymon, 1994; Spreitzer et al., 1997).

Further, the empowering constructs of support and self-determination explained the largest amount of variance in the pressure dimension of job stress. Previous studies reported finding support (Butts et al., 2009) and self-determination (Matteson & Ivancevich, 1987) to be predictive of job stress. Also, support accounted for a large degree of variance in the threat dimension of job stress. However, this stress dimension was also influenced by the empowering facet of meaning. The meaning construct being significantly predictive of job stress was also previously determined by Spreitzer et al. (2007).

Overall, the findings of this study empirically demonstrate that empowerment has direct effects on both officer perception of job satisfaction and officer perception of job stress. It was further demonstrated that these effects transcend the demographic characteristics of officer length of service, level of education and type of assignment. As such, police leaders should consider increasing officer access to empowering structures within the organization, which would induce a corresponding increase in the officers' feelings of personal empowerment. The expansion of personal empowerment would then produce an increase in collective job satisfaction and reduce collective job stress. It is logical to believe that a more satisfied and less stressed police force would provide a higher quality of service to the community, and would enhance the police-citizen partnership.

The emergence of support as a salient and strong predictor of job satisfaction and job stress indicates that adequate management provision and officer perception of this structure is critical to front line officer function and wellness. Thus, police leaders should do all possible to ensure that officers perceive that their presence in the organization is highly valued, and, that their well-being and professional needs are the highest priority.

Further, the emergence of self-determination as a salient predictor of job satisfaction and job stress further suggests the propriety of reducing the previously discussed police control paradox through increasing officer access to the self-determination component. This could be accomplished by allowing front line officers to formally participate in the administrative operations of the organization. Such participation could include policy formulation, consulting on budgetary matters, administrative planning, and training formulation and implementation.

Also, the finding of the predictive influence of self-determination in this study is highly suggestive that access to this empowering component is critical to any police function, regardless of specific individual assignment or type of service delivery operation. To elaborate, the COP literature robustly indicates that officer autonomy is paramount to the success of this service delivery strategy (Adams et al., 2002; Giacomazzi et al., 2004; Pelfrey, 2004; Rosenberg, et al. 2008). However, since most of the responding officers in this study, like the vast majority of American police officers, are assigned to traditional reactive patrol duties it becomes readily apparent that the ability to be self-determined is also critical to the success of this mode of police service delivery. Thus, the collective body of evidence indicates the importance of driving authority and decision-making capability downward within the law enforcement

organization. Thereby, permitting officers to have the utmost control in their work roles, which is imperative to the success of any service delivery strategy that is in action.

Perhaps, the most crucial empowering element that emerged in this research is the structure of meaning, and its predictive influence on job stress. It is cogent to postulate that the very definition of the meaning construct, a work role that fits personal beliefs, values and behaviors, is the reason that most officers were drawn to the police service. As such, police managers should do all that is reasonably possible to sustain the officers' perception of meaning in their organizational role. Doing so is critical to officer wellness and thus to positive interactions with the community. The findings of this research suggest that this can be accomplished by ensuring that the customs and practices of the organization facilitate officer access to internal empowering structures.

## 5.2 Recommendations

From a basic research prospective, the global objective of this study was to explore the empirical validity of the postulated relationships and the validity of the hypothesized model within which these theories were incorporated. This included the design and testing of an original research instrument, the POSSE scale, through which the independent study variables were defined. Essentially, this research was a pilot study, the small scope of which was compelled by the use of an unprecedented methodology and unprecedented research objectives, to determine if ample scientific validity existed to support a much broader examination of the hypothesized model. The cumulative findings of this research, including the replication of results reported in previous large scale studies, established a sufficient a priori theoretical justification for a

much broader examination. As such, it is strongly recommended that the study model be tested with a considerably larger sample drawn from police agencies from across a wide geographic region. Doing so would potentially bring further validation to the hypothesized model and determine if the same or similar results could be replicated in order to improve the generalizability of the findings. If the subsequent larger study data is sufficiently strong, a basis would be presented to test the model in an intervention setting where the conditions under which officers work are actually changed to be more empowering. Such an intervention could be in the form of the Leadership Team initiative implemented by the Broken Arrow (Oklahoma) Police Department.

In addition, the objectives of a larger study would be optimized by including command level officers in the sample group. Doing so would likely provide insights into the empowerment perceptions and resulting affective attitudes of these essential personnel. It should not be assumed that empowerment, especially in a paramilitary oriented context, inherently increases with rank, and the inclusion of first line and middle level command officers in the study would elucidate this relationship. It could also be theorized that a direct relationship exists between first-line officer perceptions of empowerment and command officer perceptions of empowerment. This theory could be tested in a subsequent study.

Also, the officer demographic characteristics of race and gender should be included in subsequent research. This inclusion would enhance scientific rigor and potentially determine if these demographic characteristics influence the empowerment-affective attitude association.

As has been described, the resources component of structural empowerment tested in the current study was problematic. Specifically, the data resulting from this portion of the POSSE sample revealed that the items designed to tap the resources perception were reasonably effective in doing so, however, the subsequent principle component analysis demonstrated the emergence of two resource dimensions; one consisting of equipment resources and the other being a combination of time and human resources. In remedy, only the time and human resources dimension was used in the subsequent analyses. However, it may be recalled that the resources component was excluded from the full causal model as it was found to be highly non-significant in the first-order CFA analysis. The non-significance of the resources component is not unprecedented as Spreitzer (1996) experienced the same result. Further, Spreitzer observed that people can be empowered in spite of limited resources and admonished that further research is necessary before any firm conclusions regarding the relationship between resources and empowerment can be drawn. Accordingly, it is recommended that a larger study retain and measure the resources structure to determine if the same or alternative findings occur, with modifications to the resource structure items being made as dictated by those findings. Accordingly, this recommendation aligns with Clark and Watson's (1995) comment that the work of refining a scale is never complete. Additionally, it is also possible that the results of the present study in this area may be a caveat product of cross-sectional research involving a single agency, which may be resolved through a broader examination.

Although the competency dimension was ultimately found to not be statistically significant in the present study, it is not an overly distressing occurrence. Spreitzer et al.

(1997) demonstrated that the different components of psychological empowerment are related to different outcomes. In concurrence, Laschnger et al. (2004) posit that not all aspects of empowerment may be important for all jobs or all people. Yet, the repeated finding of the significance of competency in previous studies (Gecas, 1989; Thomas & Tymon, 1994; Spreitzer et al.) justifies the further testing of this component in a law enforcement context. As such, it is recommended that the empowering component of competency be retained and measured in future research of the hypothesized model. As was postulated with the resources component, the competency component's lack of statistical significance in this study may be a product of cross-sectional data.

In summary, this exploratory study has basic research value as it makes a contribution, albeit modest, to the existing body of empowerment and police management literature. The findings suggest that empowerment theory is conducive to study in a law enforcement context, and that these managerial practices would produce the same positive organizational and individual outcomes that have been reported in similar research of the private sector. In addition, the results of this research identifies specific factors internal to the organization, in the form of empowering structures, that have direct statistically significant correlations to police officer dissatisfaction and stress.

Yet, perhaps the most important product of this study is the genesis of a methodology that police leaders can employ to identify and potentially reduce the causes of internally created negative affectivity. As such, a foundation is tendered toward achieving what Wycoff and Skogan (1993) admonished nearly two decades ago; high quality police service is first generated inside the organization and then radiated outward to the community.

