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Job Satisfaction in Law Enforcement Officers According to Generational Cohorts

Johnathon Michael Sharp
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Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

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Johnathon Sharp

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Walden University
2016

Abstract

Job Satisfaction in Law Enforcement Officers According to Generational Cohorts

by

Johnathon Michael Sharp

MSCJ, Tiffin University, 2008

BS, Tiffin University, 2007

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Forensic Psychology

Walden University

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Abstract

Job satisfaction in law enforcement is important because it promotes continuity of a professional and cohesive police force that works well together, follows proper policy and procedures, and provides the services needed to the public. Given multigenerational law enforcement officers are now working together, its impact on job satisfaction is not known. This study focused on how generational cohort membership impacts the job satisfaction of law enforcement officers based on Mannheim's theory of generations and Locke's range of affect theory. It utilized a survey design where job satisfaction was assessed using the Job Descriptive Index, Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, and Job Task Questionnaire. A quantitative analysis was employed using a correlation design, multiple regression, and an ANOVA. Findings showed significant differences at the .05 level in frequency ratings on the job task questionnaire on patrol, traffic enforcement, and warrant service between the generations. A logistical regression of Job Descriptive Index scores showed a significant relationship between generational cohort membership and job satisfaction scores on the promotion scale, supervision scale, and the job in general scale. Lastly, a logistical regression of the Occupational Commitment Questionnaire showed significance between Generation X and Millennial officer's overall scores with Millennial's having lower organizational commitment. Implications for social change include increasing knowledge for patrol officers and their supervisors regarding these generational differences. Other social change includes training programs for current and future officers on understanding and working with these generational differences in law enforcement.

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Dedication

This research is dedicated to the great number of people who have impacted my life and provided me with the knowledge and determination to constantly learn new things and improve myself. I would also like to dedicate this to the men and women who day in and day out put on the various uniforms that collectively makeup the field of law enforcement and for their continued dedication and sacrifice. Lastly, this is for everyone who believed in me.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

Job satisfaction is one of the most widely studied subjects within the field of organizational psychology (Thompson & Phua, 2012). Some researchers have studied job satisfaction within law enforcement, however, this area is understudied and separate from other workplace populations (Zhao, Thurman, & He, 1999). Job satisfaction remains a topic of great interest as workplace administrators worry that lack of satisfaction will lead to increased employee turnover and loss of organizational knowledge (Roodin & Mendelson, 2013). Police chiefs consistently rank the loss of police officers through turnover as the top or within the top two concerns of their administration (Hur, 2013). In this study I focused on job satisfaction of law enforcement officers through the lens of generational cohorts. Through this approach I evaluated factors which may affect job satisfaction of these different generational cohorts of officers. I examined the under-studied variable of generational cohorts within law enforcement. In this project I also expanded upon current understanding of job satisfaction. The knowledge gained from this study can assist officers and administrators in creating an environment that allows for the potential of all cohorts to be maximized while maintaining equilibrium between the generations.

Background

A quick check of recent studies, newspapers, and business publications reveals a very recurrent mention of generations within our population and their work behaviors and preferences (Chen & Shoemaker, 2014; Lieber, 2010; Murray, Toulson, & Legg, 2011;

Parry & Urwin, 2011). The extent of this recurrent examination into generations stems from the changes in the workplace with employment and unemployment rates of the different generations fluctuating greatly (Lieber, 2010). The study of these unique generations has led to the observation of four distinct and different generations making up our current workforce, which includes the *Silent Generation* (born between 1900-1945), *Baby Boomers* (born between 1946-1962), *Generation X* (born between 1963-1980), and the *Millennials* (born between 1981-2000) (Black-Beth, 2006; Cennamo & Gardner, 2008). With this distinctive composite workforce there are various traits, experiences, and lifetime occurrences that make each generation different (Parry & Urwin, 2011). Even with the acknowledgment that there exists a small population of the Silent Generation within the workforce, with the youngest members of this generation at or near 70 years old, the probability of these workers still being in law enforcement is very low; thus, only the remaining three generations were used for this study.

The study of different generations in the workplace is an ongoing process with the arrival of new generations into the workforce and also with the exit of older generations from the workforce (Murray et al., 2011). There is an increasing likelihood that older employees are reporting to younger managers, and with changing birth rates, Baby Boomers are pushed toward retirement. Additionally, older workers are still working past traditional retirement ages and the Millennial generation has emerged as an increasing population within the workplace (Cogin, 2012; Roodin & Mendelson, 2013). Due to this shift, there is a renewed effort to study generations within the workplace, as previous

studies have been based on generational combinations that vary from the current time (Roodin & Mendelson, 2013).

In the workplace there has been and continues to be the exit of the Baby Boomer generation with the youngest members of this generation at or nearing 53 years old in 2015. Some researchers (ex. Hur, 2013) have labeled this exit as the *brain drain* and loss of human capital as this generation takes with them a wealth of experience and knowledge. The incoming Millennial generation who are replacing these Baby Boomers are not viewed in the most positive light, as they are often described as spoiled, needy, along with other pejoratives (Lancaster & Stillman, 2010). Chapter 2 further explores differences among the generations within the workplace. In my study I examined the existing research on generational cohorts, in addition to their possible effects on job satisfaction within law enforcement.

The growing multigenerational workforce has produced concerns for administrators to identify the differences within and between the generations in the workplace regarding job satisfaction and organizational commitment and how each affects the composition of the workforce (Cogin, 2012; Costanza, Badger, Fraser, Severt, & Gade, 2012; Kowske, Rasch, & Wiley, 2010; Roodin & Mendelson, 2013). The study of job satisfaction in law enforcement is critical in that specific issues can affect job performance which can change the effectiveness of entire departments (Julseth, Ruiz, & Hummer, 2011). Projections by the Department of Justice on law enforcement agencies in 2020 shows concerns with the loss of Baby Boomer officers, strategies to attract and recruit Millennials, and the use of new technologies in the training and recruitment of

new officers (Jensen & Graves, 2013). Job satisfaction, just like generations in the workplace, has a need for further research and comprehension. Research has shown the demand from workplace administrators who are in need of further comprehension on what creates, reduces, and affects job satisfaction (Roodin & Mendelson, 2013).

Besides examining job satisfaction and generational cohorts singularly, studies are also combining these variables, researching how one may play a role in affecting the other (e.g., Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; Costanza et al., 2012; Guillot-Soulez, & Soulez, 2014; Kowske, et al., 2010; Lu & Gursoy, 2013). When combining generational cohorts and job satisfaction and then applying these to specific fields of work such as law enforcement, there emerges a clearer picture of what has yet to be studied, such as specific fields of work, and those that have been understudied. Research including law enforcement officers offers a very small portion of job satisfaction studies, with some noting this number to be lower than 50 (Julseth et al., 2011). When adding generational cohorts to this search, there appears to be a dearth of research examining this variable within the field of law enforcement. My study is needed to further understanding regarding generational cohorts and job satisfaction to include members of the law enforcement community.

Purpose of the Study

My study examined the impact of generational cohorts on law enforcement job satisfaction. For this study, the investigated law enforcement officers were those who operate on a regular basis in a patrol function, and excluded those who are generally defined by other titles or positions such as detectives, crime scene investigators, and so

forth. I examined generational cohort's effect on overall job satisfaction, as well as examined commonly studied and noted job facets that have repeatedly been noted to be significant indicators of job satisfaction such as policing duties, age, and organizational commitment (see Figure 1). I aimed to bridge the gaps within existing literature of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and generational cohorts pertinent to law enforcement in order to further understanding of the hypothesized differences between the generational cohorts.

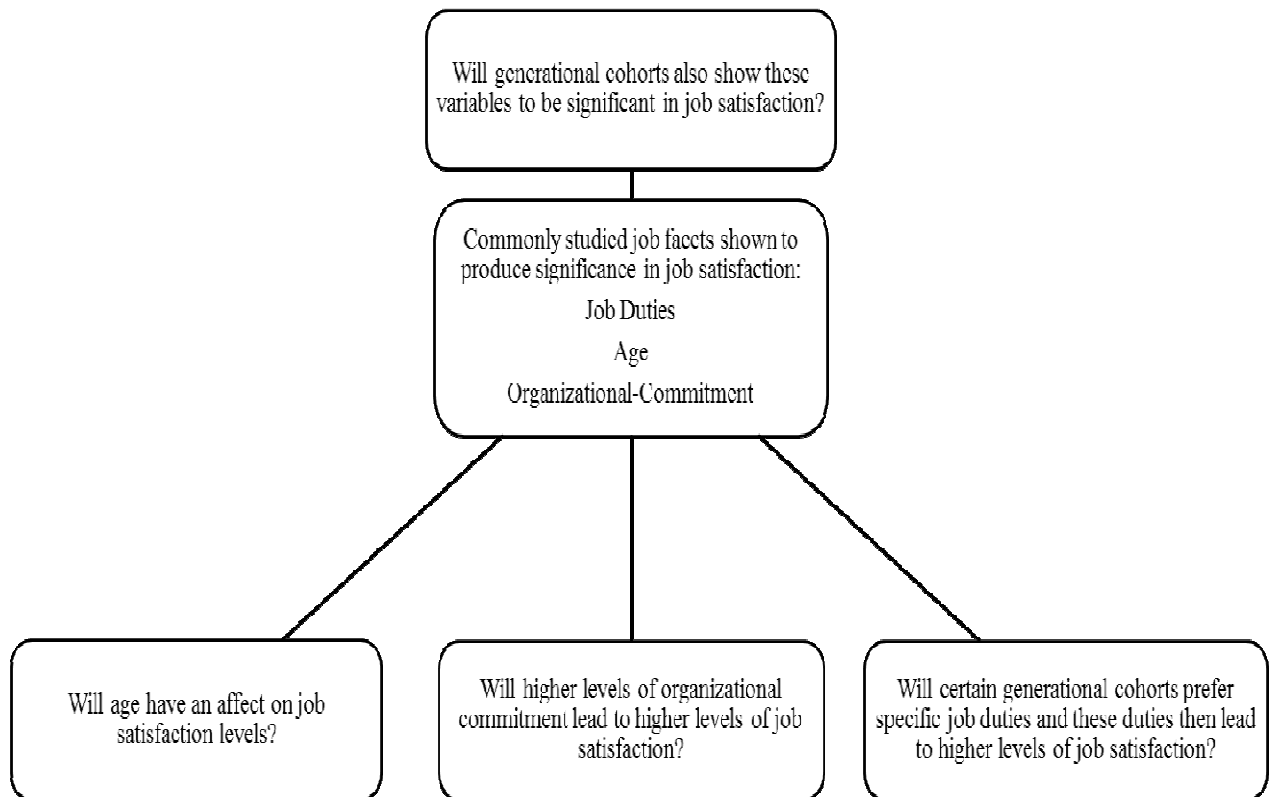


Figure 1. Research question framework.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions and hypotheses were intended to examine the effects of generational cohorts on law enforcement officer's job satisfaction.

Research Question 1; What is the relationship between generational cohort memberships and law enforcement officer's job satisfaction?

H₀₁: There is no significant relationship between cohort membership (Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials) and a law enforcement officer's job satisfaction as assessed by the Job Descriptive Index.

H_{A1}: There is a significant relationship between cohort membership (Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials) and a law enforcement officer's job satisfaction as assessed by the Job Descriptive Index.

Research Question 2; What is the relationship between generational cohort membership and performing specific patrol policing tasks on a law enforcement officer's job satisfaction?

H₀₂: There is no significant relationship between cohort membership (Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials) and specific patrol policing tasks on a law enforcement officer's job satisfaction as assessed by the Job Descriptive Index.

H_{A2}: There is a relationship between cohorts' membership (Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials) and specific patrol policing tasks on a law enforcement officer's job satisfaction as assessed by the Job Descriptive Index.

Research Question 3; What is the relationship between generational cohort membership and organizational commitment levels on a law enforcement officer's job satisfaction?

H₀₃: There is no significant relationship between cohort membership (Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials) and organizational commitment levels as

assessed by responses given to the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire on a law enforcement officer's job satisfaction as assessed by the Job Descriptive Index.

H_{A3}: There is a significant relationship between cohort membership (Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials) and organizational commitment levels as assessed by responses given to the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire on a law enforcement officer's job satisfaction as assessed by the Job Descriptive Index.

Research Question 4; What is the effect of age on a law enforcement officer's job satisfaction?

H₀₄: There is no significant effect of age on a law enforcement officer's job satisfaction as assessed by Job Descriptive Index.

H_{A4}: There is a significant effect of age on law enforcement officer's job satisfaction as assessed by the Job Descriptive Index.

Framework

The theoretical framework for this study was based on Mannheim's theory of generations (Mannheim, 1952) and Locke's range of affect theory (Locke, 1976). Mannheim's theory shows how each generational cohort has its own common set of ideas and experiences (Cogin, 2012). This theory is furthered by the notion that people from different generations grew up in dissimilar times with different experiences and hold differing beliefs, attitudes, values, along with different expectations, all of which impact the behaviors of each generation within the workplace (Cogin, 2012). From these experiences a type of collective consciousness arises as new generations attempt to fit into existing traditions and social patterns and through this attempt bring about change

and uniqueness of their own (Joshi, Dencker, & Franz, 2011). Mannheim's theory can be seen in my study as the variable of generational cohorts was utilized to determine if it has any effect on an officer's job satisfaction. The examination of this variable sought to determine whether the differences of these generations played a role in job satisfaction even though these officers are all performing the same job.

Locke's theory has been used in a number of studies and is noted as one of the most widely used and accepted theories regarding job satisfaction (e.g., Sempane, Rieger, & Roodt, 2002; Sindhu, 2013; Singh & Sinha, 2013; Warr & Inceoglu, 2012; Yaschur, 2012). This theory shows that understanding of job satisfaction comes from considering different job dimensions such as coworkers, management, and working conditions (Sempane et al., 2002). Sempane et al. (2002) and Singh and Sinha (2013) stated that people evaluate their jobs on the basis of factors which they regard as important to themselves and the value a worker gives to a certain facets of his or her job regulates how satisfied or unsatisfied that person becomes when expectations are or are not met by the job. This theory was directly examined in the current research, as different job facets were investigated to determine their impact on job satisfaction of law enforcement officers. Both Mannheim's and Locke's theories were explored in detail in Chapter 2.