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## APPENDICES

## Appendix A. Statistical Tables

Table A.1  
*Fit Indices First-Order CFA SE*

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.790	.723	.983	.975	.981
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE	
Default model	.036	.000	.083	.641	
Independence model	.228	.206	.250	.000	

Table A.2  
*Regression Weights First-order CFA SE*

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
comop	<---	IP	1.000			
empenvi	<---	IP	.676	.191	3.537	***
indepdec	<---	IP	.908	.237	3.826	***
insercon	<---	IP	1.049	.213	4.927	***
jobsat	<---	S	1.000			
addsupp	<---	S	.389	.091	4.257	***
wellbe	<---	S	.980	.150	6.540	***
valcon	<---	REW	1.000			
evalacc	<---	REW	1.004	.211	4.766	***
dreward	<---	REW	.806	.184	4.377	***
satqualt	<---	K	1.000			
adopp	<---	K	1.027	.191	5.377	***
sattrop	<---	K	1.288	.236	5.464	***
keepinfo	<---	I	1.000			
dadinput	<---	I	1.869	.536	3.487	***
openline	<---	I	1.396	.431	3.239	.001

Table A.3  
*Fit Indices First Order CFA PE*

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.784	.724	.971	.961	.969
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE	
Default model	.047	.000	.089	.525	
Independence model	.236	.214	.258	.000	

Table A.4  
*Regression Weights First-order CFA PE*

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
conjjob	<---	C	1.000			
scopabil	<---	C	.888	.340	2.610	.009
capabil	<---	C	1.720	.550	3.126	.002
workimp	<---	M	1.000			
permean	<---	M	1.176	.219	5.371	***
carejob	<---	M	.773	.131	5.902	***
workmean	<---	M	1.430	.240	5.950	***
sigauto	<---	S	1.000			
decidewk	<---	S	.830	.243	3.415	***
siginflu	<---	I	1.000			
opcounst	<---	I	.911	.098	9.335	***
gdcont	<---	I	1.088	.101	10.727	***
imlarge	<---	I	.667	.126	5.287	***
oppinfre	<---	S	1.493	.360	4.152	***
perin	<---	S	.427	.172	2.484	.013
mastskil	<---	C	1.555	.624	2.491	.013



Table A.5  
*Fit Indices Second-Order CFA SE*

Model		NFI	RFI	IFI	TLI	CFI
		Delta1	rho1	Delta2	rho2	
Default model		.786	.732	.991	.988	.991
Saturated model		1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90			PCLOSE
Default model	.025	.000	.077			.730
Independence model	.228	.206	.250			.000

Table A.6  
*Regression Weights Second-Order CFA SE*

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
REW	<---	STRUCT. EMP	.568	.134	4.236	***
SUPP	<---	STRUCT. EMP	1.000			
IP	<---	STRUCT. EMP	.768	.199	3.866	***
KN	<---	STRUCT. EMP	.425	.158	2.695	.007
IN	<---	STRUCT. EMP	.443	.149	2.971	.003
comop	<---	IP	1.000			
empenvi	<---	IP	.842	.237	3.554	***
indepdec	<---	IP	1.029	.286	3.598	***
insercon	<---	IP	1.203	.272	4.418	***
jobsat	<---	SUPP	1.000			
addsupp	<---	SUPP	.403	.102	3.967	***
wellbe	<---	SUPP	.945	.173	5.476	***
valcon	<---	REW	1.000			
evalacc	<---	REW	1.465	.366	4.005	***
dreward	<---	REW	1.421	.339	4.190	***
satqualt	<---	KN	1.000			
adopp	<---	KN	1.046	.195	5.376	***
sattrop	<---	KN	1.278	.236	5.418	***
keepinfo	<---	IN	1.000			
dadinput	<---	IN	1.755	.503	3.491	***
openline	<---	IN	1.471	.452	3.251	.001

Table A.7  
Fit Indices Second-Order CFA PE

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.810	.757	1.004	1.005	1.000
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE	
Default model	.000	.000	.070	.822	
Independence model	.236	.214	.258	.000	

Table A.8  
Regression Weights Second-Order CFA PE

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
S	<---	PSYCH EMP	<u>.677</u>	.342	1.979	.048
I	<---	PSYCH EMP	.763	.431	1.772	.076
M	<---	PSYCH EMP	1.000			
C	<---	PSYCH EMP	.765	.342	2.235	.025
capabil	<---	C	1.000			
conjob	<---	C	.574	.188	3.062	.002
scopabil	<---	C	.457	.176	2.591	.010
sigauto	<---	S	1.000			
decidewk	<---	S	.744	.228	3.265	.001
oppinfre	<---	S	1.415	.339	4.174	***
workmean	<---	M	1.000			
carejob	<---	M	.562	.120	4.698	***
permean	<---	M	.858	.140	6.128	***
workimp	<---	M	.713	.116	6.139	***
signinflu	<---	I	1.000			
opcounts	<---	I	.939	.105	8.941	***
gdcont	<---	I	1.175	.107	10.986	***
imlarge	<---	I	.718	.134	5.371	***
perin	<---	S	.411	.167	2.457	.014
mastskil	<---	C	1.010	.340	2.966	.003

Table A.9  
*Fit Indices Partial Causal Model SE-PE*

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.906	.862	1.039	1.062	1.000
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE	
Default model	.000	.000	.079	.878	
Independence model	.280	.237	.325	.000	

Table A.10  
*Regression Weights Partial Causal Model SE-PE*

		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Structural Empowerment	<--- Psychological Empowerment	3.429	1.600	2.143	.032
sd	<--- Psychological Empowerment	1.000			
impact	<--- Psychological Empowerment	3.319	1.435	2.313	.021
meaning	<--- Psychological Empowerment	1.156	.612	1.890	.059
reward	<--- Structural Empowerment	1.000			
know	<--- Structural Empowerment	.462	.182	2.540	.011
info	<--- Structural Empowerment	.643	.151	4.251	***
support	<--- Structural Empowerment	1.004	.152	6.600	***
ipower	<--- Structural Empowerment	.857	.151	5.673	***

Table A.11  
*Fit Indices Partial Causal Model SE-PE-Job Satisfaction*

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.839	.796	.994	.991	.993
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE	
Default model	.025	.000	.091	.660	
Independence model	.272	.244	.301	.00	

Table A.12  
*Regression Weights Partial Causal Model SE-PE-Job Satisfaction*

			Est.	S.E.	C.R.	P
Psych_Emp	<---	Job Satisfaction	.128	.051	2.502	.012
Struct_Emp	<---	Psych_Emp	2.854	1.116	2.556	.011
ipower	<---	Struct_Emp	1.000			
support	<---	Struct_Emp	1.205	.183	6.570	***
reward	<---	Struct_Emp	1.164	.207	5.627	***
info	<---	Struct_Emp	.740	.180	4.105	***
know	<---	Struct_Emp	.554	.214	2.585	.010
sd	<---	Psych_Emp	1.000			
impact	<---	Psych_Emp	2.777	1.081	2.568	.010
meaning	<---	Psych_Empo	1.043	.509	2.047	.041
pleasant	<---	Job Satisfaction	1.000			
good	<---	Job Satisfaction	.866	.108	7.997	***
disagree	<---	Job Satisfaction	.847	.128	6.615	***
mmecon	<---	Job Satisfaction	.823	.128	6.452	***

Table A.13  
Fit Indices Partial Causal Model SE-PE- Job Stress Pressure

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.815	.756	.989	.984	.988
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Model		RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model		.031	.000	.094	.626
Independence model		.245	.216	.275	.000

Table A.14  
Regression Weights Partial Causal Model SE-PE-Job Stress Pressure

		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Psych_Emp	<--- Job Stress Pressure	-.097	.040	-2.429	.015
Struct_Emp	<--- Psychological_Emp	2.746	1.077	2.549	.011
ipower	<--- Structural_Emp	1.000			
support	<--- Structural_Emp	1.181	.182	6.477	***
reward	<--- Structural_Emp	1.165	.208	5.611	***
info	<--- Structural_Emp	.681	.156	4.377	***
know	<--- Structural_Emp	.511	.215	2.382	.017
sd	<--- Psychological_Emp	1.000			
impact	<--- Psychological_Emp	2.849	1.102	2.586	.010
meaning	<--- Psychological_Emp	1.076	.517	2.082	.037
relaxed	<--- Job Stress Pressure	1.000			
calm	<--- Job Stress Pressure	.772	.141	5.484	***
hectic	<--- Job Stress Pressure	.381	.140	2.713	.007
pressure	<--- Job Stress Pressure	.289	.147	1.967	.049

Table A.15  
*Fit Indices SE-PE-Job Stress Threat*

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.811	.756	1.006	1.009	1.000
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE	
Default model	.000	.000	.083		.760
Independence model	.233	.204	.263		.000

Table A.16  
*Regression Weights Partial Causal Model SE-PE-Job Stress Threat*

		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Psychological_Emp	<---Job Stress_Threat	-.167	.071	-2.352	.019
Structural_Emp	<---Psychological_Emp	2.998	1.198	2.503	.012
ipower	<---Structural_Emp	1.000			
support	<---Structural_Emp	1.180	.183	6.459	***
reward	<---Structural_Emp	1.215	.208	5.844	***
info	<---Structural_Emp	.756	.181	4.173	***
know	<---Structural_Emp	.559	.215	2.599	.009
sd	<---Psychological_Emp	1.000			
impact	<---Psychological_Emp	3.013	1.220	2.470	.014
meaning	<---Psychological_Emp	1.135	.558	2.032	.042
smooth	<---Job Stress_Threat	1.000			
irritati	<---Job Stress_Threat	1.146	.231	4.959	***
nervewra	<---Job Stress_Threat	.738	.204	3.622	***
comp	<---Psychological_Emp	.154	.363	.423	.672

Table A.17  
*Regression Weights Manifest Variables Model*

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
pe	<---	se	.436	.086	5.050	***
ed	<---	pe	-.132	.329	-.402	.687
service	<---	pe	-.172	.351	-.492	.623
assign	<---	pe	.146	.146	1.005	.315
jsat	<---	ed	-.059	.107	-.550	.582
sigp	<---	ed	.134	.125	1.075	.282
sigt	<---	assign	.026	.253	.103	.918
sigp	<---	assign	.292	.279	1.046	.296
sigt	<---	ed	-.003	.113	-.030	.976
jsat	<---	assign	.553	.240	2.304	.021
jsat	<---	service	-.111	.100	-1.105	.269
sigp	<---	service	.101	.117	.870	.384
sigt	<---	service	.061	.106	.576	.565

Table A.18  
*Independent T-Test Group Statistics Assignment-Job Satisfaction*

	assign	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
jsat	patrol	37	2.2858	1.03055	.16942
	not patrol	19	2.7368	.36059	.08273

Table A.18.1  
*Independent T-Test Equality of Variances Assignment-Job Satisfaction*

		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
jsat	Equal variances assumed	17.917	.000	-1.844	54	.071
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.392	49.576	.021

Table A.19  
*Stepwise Regression Model Summary Job Satisfaction*

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.648 <sup>a</sup>	.419	.409	.68102
2	.698 <sup>b</sup>	.487	.467	.64640

a. Predictors: (Constant), support

b. Predictors: (Constant), support, sd

Table A.20  
*Coefficients Stepwise Regression Job Satisfaction*

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-2.725E-5	.401		.000	1.000
	support	.766	.123	.648	6.244	.000
2	(Constant)	-1.566	.706		-2.218	.031
	support	.665	.123	.562	5.427	.000
	sd	.482	.183	.273	2.634	.011

a. Dependent Variable: jsat

Table A.21  
*Stepwise Regression Model Summary Job Stress Pressure*

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.564 <sup>a</sup>	.318	.305	.85031
2	.615 <sup>b</sup>	.379	.355	.81904

a. Predictors: (Constant), support

b. Predictors: (Constant), support, sd



Table A.22  
*Coefficients Stepwise Regression Job Stress Pressure*

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients Beta		
1	(Constant)	4.018	.501		8.023	.000
	support	-.768	.153	-.564	-5.016	.000
2	(Constant)	5.735	.894		6.413	.000
	support	-.657	.155	-.483	-4.234	.000
	sd	-.529	.232	-.260	-2.281	.027

a. Dependent Variable: sigp

Table A.23  
*Stepwise Regression Model Summary Job Stress Threat*

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.603 <sup>a</sup>	.364	.352	.72397
2	.685 <sup>b</sup>	.470	.450	.66738

a. Predictors: (Constant), support  
b. Predictors: (Constant), support, meaning

Table A.24  
*Coefficients Stepwise Regression Job Stress Threat*

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.118	.426		7.314	.000
	support	-.725	.130	-.603	-5.559	.000
2	(Constant)	5.366	.796		6.742	.000
	support	-.598	.126	-.498	-4.735	.000
	meaning	-.598	.184	-.342	-3.248	.002