Nature of the Study

My study utilized a quantitative approach and a correlational design to determine if relationships exist between the independent variables of generational cohorts, organizational commitment, age, and specific patrol duties and the dependent variable of job satisfaction of law enforcement officers. This method was implemented through the

collection of data from two instruments, the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), administered to volunteer participants who are law enforcement officers. For the purpose of this study only Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials were used for further discussion, as even the youngest members of the Silent generation are 70 years old and the chances of them still working in law enforcement would be considerably low. The convenience sample of officers was surveyed and demographic information/cohort identification (see Appendix A) and patrol duties (see Appendix B) were used as predictors of job satisfaction and occupational commitment. Organizational commitment was used as a moderating variable for job satisfaction whereas higher levels of organizational commitment were hypothesized to lead to higher levels of job satisfaction and lower levels of organizational commitment would lead to lower levels of job satisfaction. In this study officers were not randomly assigned to certain groups and no variables were manipulated nor treatments introduced. Further information regarding study design, methodology, instruments, and analysis can be found in Chapter 3.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are operationally defined for the purpose of this research:

Generational cohorts: Baby Boomers with birthdates between the years of 1946 through 1962; Generation X are persons born between 1963 through 1980; Millennials are persons born between 1981 through 2000 (Black-Beth, 2006; Cennamo & Gardner, 2008).

Job satisfaction: A numerical score gained from responses gathered from the Job Descriptive Index (JDI). The JDI manual indicates scores above 27 indicate satisfaction while scores below 27 indicate dissatisfaction (Balzar et al., 1997). These scores are an accumulation of possible points regarding responses to each facet with 2 (yes), 1 (?), 0 (no) for positive description phrases and 0 (yes), 1 (?), 2 (no) for negative description phrases (Balzar et al., 1997).

Organizational commitment: Measured using responses given to the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. Developers of this instrument define organizational commitment as a “1) strong belief in and acceptance of an organization’s goals and values; 2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; 3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization” (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979 p. 226).

Policing duties: Patrol duties that include patrol, preliminary investigation, traffic enforcement, warrant service, community relations, critical incident response, and complaint response. This term was measured using the job task questionnaire and related to the work on present job subscale of the JDI (Balzar et al., 1997).

Assumptions

Assumptions of this study included the reliance on the veracity of the responses from the officers. As noted in the limitations below, officers may have questioned the use of the information gathered or the purpose of the research and thus possibly skewed their participation rates or responses. It was assumed that after giving the officers clarification

for the purpose of the study as well as giving a complete and thorough informed consent responses and participation rates were not adversely affected.

Scope and Delimitations

The makeup and design of this study helped to address a number of possible threats to both internal and external validity evident in previous research. Participants were gathered and tested using the same instruments and same process during each shift's allotted participation time so as to minimize threats due to testing, instrumentation, maturation, and mortality. The instruments that were utilized have a long history and acceptance as being both valid and reliable (see Chapter 3 for further discussion on psychometric issues).

Other delimitations in this study may bring about questions due to the participants not used in this study and the law enforcement departments/offices not used. The departments and officers used were made up from two large Midwestern police departments located in two different states. The population of officers was over 600 and was representative of a vast majority of other officers and departments throughout the country. The variables used in this study were similar to ones found in a number of other studies regarding job satisfaction and generational cohorts within the workplace (Abdulla et al., 2010; Brough & Frame, 2004; Brunetto et al., 2012; Smith, Wareham, & Lambert, 2013).

Limitations

Possible limitations to this study included officer's perceptions of the research and limits to the design used for this study. The officers used for this study may have

questioned the use of the information collected and thus either affected their participation rates or the responses they gave. It has been noted through many studies of policing that officers are resistant to what they define as outsiders (nonpolice) looking into their organization and policing in general (Belur, 2013). Belur (2013) stated the status of a researcher also affects responses and rapport between them and the officers they are researching. Listed as an outsider-insider, a former police officer, Belur stated this type of researcher possessed the most significant and influential of characteristics for police research. Another possible limitation of this study was the restriction of the generational cohorts as this is a restriction with only a range of three. Age was used as a continuous variable for this study so as to address the possible limitation of generational cohorts. A recent notion called the *Ferguson effect*, was notable to the limitations of this study as this notion suggests officers are less effective and under national scrutiny due to recent events involving law enforcement officers and use of force (Wolfe & Nix, 2015). The Ferguson effect is of note due to its possibility of altering job satisfaction levels with current officers. Lastly, the aspect of the proposed departments being unionized may alter satisfaction levels and perceptions when compared to nonunion agencies (Park, Christie, & Sype, 2014).

Significance

This study addressed not only the under-researched area of job satisfaction in law enforcement, but also the gap of research and literature examining generational cohorts in law enforcement. Experiencing the massive changes within the workplace with the current workforce that includes the influx of Millennials and the exodus of Baby

Boomers, there was a need to examine what affects job satisfaction within the current workforce and what the incoming workforce also desires and needs. The Bureau of Labor Statistics indicates from 2010 to 2020, the Baby Boomers will have significantly lower labor force participation rates and even predicts an acceleration of this decline within the time period (Toossi, 2012). It was hoped that my study would provide insight into the generational cohorts working within law enforcement, leading to possible policy, recruitment, hiring, and human resource changes. Even with the acknowledgement that law enforcement officers are tasked with the same mission—enforcing and upholding the law—each officer can hold different attitudes about his job, different expectations, satisfactions and dissatisfactions, as well as approaches to this profession. There exists the possibility of all officers, from the lowest in seniority to the highest administrator benefiting from this study, as there is the opportunity to better understand each other and how they can expect, want, and need different things from their shared profession.

Summary and Transition

Examining existing research into job satisfaction and generational cohorts revealed many studies that have looked at varying aspects of these areas, in addition to revealing the specific areas yet to be studied, such as job satisfaction in law enforcement officers as a function of generational cohorts. Research into generational cohorts consistently concludes that further research into this field is needed as varying researchers have shown major differences, little to no differences, and even more differences within rather than between generations; thus, the need for further studies. Job satisfaction research has examined many professions, while leaving others, such as law

enforcement, to be under-researched at this time. The findings of this deficiency allowed my study to examine those aspects that are understudied, including those not yet studied. With the constant evolution of the workforce, there is a need to continue to study the workers that make it up and their likes and dislikes about their positions. The theoretical framework presented here showed how a generational cohort is created and defined, along with how job satisfaction can be theorized and examined.

Chapter 2 presents an examination of existing literature on job satisfaction, Mannheim's theory of generations, Locke's range of affect theory, generations in the workplace, as well as, generations in law enforcement, police staffing and generational cohorts, age as related to changes in differing aged workers, and an expansion upon the points laid forth in the present chapter. Chapter 3 covers the methodological aspects of this study and how the analysis proceeded. Chapter 4 displays and analyzes the results of this study while Chapter 5 interprets the findings, lists the limitations, gives recommendations for future research, implications of this study, and lastly conclusions of the study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

The field of law enforcement is filled with numerous aspects that affect officers' satisfactions and dissatisfactions with their work. Existing literature has generally focused on aspects such as gender differences (Brough & Frame, 2004; Hassel, Archbold, & Stichman, 2010), officer demographics such as age, race, education and job tasks, (Abdulla, Djebarni, & Mellahi, 2011; Balci, 2011; Carlan, 2007; Johnson, 2012; Rydberg & Terrill, 2010; Wilson, 2012; Zhao, Thurman, & He, 1999), and organizational variables and influences (Brough & Frame, 2004; Brunetto, Farr-Wharton, Shacklock, & Teo, 2012; Howes & Goodman-Delahunty, 2014; Julseth, Ruiz, & Hummer, 2011; Kai-ting, 2012; Smith, Wareham, & Lambert, 2013; Spagnoli & Caetano, 2012). Studies that examine generational cohorts in the workplace and their effect on job satisfaction have yet to examine this aspect within the field of law enforcement. The purpose of this chapter was to review the available literature on generations within the workplace, the effect these generations have on job satisfaction, and how these factors affect the field of law enforcement.