a. Dependent Variable: sigt

Appendix B. AMOS Models

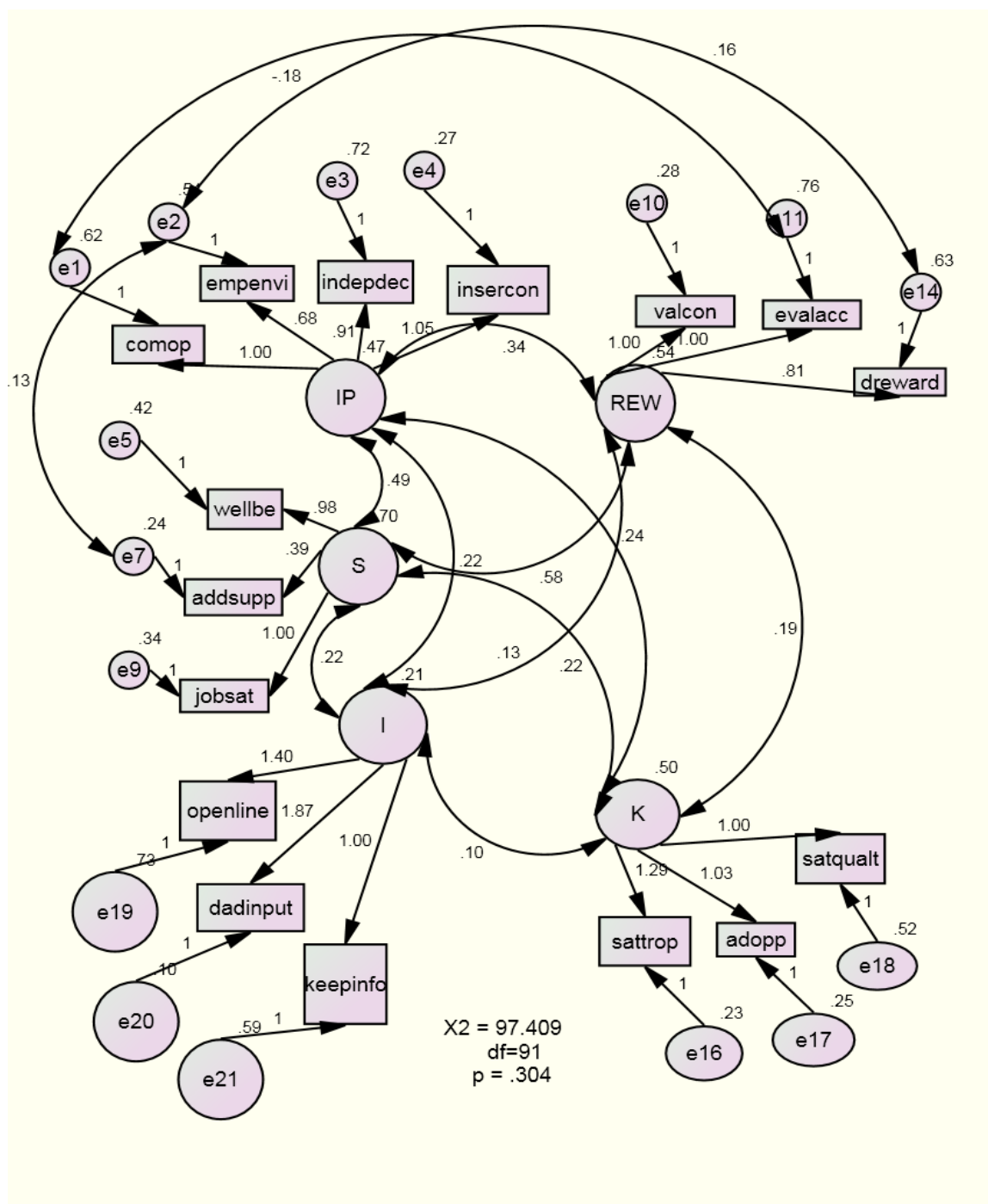


Figure B.1 First-Order CFA SE

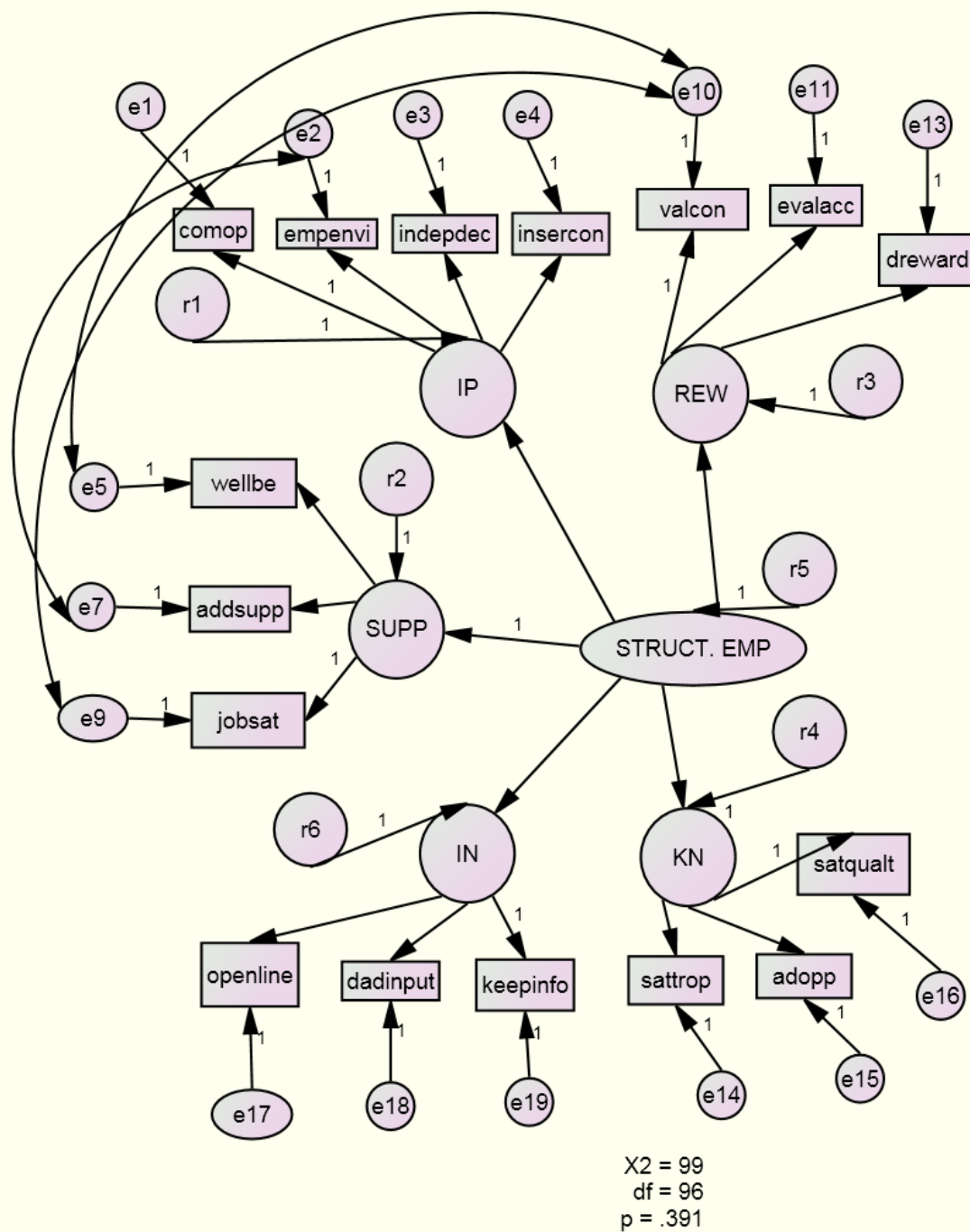


Figure B.2 Second-Order CFA SE

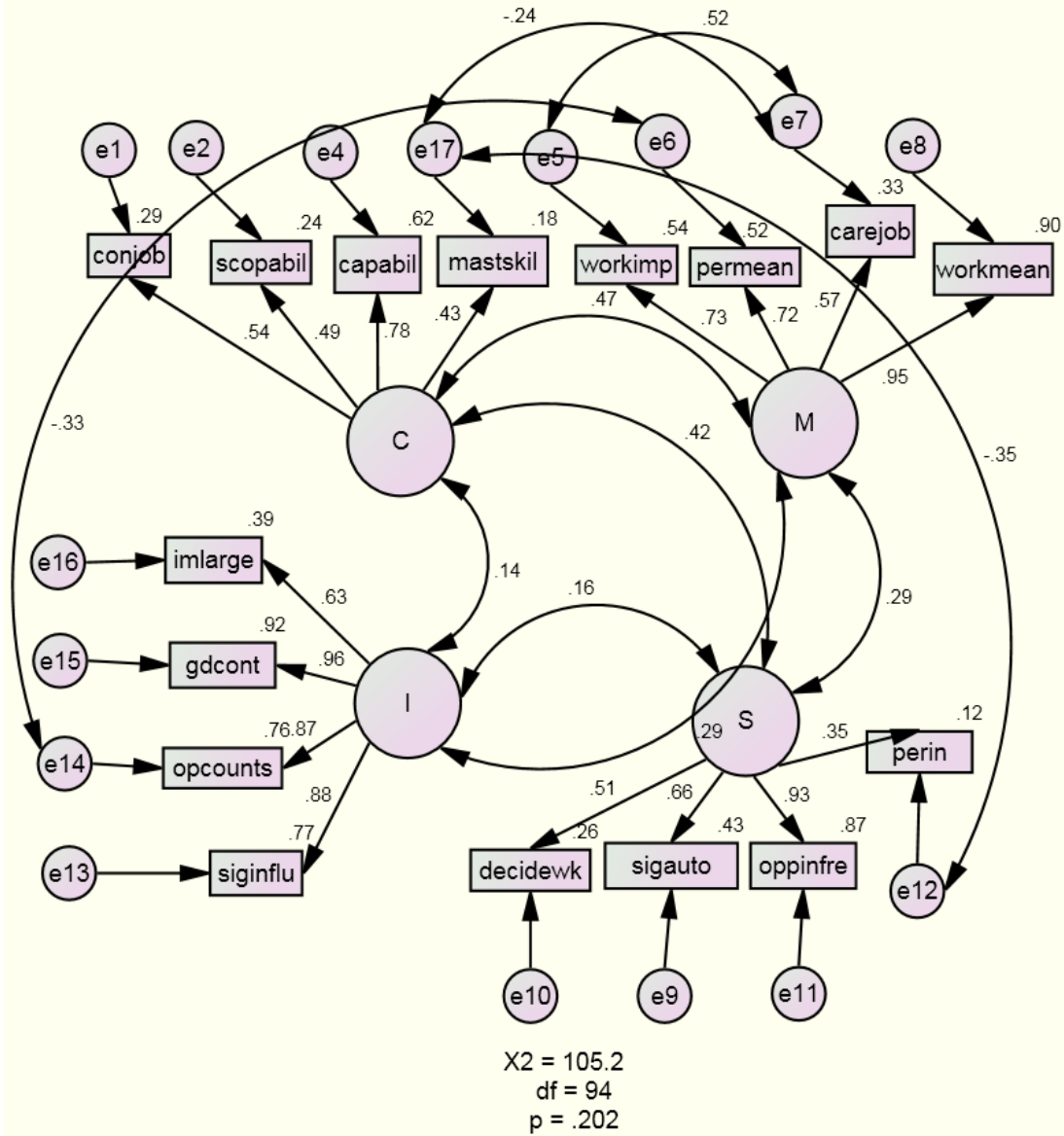


Figure B.3 First-Order CFA PE