When reviewing job satisfaction for law enforcement officers regardless of the factors researched, there was a clear overriding theme within the literature and that was the costs associated with training new officers and also with replacing retiring and aging officers. Wilson (2012) stated maintaining the current police workforce levels are one of the greatest challenges faced within law enforcement. This challenge was illustrated by the \$1 billion dollars appropriated to the Office of Community Oriented Policing Services

(COPS) that offered federal money to law enforcement entities to hire and maintain their policing levels (Wilson, 2012). Departments attempting to maintain these levels require them to offer environments, job tasks, and other intangibles that not only attract new officers, but also keep a certain level of satisfaction with their current officers (Spagnoli & Caetano, 2012). With the knowledge that certain factors can affect job satisfaction and dissatisfaction levels allows law enforcement administrators to attempt to offset the challenge of losing officers due to variables that are within their control (Smith, Wareham, & Lambert, 2013). A review of the variables studied showed age and years of service were key indicators of job satisfaction (Abdulla, Djebarni, & Mellahi, 2011; Brunetto, Farr-Wharton, Shacklock, & Teo, 2012; Carlan, 2007; Hassell, Archbold, & Stichman, 2011; Wilson, 2012), yet none of the researchers attempted to connect these variables to generational cohorts which potentially correlate with the officer's age and years of service.

This chapter presented relevant research related to job satisfaction, generations within the workplace, and how generational cohorts affect job satisfaction. Sections in this chapter include theoretical foundations, generations within the workplace, and also job satisfaction. Within the theoretical foundations, Mannheim's theory of generations was used to describe how generations are formed, their uniqueness and how they interact with both prior and subsequent generations. Locke's range of affect theory was used to show key factors associated with job satisfaction and how these factors can affect satisfaction levels. The section on generations within the workplace examined how generations are different, what these differences are and how administrators at varying

levels can create an environment that brings about job satisfaction to employees within these differing generations. The job satisfaction section covered aspects of the job that contribute to overall job satisfaction and how each generation requires different aspects to reach their respected levels of job satisfaction.

Literature Search Strategy

Job satisfaction is an immense field of study. Policing and its related factors also command a great deal of research and publications. When searching these two factors, several search strategies were utilized. First, searches were conducted combining the two fields using key words such as *police*, *job satisfaction*, *policing*, and *law enforcement officers* within the PsycARTICLES and PsychINFO databases, both of which pull published information from the American Psychological Associations' (APA) resources. Subsequent searches utilized the same key words within the ProQuest Criminal Justice Database. Other searches used key words *generational cohorts*, *generations within the workplace*, *generations*, and *generational differences* through the PsycARTICLES and PsychINFO databases, as well as through Business Source Complete. A majority of searches utilized only peer-reviewed, scholarly articles so as to ensure their acceptance by the academic community and the credibility of the information presented. A select number of searches used literature found within specific law enforcement publications such as the FBI law enforcement bulletin, and Police Chief Bulletin. These searches were originally limited to only find articles published within the past five years (2010-2014), but were later expanded to include a select few articles beyond that range. Other literature included published books and other publications relating to the topical areas.

Theoretical Foundations

Mannheim's Theory of Generations

Mannheim's theory of generations is generally regarded as one of the foremost in explaining and defining generations within a society regarding how the generations interact, function, and affect each other (Chen & Shoemaker, 2014; Joshi, Dencker, & Franz, 2011; Miegel & Olsson, 2012; Parry & Urwin, 2012; Zopiatis et al., 2012). Originally published in 1928 in German, Mannheim's theory was republished in 1952 and translated into English and began widespread circulation beyond those originally set in Germany. Mannheim (1952) argued that generations made up an irreplaceable guide to the comprehension of the structures of both social and intellectual movements. As noted later in this study and posited by Mannheim (1952), current and former studies have only sporadically taken into account aspects and research conducted by other fields and at times ignoring the achievements of neighboring research. This can be seen in the lack of research into generational cohorts into specific fields such as law enforcement.

Mannheim's theory stated generations are not a concrete group, rather they are made up of people who live within the same general historical, social, and chronological context. These generational members are uniquely tied to a shared location within history and the makeup of that time's social process (Mannheim, 1952). These differences can be seen by what a certain generation lived through and was exposed to, such as the Baby Boomer generation living through the Vietnam War, the civil rights movement, and the assassinations of President John F. Kennedy and Dr. Martin Luther King (Benson & Brown, 2011).

The makeup of these generations limits members to only a specific range of potential experiences that predisposes them to a number of characteristics that affect thoughts and experiences characterized by the historical relevance of the times (Mannheim, 1952). This aspect has been furthered by more recent research such as that conducted by Morris Massey. Massey researched generations and concluded that a person's behaviors are affected by their values and value programming which he stated were created by the age of ten (NOAA, 2006). Due to these values being created during a specific timeframe, we can see the differences in each generation. Massey believed that knowing these characteristics of a group enhances the probability that our interactions are effective and efficient (NOAA, 2006). With his work, Massey (2005) showed how generational differences affected the workplace because different generational value formation years determined what each worker brought with them, in terms of values, to the workplace.

Major aspects of Mannheim's theory revolve around a number of specific topical areas. The topical areas of Mannheim's (1952) theory include:

- (a) new participants in the cultural process emerge while;
- (b) former participants in the process are continually disappearing;
- (c) members of one generation can participate only in a temporally limited section of the historical process, and;
- (d) It is necessary to continually transmit the accumulated heritage which;
- (e) the transition from generation to generation is a continuous process. (p. 170)

Another important facet of Mannheim's theory is that of *fresh contact* (Miegel & Olsson, 2012). Mannheim (1952) stated that newer or younger generations make fresh

contact with cultural norms and from this they make sense of the norms within the social and historical context of their youth. This aspect is of great importance in law enforcement. Societal changes through time and expectations of law enforcement officers have shown a great shift in how officers are trained and also with the tools they utilize, and the enforcement of the law as can be seen through changes in law enforcement such as community policing (Abdulla, Djebarni, & Mellahi, 2011; Brunetto, Teo, Shacklock, & Farr-Wharton, 2012; Smith, Wareham, & Lambert, 2013; Stratton, 1984).

Beaven (2014) covered this aspect of Mannheim's theory and stated younger generations accept and utilize relevant information while outdated information fades away and is replaced by the newer information and practices that the younger generation views as more relevant to their lives. Beaven continued in using the example of technology as the key identifier of generational distinction. In policing this can be seen through the advent and use of technology such as in-car laptops, digital fingerprinting, cell phones, e-mail, and even the big push recently for the use of body cameras. The differing generations in policing would be trained differently, worked in different social times with different social expectations and utilized different forms of technology to complete their jobs. Younger workers are closer to present problems, are not working with old(er) assumptions, and are more apt to use newer ideas to make sense of their world (Lyons & Kuron, 2014). This concept of younger generations challenging the norm and status quo and older generations holding onto traditions (Joshi et al., 2011) can be seen in many different workplaces, especially in law enforcement.