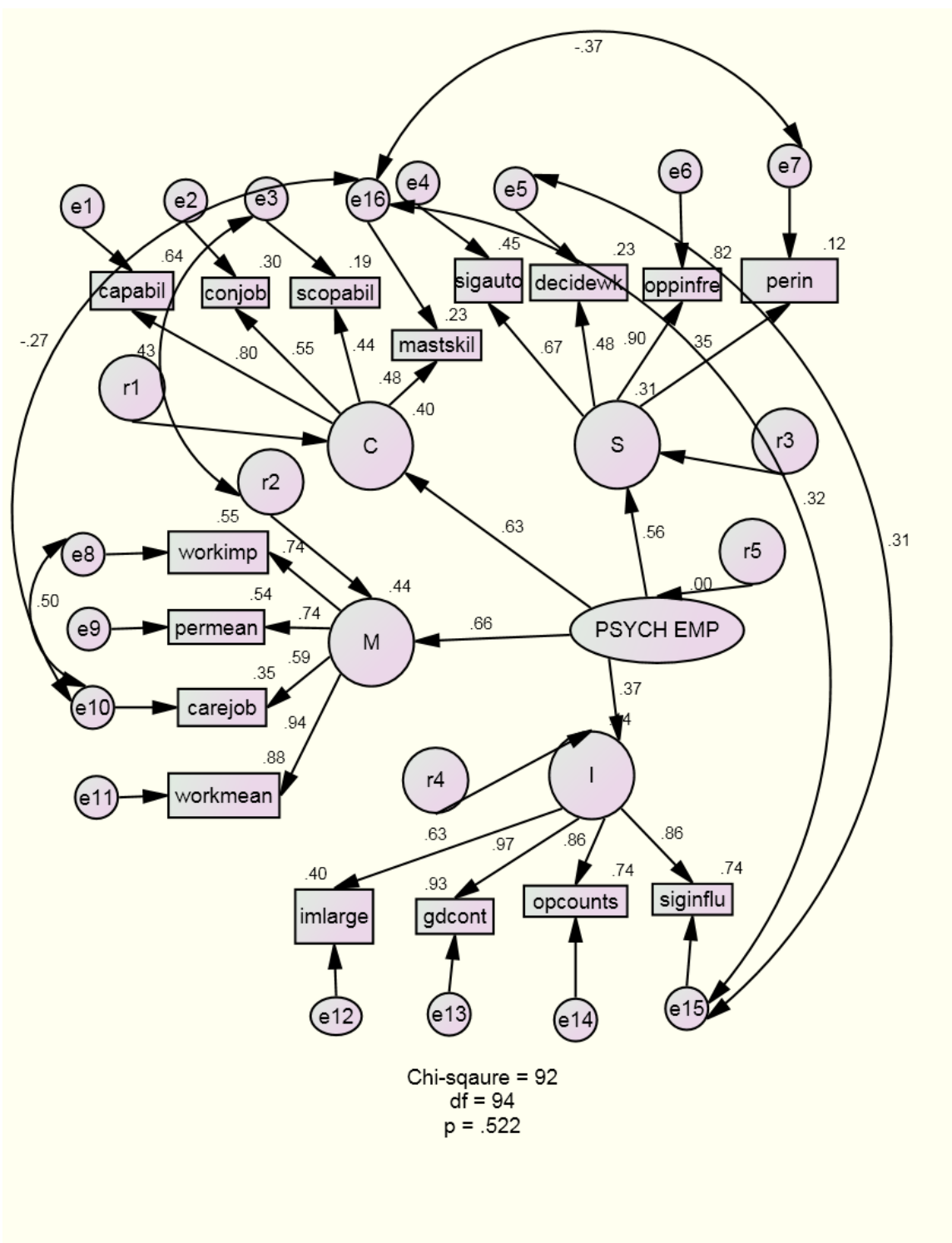


Figure B.4 Second-Order CFA PE

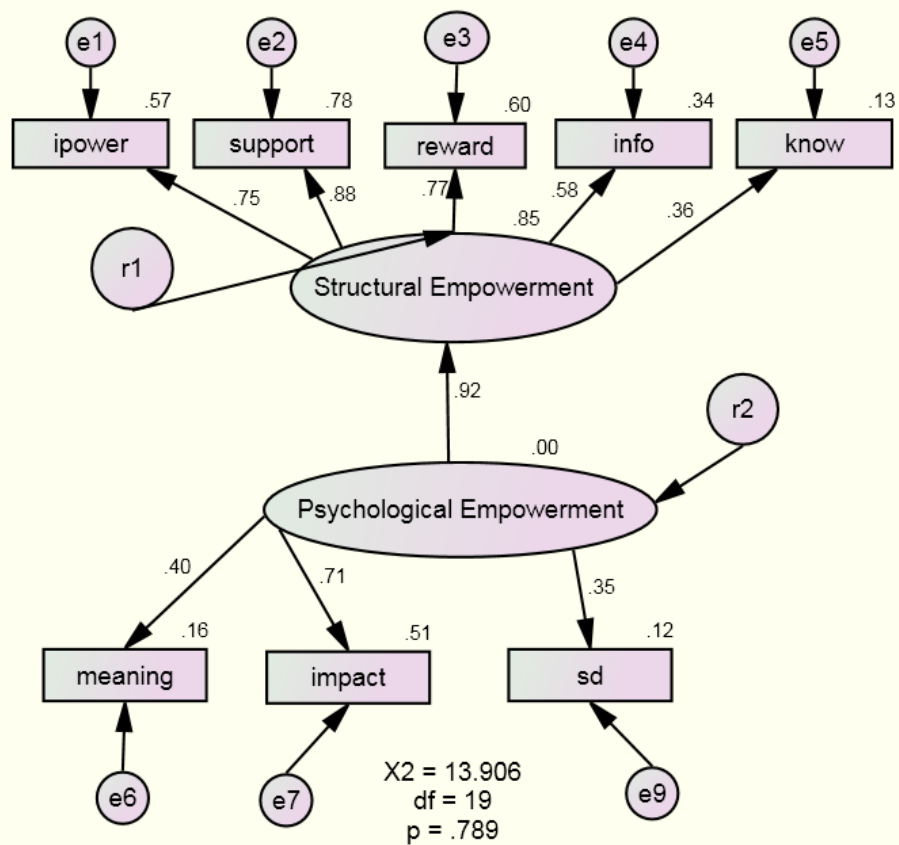


Figure B.5 Causal Model SE-PE

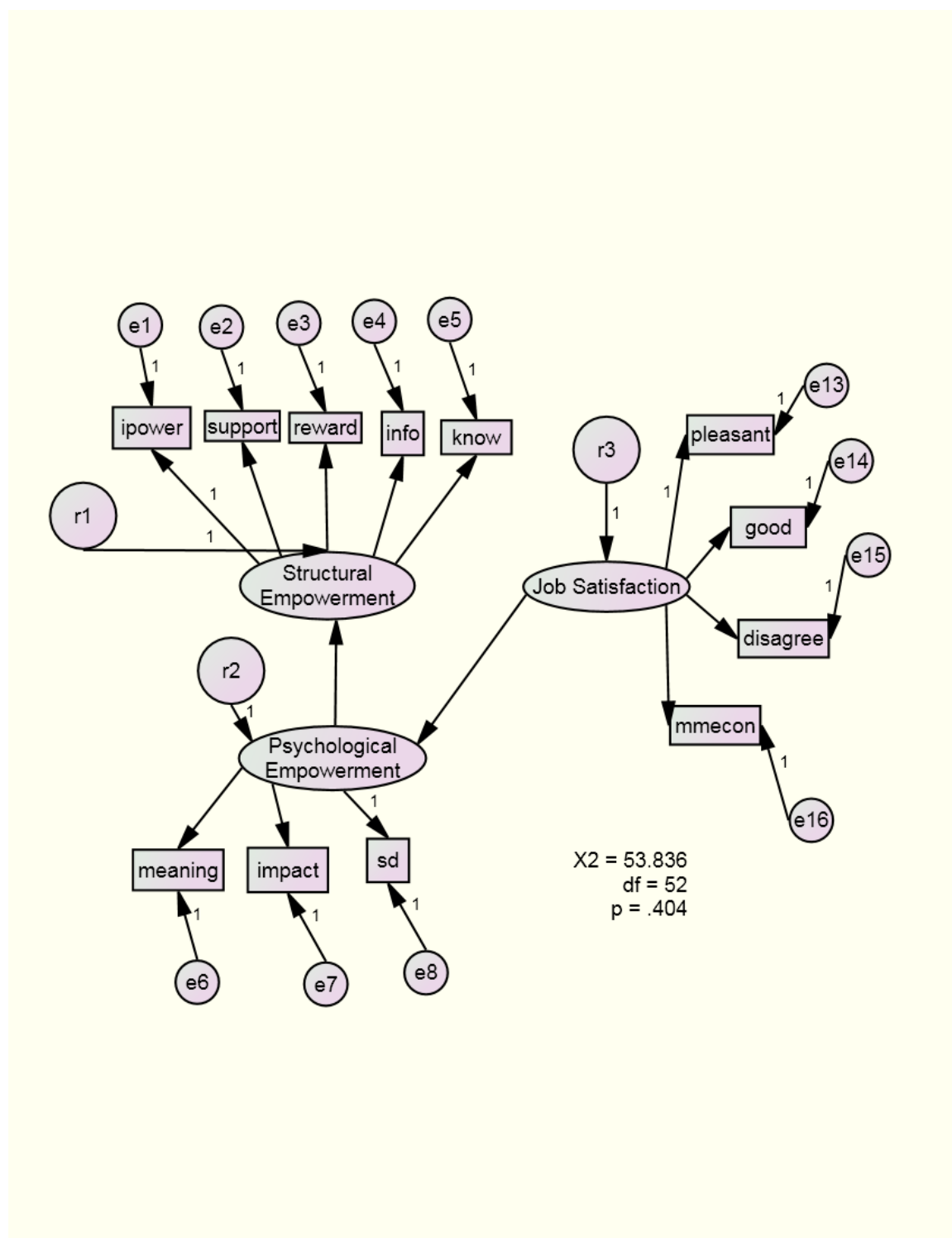


Figure B.6 Causal Model SE-PE-Job Satisfaction

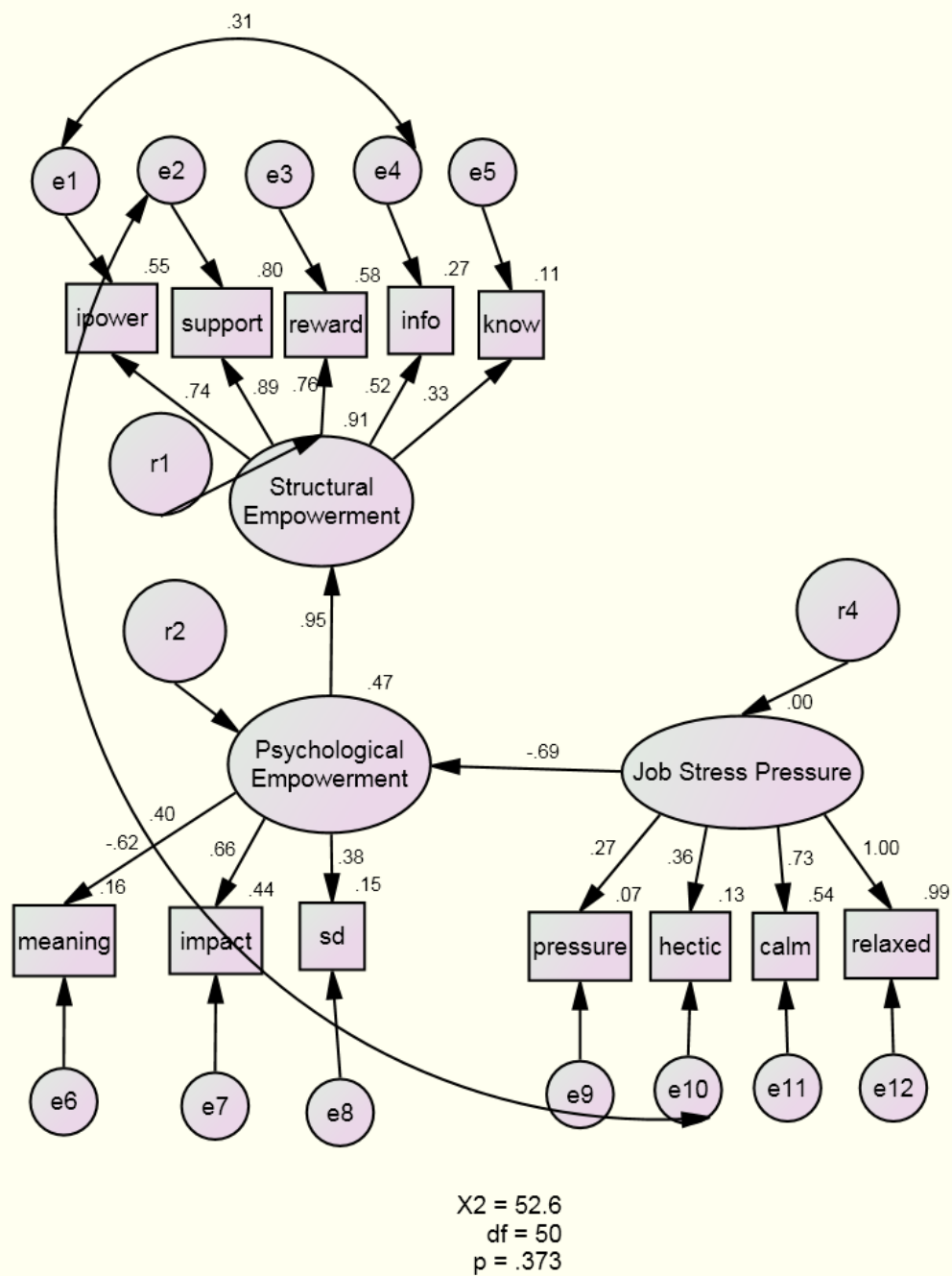


Figure B.7 Causal Model SE-PE-Job Stress Pressure



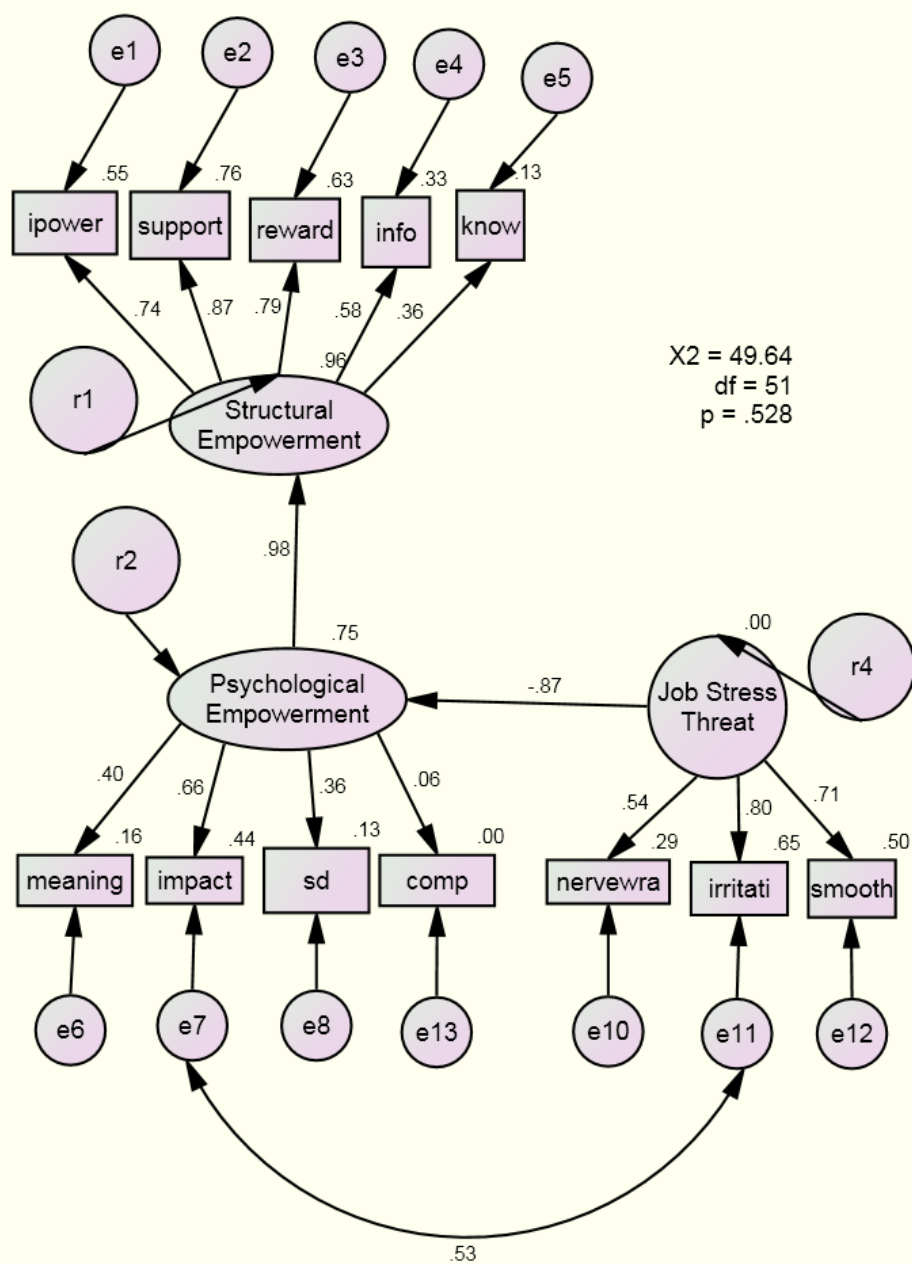


Figure B.8 Causal Model SE-PE-Job Stress Threat

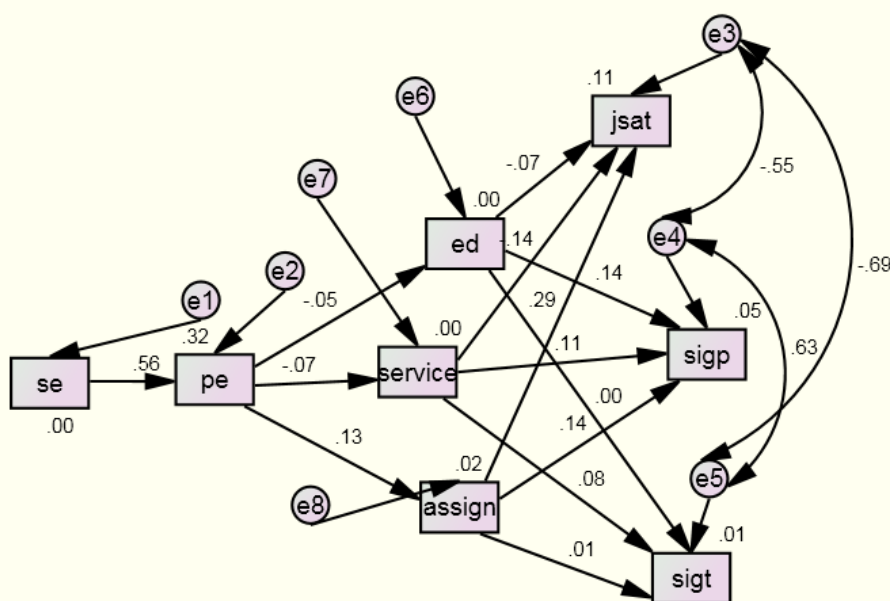


Figure B.9 Multiple Regression Model of Manifest Variables

### Appendix C. Police Officer Survey of Structural Empowerment (POSSE)

Instructions: Listed below are a number of beliefs that police officers have about their work role. Please use the following scale to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement. Thank you.