The part of Mannheim's theory dealing with newer participants (generations) emerging and older ones constantly disappearing can be directly seen in law enforcement. With researchers noting the exodus of Baby Boomer officers (Wilson, 2012), the continued increasing costs of replacing officers, and the noted fear of losing organizational information from departures (Joshi et al., 2010; Roodin & Mendelson, 2013), there is a direct need to address generational cohorts within law enforcement.

Locke's Range of Affect Theory

An abundance of research has defined Edwin Locke's (1976) range of affect theory as the most recognized and used theory on job satisfaction (e.g., Singh & Sinha, 2013; Sindhu, 2013). Locke hypothesized that job satisfaction is determined by the discrepancy of what one desires from a job and what one actually has in a job (Sindhu, 2013). Others (e.g., Yaschur, 2012) have described this as a relationship of what one desires from their job and if those desires are fulfilled by their job. Individual facets of a job can determine these desires or wants one has in a job. Each facet can be gauged separately to give an understanding of what facet(s) an individual finds is important. The gauging of facets can be related to generational cohorts as many theorize each generation has differing wants and desires from their job. Kong, Wang, and Fu (2015) showed this difference through their examination of Millennial workers and how they possessed different work values and also differing work requirements when compared to previous generations. When one expands the differences, Locke's theory gives the examples of two employees, one who values autonomy and the other who is indifferent (Singh & Sinha, 2013; Sindhu, 2013). The first employee would then be more satisfied in a

position that offered high autonomy, and therefore less satisfied with a position that offered little or none of this facet.

Yaschur (2012) stated due to the variety of tasks and roles a job may offer, each particular facet must be measured separately as an individual predictor of job satisfaction. The individual facet aspect related to my research, as facets such as co-workers, job tasks, and organizational commitment were measured to gauge job satisfaction. If the hypothesis of the existence of generation differences in job satisfaction is supported, then one can expect this to be shown through differences measured from the selected job facets (Azeem, 2010). Locke's theory proposes that job satisfaction is an individual's perception and evaluation of his/her job and this is influenced by the unique characteristics of each individual and his/her specific needs, expectations, and values (Sempane, Rieger, & Roodt, 2002).

Locke's theory explains that to understand job satisfaction one must examine job dimensions such as pay, supervision, recognition, work condition, and co-workers, to name a few (Sempane et al., 2002). A person gains or maintains job satisfaction through review of what he/she believes his/her job has provided or will provide at an acceptable level to his/her beliefs (Warr & Inceoglu, 2012). When an individual is evaluating his or her job, Locke proposed he or she examined his or her wants and needs versus what he or she perceived he or she were actually getting as well as the importance of the specific want or need to the individual (Wu & Yao, 2006). As can be seen through this theory, an examination of specific job facets helped to show if any job satisfaction exists, and if there are also any differences between individuals or in this case, generational cohorts

(Sindhu, 2013; Singh & Sinha, 2013; Yaschur, 2012). Other theories such as Adam's equity theory (1965) would not be sufficient to relate to my study although Adam's theory is similar in that it addresses how an employee gauges their inputs and then perceives either equity or inequity; the main focus in terms of equity or inequity revolves around pay of the employee and this is not a variable or factor to be examined in my study.

Generations in the Workplace

Many scholars concur that for the first time in recent history we have four different generations working together within the workforce (Cogin, 2012; Hansen & Leuty, 2012; Leiber, 2010). These generations consist of the Silent Generation (1900-1945), Baby Boomers (1946-1962), Generation X (1962-1979/80), and the Millennials (1980/81-2000) (Black-Beth, 2006; Cennamo & Gardner, 2008). The unique makeup of the workplace has brought about the attempt to understand how these generations work together, what differences they bring with them to the workplace, and how if at all, these differences might affect the workplace. This unique makeup is occurring because our population is aging and people are experiencing longer life expectancies, and thus are required to work later in life leaving the traditional retirement ages of 62-65 at the wayside (Roodin & Mendelson, 2013). United States census data show nearly 18 percent of American workers are 65 or older and still employed (Roodin & Mendelson, 2013). Chen and Shoemaker (2014) noted Baby Boomers account for 30 percent of the population. The U.S. bureau of labor statistics listed Baby Boomers as making up 19.5 percent of the labor force as of 2010 (Toossi, 2012). These older generations also affect

younger generations in the workforce with the U.S. Department of Labor reporting workers aged 16 to 24 (Millennials) have an employment rate of just 46.6% (Lieber, 2010). Due to this diverse makeup of the workplace, human resource managers, administrators, supervisors, and business owners are looking at how to not only create a work environment that is productive using these different generations, but also one that creates adequate levels of job satisfaction for each generation (Cogin, 2012).

Interest in generations in the workplace stems from the belief that these generations differ significantly in not only the type of work they desire, but also in their goals, expectations, work values, work preferences, and workplace attitudes (Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; Parry & Urwin, 2011). Much of these differences can be seen in the categorization of these generations. Baby Boomers are one of the most studied and analyzed generations (Lieber, 2010). Baby Boomers are characterized as challenging the rules (Lieber, 2010), loyal and holding the belief of paying your dues for promotions (Murray et al., 2011), and thinking of work as a central aspect of their life (Deal et al., 2013). Generation X workers are viewed as skeptical and individualistic (Costanza et al., 2012), selfish, and having more commitment to themselves than to their employer (Cenamo & Gardner, 2008). Millennials are described as being overconfident (Lieber, 2010), connected 24-7 digitally or technology-driven (Srinivasan, 2012), sheltered (Kowske, Rasch, & Wiley, 2010), and preferring a more “fun” workplace (Lester, Standifer, Schultz, & Windsor, 2012). Due to these differences either real or perceived, organizations are attempting to overcome the variances between the generations so as to not negatively impact the workplace as a whole (Murray et al., 2011).

Differences between these generations also revolve around specific aspects other than character traits as listed above, such aspects as technology, communication, managerial styles, feedback, as well as empowerment (Lester et al., 2012). Kowske et al. (2010) listed several work facets that affected job satisfaction between the generations and found aspects such as benefits, pay, career advancement, and recognition were the most impactful regarding job satisfaction, job performance, and turnover intentions. Deal et al. (2013) stated motivational aspects account for large intergenerational differences with Baby Boomers, placing a more central role of work in their life, as compared to Generation X. Generation X members also had higher status oriented values than the Baby Boomer generation (Deal et al., 2013). Millennials were more motivated by progression as well as by being in an associate type workplace and were less motivated by power than Baby Boomers (Parry & Urwin, 2011). Lieber (2010) examined each generation and found specifics to each that could be used to connect with the differing generations. Lieber (2010) stated Baby Boomers need success, while Generation X need autonomy and lastly, Millennials need validation. Srinivasan (2012) stated generational differences were a combination of characteristics, such as personality traits, work values, motivations, and attitudes.

Another key characteristic with generational differences in the workplace deals with organizational factors. When an organization desires to develop appropriate policies, it needs to take generational differences into considerations so as to not alienate one or more of the generations (Benson & Brown, 2011). Cugin (2012) stated managers who do not understand the different and similar values of the generations are setting themselves

up for failure and even loss of employees due to their inability to motivate these different groups. Lester et al. (2012) furthered this motivational aspect that through either intrinsic or extrinsic factors the differing generations approach work and how they prefer to be motivated differently. These motivational factors may cause younger employees to have a number of jobs within a relatively short amount of time in comparison to older workers, due to the organizational makeup and motivational styles (Cogin, 2012). Bright (2010) stated the aging of our society has increased the possibility of older employees having to report to younger and thus different generational cohort supervisors. Members of these differing generations may steer clear of an organization simply due to the company's administrative makeup and treatment of different generational members (Lieber, 2010). The Millennial generation is viewed as desiring a management style this is collective in nature and is supportive as well as building towards a positive work environment (Guillot-Soulez & Soulez, 2014).