1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Neutral 4. Agree 5. Strongly Agree

\_\_\_\_\_ My commanders often ask my opinion about work issues. (Informal Power)

\_\_\_\_\_ The department cares about my well-being. (Support)

\_\_\_\_\_ The department values my contribution. (Reward)

\_\_\_\_\_ I have the time I need to write reports. (Resources)

\_\_\_\_\_ Open lines of communication are maintained within the department. (Information)

\_\_\_\_\_ I am adequately trained. (Knowledge)

\_\_\_\_\_ In general, I determine how to do my job. (Informal Power)

\_\_\_\_\_ The department is committed to seeing that my professional needs are met.  
(Support)

\_\_\_\_\_ My performance evaluations accurately reflect the quality of my work. (Reward)

\_\_\_\_\_ The department's sworn staffing level is adequate. (Resources)

\_\_\_\_\_ Department policies and procedures are clearly communicated to officers.  
(Information)

\_\_\_\_\_ I am satisfied with the number of training opportunities available to me.  
(Knowledge)

\_\_\_\_\_ My fellow officers often ask my opinion about work issues. (Informal Power)

\_\_\_\_\_ The department is tolerant of honest mistakes. (Support)

\_\_\_\_\_ I receive adequate recognition when I do a good job. (Reward)

\_\_\_\_\_ I have the equipment I need to do my job. (Resources)

\_\_\_\_\_ The department does an adequate job of getting input from officers. (Information)

\_\_\_\_\_ I have adequate opportunities to learn new skills and knowledge on the job.  
(Knowledge)

\_\_\_\_\_ For the most part, my workplace is an empowering environment. (Informal Power)

\_\_\_\_\_ I feel the department adequately supports me in my work role. (Support)

\_\_\_\_\_ I get credit for my ideas. (Reward)

\_\_\_\_\_ Sufficient help is available to me when I need it. (Resources)

\_\_\_\_\_ The department does a good job of keeping officers informed. (Information)

\_\_\_\_\_ The training I receive helps me do a better job. (Knowledge)

\_\_\_\_\_ I have input into department decisions that affect me. (Informal Power)

\_\_\_\_\_ The department would grant a reasonable request for a change in my work assignment. (Support)

\_\_\_\_\_ In general, I feel the department rewards officers who give an extra effort.  
(Reward)

\_\_\_\_\_ I have the time I need to fulfill my daily job requirements. (Resources)

\_\_\_\_\_ I receive adequate notice of changes that affect my work role. (Information)

\_\_\_\_\_ I am satisfied with the quality of the training available to me. (Knowledge)

\_\_\_\_\_ I have enough control over how I do my work. (Informal Power)

\_\_\_\_\_ I believe the department would support me in a controversial situation. (Support)

\_\_\_\_\_ I am satisfied with the quality of the equipment available to me. (Resources)

\_\_\_\_\_ I have enough authority to fulfill my job responsibilities. (Informal Power)

\_\_\_\_\_ The department cares about my job satisfaction. (Support)

\_\_\_\_\_ My input receives serious consideration. (Informal Power)

### Appendix D. Psychological Empowerment Instrument (Spreitzer, 1995)

Instructions: Listed below are a number of feelings that Officers have about their work. Please use the following scale to indicate the extent that you agree or disagree with each statement. Thank you very much.

1. Strongly Disagree   2. Disagree   3. Neutral   4. Agree   5. Strongly Agree

\_\_\_ I am confident about my ability to do my job. (C)

\_\_\_ The work I do is important to me. (M)

\_\_\_ I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job. (SD)

\_\_\_ My impact on what happens in my department is large. (I)

\_\_\_ My job activities are personally meaningful to me. (M)

\_\_\_ I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department. (I)

\_\_\_ I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work. (SD)

\_\_\_ I really care about what I do on my job. (M)

\_\_\_ My job is well within the scope of my abilities. (C)

\_\_\_ I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job. (SD)

\_\_\_ I have mastered the skills necessary to for my job. (C)

\_\_\_ My opinion counts in departmental decision-making. (I)

\_\_\_ The work I do is meaningful to me. (M)

\_\_\_ I have significant influence over what happens in my department. (I)

\_\_\_ I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities. (C)

\_\_\_ I have a chance to use personal initiative in carrying out my work. (SD)

## Appendix E. Job in General Scale (Blazer et al. 2000)

Instructions: Think of the work environment inside of our agency. All in all what is it like most of the time? For each of the following words or phrases circle Yes, No, or ? (Undecided). Thank you.

Pleasant .....	Yes	No	?
Bad .....	Yes	No	?
Ideal.....	Yes	No	?
Waste of Time.....	Yes	No	?
Good.....	Yes	No	?
Undesirable .....	Yes	No	?
Worthwhile .....	Yes	No	?
Worst Than Most .....	Yes	No	?
Acceptable.....	Yes	No	?
Superior.....	Yes	No	?
Better Than Most .....	Yes	No	?
Disagreeable.....	Yes	No	?
Makes Me Content.....	Yes	No	?
Inadequate.....	Yes	No	?
Excellent .....	Yes	No	?
Rotten.....	Yes	No	?
Enjoyable .....	Yes	No	?
Poor.....	Yes	No	?

## Appendix F. Stress in General Scale (Stanton et al. 2001)

Instructions Think of the work environment inside our agency. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your internal work environment? For each of the words or phrases circle Yes, No, or ? (undecided). Thank you.

Demanding.....	Yes	No	?
Pressured.....	Yes	No	?
Hectic.....	Yes	No	?
Calm.....	Yes	No	?
Relaxed.....	Yes	No	?
Many Things Stressful.....	Yes	No	?
Pushed.....	Yes	No	?
Irritating.....	Yes	No	?
Under Control.....	Yes	No	?
Nerve Wracking.....	Yes	No	?
Hassled.....	Yes	No	?
Comfortable.....	Yes	No	?
More Stressful Than I'd Like.....	Yes	No	?
Smooth Running.....	Yes	No	?
Overwhelming.....	Yes	No	?

## Appendix G. Demographic Survey

Please check the line that best describes your highest level of formal education, length of service and current full-time assignment. Thank you.

Education Level:

\_\_\_\_\_ High School

\_\_\_\_\_ Some College

\_\_\_\_\_ Associate's Degree

\_\_\_\_\_ Bachelor's Degree

\_\_\_\_\_ Graduate Degree

Length of Police Service

\_\_\_\_\_ 1-5 years

\_\_\_\_\_ 6-10 years

\_\_\_\_\_ 11-15 years

\_\_\_\_\_ 16 years or more

Current Full-Time Assignment

\_\_\_\_\_ Patrol Officer (Counted as patrol shift manpower)

\_\_\_\_\_ Other Full Time Assignment (Not assigned to patrol or counted as patrol shift manpower)



Appendix H. Permission to Use Psychological Empowerment Instrument  
(Spreitzer, 2005)

**From:** Spreitzer, Gretchen [spreitze@bus.umich.edu]  
**Sent:** Friday, February 19, 2010 8:12 PM  
**To:** Bruce Biggs  
**Subject:** RE: Request to Use Psychological Empowerment Instrument

Hello Bruce, your message sure made my day! I can't think of a more important context to study empowerment. I suspect you are right that it is crucial for effective community policing. I would be proud to have you use my instrument in your research. Please let me know if there is anything I can help with!

Best wishes to you Bruce and please share your findings with me so that I can learn from you!

Professor Gretchen M. Spreitzer

Area Chair and Professor of Management and Organizations

Ross School of Business

Ann Arbor, MI 48104

Phone: 734.936.2835

email: [spreitze@umich.edu](mailto:spreitze@umich.edu)

website: <http://webuser.bus.umich.edu/spreitze/>

Appendix I. Permission to Use Job in General Scale (Blazer et al., 2000) and Stress in General Scale (Stanton et al., 2001)

**From:** JDI Research Assistance [jdi\_ra@bgsu.edu]  
**Sent:** Wednesday, March 24, 2010 11:52 AM  
**To:** Bruce Biggs  
**Subject:** JDI order  
**Attachments:** Biggs 6331.pdf; aJDIaJIG.pdf; SIG 2003.pdf; SIG new SPSS Coding.SPS; SIGblank.sav; AJDI SPSS Coding.012605.SPS; AJDIblank.sav; jdi emannual printable.pdf

Greetings Bruce,

Thank you for your interest in JDI products. Attached is a receipt for your order. I should make you aware that we have made a change to the way in which we do business. We are no longer asking clients to share their data with us. You are welcome to use the aJDI/aJIG, and SIG measures free of charge, and you do not need to share your data with us.

Christopher Lake

Job Descriptive Index (JDI) Office

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Bowling Green State University

Bowling Green, OH 43403

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[JDI Webpage](#)