Generational cohorts in the workplace also bring forth and show the progression of information and the how the job is carried out. This can be evidenced as previous generations pass or refuse to pass information onto incoming generations of the workforce (Joshi, Dencker, & Franz, 2011). Roodin and Mendelson (2013) stated out of a group of surveyed CEOs, more than half responded they were unprepared to handle their aging workforce and one of the major challenges they addressed was the loss of expertise when older workers left the workforce. Other researchers concurred with the challenge of passing knowledge and skills from retiring employees to new hires and stated generational phenomena were the key source of this challenge (Joshi, Dencker, Franz, &

Martocchio, 2010). Joshi et al. (2010) stated interdependencies between generations provided the foundation for the diffusion of the skills, knowledge, and resources from one generation to the next. These relationships between generations can range from resistive to working with each other, and may be seen as a competition for resources or openness where there exists reciprocity of information exchange (Joshi et al., 2010).

This transmission of skills and knowledge can be difficult due to the generational differences. Older employees tend to seek more personalized and meaningful relationships with their leaders while younger employees prefer a list of who is key and knowledgeable in the matter at hand rather than forming relationships with others as well as being more focused on getting a task completed than the interpersonal dimension (Roodin & Mendelson, 2013). These relationships correspond to specific aspects of the job, such as the use of technology to communicate and each generation's preference (Roodin & Mendelson, 2013). Lester et al. (2012) stated that the extent to which a generation grew up with technology, its availability and reliability affected that generation's value on technology. These technology values can also affect managerial styles as older generations may view working relationships as something more personal and face-to-face; whereas Millennials may consider an e-mail or text message as an appropriate method of communication (Lester et al., 2012).

Generations in Law Enforcement

This area of the literature is lacking in that the empirical research has not looked at generational cohorts in law enforcement (Henchey, 2005). Current literature has also not looked at generational cohorts as related to law enforcement as a variable of job

satisfaction (Johnson, 2012). Extensive searching completed through a number of academic databases showed a very large number of research articles and publications examining generational cohorts in a vast array of fields yet, this same search method showed a near dearth of literature looking at this same topic of generational cohorts when applied directly to the field of law enforcement or policing. Literature from within the field of law enforcement, such as the FBI law enforcement bulletin and the Police Chief Bulletin, have begun to discuss the generational shift occurring in law enforcement and they state a need to further generational understanding (see Caudill & Peak, 2009; Henchey, 2005). Searches of sites such as the International Association of Chief of Police (IACP) and contact with IACP researchers also revealed industry experts such as IACP had no research data or demographic data on generational cohorts in law enforcement.

Where generational cohorts are being studied in law enforcement is in regard to police staffing, and even this area is understudied and underrepresented (Wilson, 2011). Julseth, Ruiz, and Hummer (2011) stated of the thousands of studies on job satisfaction published since 1974, only 34 of these studies looked at police organizations within that timeframe. As previously noted, age and years of service as variables have been focused upon in published job satisfaction research articles, but none of the studies that included these variables used them in connection with generational cohorts. Others (Henchey, 2005) have noted current police administrations have not and need to begin developing plans to recruit Millennials so as to ensure they recruit the best candidates to become future law enforcement leaders. Henchey (2005) contended that there needs to be an understanding of generational differences within law enforcement and that these

differences will greatly affect the workplace. The impact of differences will be in the areas of recruiting, retention, leadership, training, and workforce transitions from the older generations such as the Baby Boomers to younger generations such as the Millennials (Henchey, 2005). These differences can be illustrated by contrasting what an officer with 20 or more years left until retirement versus one with 1-2 years left until retirement deem important. The officer with 20 or more years, more than likely a Millennial, will not have the same life, financial, and health issues as those of an officer being a Baby Boomer with only a year or two until retirement (Caudill & Peak, 2009).

Police Staffing and Generational Cohorts

The field of law enforcement is entering a new phase where departments are asked to do more with less and levels of police staffing are of great concern (Wilson, 2011). Many problems encompass police staffing and generational cohorts. To begin, law enforcement agencies generally do not have or do not apply the same doctrines of personnel management when compared to other industries (Wilson). Wilson stated law enforcement administrators seldom have the time or resources to dedicate to the study of their personnel situations and from that develop actual evidence based staffing lessons. Police staffing levels can be affected by a number of aspects, such as through loss of officers due to retirement; this can also come in large cohorts within a small period of time, and voluntary and involuntary turnover (Smith, Wareham, & Lambert, 2013).

The South San Francisco Police Department (SSFPD) illustrates one specific example of the recruitment problem, for the SSFPD's Chief of Police noticed his FTO program had a fifty percent failure rate and began to question why this rate was so high

(Massoni, 2009). SSFPD realized the explanation for their high failure rate was due to the FTO's being Baby Boomer officers attempting to train Millennial recruits and the learning styles between the two as well as the generational differences between these officers (Massoni, 2009). After implementing a new training program where not only were the Baby Boomer FTO's trained to recognize the differences between themselves and the Millennial recruits, but also allowing the Millennial recruits to engage in dialog that allowed them to express what they were learning and relate that to their own experiences to better help them relate, significant improvement was achieved from previous levels (Massoni, 2009).

One of the most prevalent points is the upcoming and ongoing retirement of Baby Boomer officers (Batts, Smoot, & Scrivner, 2012; Henchey, 2005; Hilal, Densley, & Jones, 2015). The exodus of this generational cohort in policing has prompted departments to offer retention bonuses and incentives as well as to increase the retirement age to deal with such problems as pension fund shortages (Wilson, 2011). This exodus is unlike Baby Boomers in other fields of work who are staying beyond the average retirement ages of 62-65.

The trend in policing of Baby Boomers retiring is also being seen in other fields as workers from different generations have changes in their lives and career goals on both the young and older end of the spectrum (Wilson, 2011). Wilson (2011) noted turnover in policing has been the result of lower salaries, a negative perception of law enforcement by the public, and also due to the lack of interest in the field by younger workers entering the workforce. In policing, the staffing problem seems to be deepening due to

generational differences in their concepts, preferences, and satisfactions with what they consider work and a career (Ryan, Kriska, West, & Sacco, 2001; Wilson, 2011). What further complicates the issue in law enforcement is generational preferences and expectations, younger generations seem to be off-put by the quasi-militaristic nature of police work, the personal and familial sacrifices that must be made due to the profession, the long and sometimes erratic shifts, and also the off duty life that accompanies this line of work (Ryan et al., 2001; Wilson, 2011). Younger workers also have expectations regarding advancement that the field of policing cannot offer in the desired timeframe acceptable to this generation (Wilson, 2011).

Age

The use of generational cohorts in research brings about questions concerning if the impact is due to a cohort affect or, due to just the age of the participants (Joshi et al., 2011). Salthouse (2013) argued chronological age is a better determinant of age-related changes rather than the use of cohort groups (generations). The inclusion of this variable was important to this study as it added the aspect of a continuous variable and also allowed this researcher to measure if the variable of age was a greater predictor than that of generational cohorts in determining job satisfaction. With the aging of the population there has been a need to better comprehend what, if any, role chronological age has in the workplace (Truxillo, Cadiz, & Hammer, 2015). Researchers have also acted on this need for comprehension in that the use of age as a variable has moved from merely a control variable to one of primary focus (Truxillo et al., 2015).

The effects of aging such as physical, cognitive, and psychological changes, illustrate how through the aging process each individual worker changes and how these changes can play into their levels of job satisfaction, how they are viewed in the workplace, and also how this can affect their attitudes and actions on the job (Truxillo et al., 2015). The use of age, rather than generational cohort must be examined as people can progress differently. As we progress through the years some individuals age more successfully than others. Although age can be a constant, two people of the same age may have vast differences in aging issues such as physical, cognitive, and psychological abilities (Backes-Gellner & Veen, 2013). Researchers have shown people do not have the same aging trajectories and they also change at different paces and in different ways (Truxillo et al., 2015).

Age, taken outside of generational cohorts, is important to examine as it pertains to when individuals entered the field of law enforcement. One generation may have entered at a later age when compared to other generations (Stratton, 1984). This information is important due to the fact employee's attitudes change over time with both a honeymoon and hangover period where high job satisfaction is generally followed by a period of deteriorated and lower satisfaction with their job (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). Where age will also help to be a further indication of job satisfaction outcomes is the differing beliefs regarding generational cohort job satisfaction levels. There is the explanation that older generations have constantly had higher levels of job satisfaction, even when they were in their youth (Hedge, Borman, & Lammlein, 2006). Another possibility is that job satisfaction is also high for younger cohorts as well. The inclusion

of chronological age instead of cohort membership will help to paint a clearer picture as to specific ages and their levels of satisfaction.

Research in the medical and economic fields have shown employees of differing ages have different characteristics such as skills, attitudes, and abilities that have an effect on their productivity (Backes-Gellner & Veen, 2013). With these differences also comes stereotypes that permeate the workplace with there being some realities, some myths, and also a mixture of the two. Finkelstein, Ryan, and King (2013) defined these as meta stereotypes, the expectations people believe other age groups embrace about their own age cohort. These groups are sometimes defined by age ranges similar to generational cohorts while at other times they are lumped into categories such as older and younger workers. This latter description questions who falls into what category. The U.S. Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967 defined older workers as anyone aged 40 or above (NG & Feldman, 2012). Looking at the active workforce today, we have ages generally ranging from 16 to 65 years old, making 40 years old a reasonable dividing point of younger and older workers (NG & Feldman, 2012).

Stereotypes of these groups of workers range from complimentary to downright extremely negative. The older workers are sometimes defined as poorer performers, resistant to change, less motivated, unlikely and unwilling to learn new skills, less healthy, more expensive to employ, and also less likely to participate in training and career development (Finkelstein et al., 2013; Hedge, Borman, & Lammlein, 2006; NG & Feldman, 2012). On the opposite end, current Millennial workers are generally described as entitled, overly reliant of technology, disloyal, and in constant need of feedback

(Finkelstein et al., 2013). A majority of these perceptions are directed towards older workers as our workforce is aging and estimates range from one in four Americans will be 60 or older and one in three Europeans being within the same range within the next fifteen years (Finkelstein et al., 2013). Other researchers estimate over 10% of our entire global population is at least 60 years old (Hedge et al., 2006). With the continued and steady drop in birth rates, we can expect a steady increase in our older population with the largest portion belonging to the Baby Boomer generation, and a smaller and smaller representation from younger generations (Hedge et al., 2006).

With the current trends in aging, our workforce is becoming heavy ended with older workers and the inclusion of new, younger workers into the workplace creates an interesting environment. Upon review of the stereotypes, one may believe there is much discord between the differently aged workers (Backes-Gellner & Veen, 2013). Some researchers suggest there are positives to having a diversely aged workforce. With this diversity we can have more diverse problem solving capacity, more effective transfer of cultural/workplace norms, and improved incentive structures (Backes-Gellner & Veen, 2013). These positives do not come alone though as difficulties may arise between this diversely aged workers. Communication problems, value conflict, and the possibility of increasing turnover may all arise from an age diverse workforce (Backes-Gellner & Veen, 2013).

An examination of older workers in the workforce shows changes in not only their physical capabilities as workers, but also in aspects of cognitive changes such as memory, and in psychological changes such as in motivation. The ages and times when

these changes occur vary on each area and the amount of change varies from worker to worker (Truxillo et al., 2015). The physical changes workers go through begin the moment they start in the workplace. Declines in functional capacity is a normal occurrence and well-known as normal physiology defines peaks in functional capacity between the ages of 20 and 30 with normal declines past that age range (Soer, Brouwer, Geertzen, van der Schans, Groothoff, & Reneman, 2012). Men are subject to greater decline in dynamic strength as they age and due to this loss, workloads may not be able to be met by aging workers so adjustments to workload and work tasks may need to be adapted (Soer et al., 2012). In law enforcement this may account for the possible differences in job tasks performed by aged officers and older generations of officers overall. Rosenblum (2006) stated every industry must account for job design when looking at aging workers. As workers age beginning in their late 30's a loss of ten percent in both strength and agility can be seen for the each subsequent decade of life (Rosenblum, 2006).

Another area of concern with physical changes in aging officers is that these officers may not be able to reduce either their work hours or, switch to a less physically demanding job task without there being the possibility of a loss or reduction in pay and benefits (Schwatka, Butler, & Rosecrance, 2012). Any change in physical abilities may directly affect the worker's workplace due to either ability to perform required tasks, or, risk of injury and injury leading to absenteeism. Some researchers (Lalleman & Rycx, 2009) have noted that there is a strong decline in productivity after the age of 50. This decline brings about safety issues especially within the field of law enforcement where

physical abilities can be the difference between life and death in certain situations.

Leischik et al. (2015) researched physical factors between German police officers, firemen, and sedentary clerks. Leischik et al. (2015) showed police officers have poorer health prognoses and higher metabolic disorders than the general public, have higher obesity rates, and higher waist circumferences when compared to firemen and sedentary clerks. Also shown was police officers appeared to be more active on their days off (off-duty) than during work hours and, there was a correlation between activity levels and the areas of police duty (i.e. job tasks).

Cognitive changes in aging workers vary from person to person but, there is an acceptance that to some degree, there is certain declines experienced by everyone. The largest area of concern with aging employees and cognitive change revolves around memory (Brough, Johnson, Drummond, Pennisi, & Timms, 2011; Lesch, Horrey, Powell, & Wogalter, 2012). It is generally accepted that there is some degree of change in memory as age progresses but these changes differ in the types of memory, dealing with crystallized and fluid intelligence (Brough et al., 2011; Drabe, Hauff, & Richter, 2015; Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004). Fluid intelligence deals with abilities associated with working memory, attention, abstract reasoning, and the processing of novel information (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004). Crystallized intelligence deals with a broad range of aspects including educational and experiential knowledge (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004). These two types of intelligence also have general acceptance that as age progresses, crystallized intelligence increases while fluid intelligence decreases with some (Brough et al., 2011) noting fluid intelligence peaks in a person's early 20's. It has also been noted that as a

worker ages, they can compensate the loss of fluid intelligence with their job experience and job knowledge (Brough et al., 2011; Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004).

Cognitive changes do not come without drawbacks though as older workers may remember less information over the short-term, require more time for memory recall, and also have the decreased ability to remove irrelevant or distracting stimuli (Lesch et al., 2012). Ilmarinen (2015) stated work tasks that involve aspects such as speed and precision can be substituted by high motivation for older workers due to the experience and wisdom they have gained throughout their life. Other studies have also shown older workers are disproportionately disadvantaged when completing tasks that require the use of working memory (Schapkin, Freude, Gajewski, Wild-Wall, & Falkenstein, 2012).

Psychological changes occurring in workers as they age also vary in such aspects as their motivation to continue working all together, possibly change jobs, or motivation for specific aspects or job tasks their job presents (Kanfer, Beier, & Ackerman, 2013). Boumans, deJong, and Janssen (2011) stated work characteristics and work motivations are different for older and younger workers as each groups may appreciate or dislike different aspects of their job when compared to each other. Job motivation may come from the job tasks each worker is assigned to and these tasks assignments generally vary due to specific knowledge and experience of each worker and also in certain cases due to seniority status of the employees with more senior workers getting or taking the more preferential tasks leaving the menial and less desired tasks to the younger and less senior employees (Truxillo, Cadiz, Rineer, Zaniboni, & Fraccaroli, 2012). Zaniboni, Truxillo, and Fraccaroli (2013) stated older workers would not benefit from job task variety as they

would benefit more from applying their range of accumulated skills. Zaniboni et al. (2013) furthered that skill and task variety are positively related to job satisfaction, motivation, and involvement. Lack of variety may lead to increased turnover and even a shortage of workers within certain fields as certain jobs can offer more variety than others and this can all lead to a war for talented, skilled, and qualified workers between organizations (Burke & NG, 2006). This variety can also be a negative as with the field of law enforcement, the opportunity for variety is high but, this variety can also bring with it stressful and traumatic experiences. Experiencing stressful and traumatic events can lead to a number of both physical and psychological changes (Boals, Riggs, & Kraha, 2013).

The varying ages within the workforce brings about a diverse and rich population in experience, knowledge, attitudes, expectations, and skill levels. As age progresses research has shown that we all experience different types of change and these changes can directly affect our thoughts, opinions, and feeling we bring into the workplace and towards the workplace. Age research has shown we eventually physically cannot do the things we once did as younger workers, our minds eventually do not work in the same manner as our younger selves, and also, our motivation to continue at a specific job or in the workplace as a whole can change.

Job Satisfaction

Azeem (2010) stated job satisfaction can be defined as a positive or enjoyable emotional state stemming from the assessment of one's job or job experiences. Kowske et al. (2010) defined job satisfaction as a review of job facets such as pay, recognition,

career development, as well as overall job satisfaction again defining each of these as a worker's contentment with each. The most prevalent aspect on job satisfaction for many studies has to do with worker production (Azeem, 2010). It is generally hypothesized that workers, regardless of profession, with higher levels of job satisfaction are more committed to an organization (Azeem, 2010), have lower turnover intentions (Lu & Gursoy, 2013), and had higher levels of motivation (Balci, 2011).

Universal job facets related to job satisfaction regardless of the line of work include pay and benefits (Kowske et al., 2010), achievement and advancement (Balci, 2011), job conditions, and opportunities (Thompson & Phua, 2012). Where studies have diverged on job satisfaction there have been a number of aspects looked at such as education (Balci, 2011; Rydberg & Terrill, 2010) gender (Hassell et al., 2011), organizational variables (Brough & Frame, 2004; Julseth, Ruiz, & Hummer, 2011; Kai-ting, 2012; Smith et al., 2013; Spagnoli & Caetano, 2012), cultural aspects (Abdulla et al., 2011; Kai-ting, 2012; Howes & Goodman-Delahunty, 2014), and even a combination of several demographic factors (White, Cooper, Saunders, & Raganella, 2010; Zhao et al., 1999). Research on job satisfaction is predominant as its understanding would reveal what goes on in organizations and their fundamental secrets of how satisfaction is obtained, created, and maintained (O'Leary & Griffin, 2005).

In the law enforcement field job satisfaction studies are not as common as in other fields such as business and these studies generally overlap in the variables studied and the results found (Julseth et al., 2011). Gender, race, education level, work environments, tasks assigned to, and years of service are the most commonly studied variables of job

satisfaction in law enforcement (Abdulla et al., 2011; Brough & Frame, 2004; Carlan, 2007; Hassell et al., 2011; Johnson, 2012; Wilson, 2012). Job satisfaction in law enforcement has also looked heavily into explanatory demographic and organizational factors (White et al., 2010; Zhao et al., 1999). The most significant variables affecting job satisfaction in law enforcement include years in policing, gender, age, and race (Hassell et al., 2011).

Examining consistently significant variables there can be seen more specifics as to why the variables of year of service, gender, age, and race are constantly shown to show significance within research in job satisfaction of law enforcement officers. Years of service in policing shows some researchers (Howes & Goodman-Delahunty, 2014; Zhao et al., 1999) who indicate a positive correlation between years of service and cynicism and a negative relationship between seniority and job satisfaction. Years of service have also shown a negative correlation on job satisfaction, whereas a lack of opportunities for advancement within police departments were noted when both Detroit police department and Oakland, California police were studied (White, Cooper, Saunders, & Raganella, 2010). Brough and Frame (2004) showed tenure at a department was positively associated with turnover intention. Julseth, Ruiz, and Hummer (2011) found officers with more years on the job had decreased job satisfaction and found that when looking at other variables such as shift rotations, this decreased job satisfaction even more.

Gender is a common research variable in police job satisfaction as the field of policing is predominantly male and Caucasian (Zhao et al., 1999). Zhao et al. (1999)

stated both female and minority race officers demonstrated lower levels of job satisfaction than their Caucasian and male counterparts as the white males were viewed as the ones who set the tone for the agency's culture. Smith, Wareham, and Lambert (2013) found demographic variables such as race, gender, and age were high predictors of voluntary police officer turnover. Brough and Frame (2004) stated female officers generally have higher turnover levels than male officers.

Motivational factors have also been studied regarding job satisfaction in law enforcement officers (Abdulla et al., 2011; Deal et al., 2013; Howes & Goodman-Delahunty, 2014; Ruiz & Hummer, 2011; Spagnoli & Caetano, 2012). These studies also include work environment factors which can lead to stress as a byproduct and this can spill over into several areas for the officer including family strain, co-worker conflict, and false job expectations (Ruiz & Hummer, 2011). In the field of law enforcement work environment is a unique aspect as this can change on a day to day basis depending upon the officer's duties and assigned tasks. These work environments can also expose officers to negative experiences (Spagnoli & Caetano, 2012), poor conditions (Howes & Goodman-Delahunty, 2014), and hazardous locations. Abdulla et al. (2011) stated work environments have a direct and significant effect on job dissatisfaction. Environmental factors have been shown to be the key determinant and most significant factor of job satisfaction (Abdulla et al., 2011).

One of the areas proposed to affect job satisfaction in law enforcement is the type of work the officer is assigned (Hassell et al., 2011). The work task(s) officers' carry out can vary greatly on a day-to-day basis. Opinions on these tasks can be different from

officer to officer depending on the officer's demographic factors, their perceptions of the level of difficulty the task(s) present, and also the significance in which they view the task (Hassell et al., 2011). Abdulla et al. (2010) stated officers factor in the skills needed to carry out a task, the significance of the task, its autonomy, and if it brings about interactions with co-workers. Certain job tasks in policing require more complex accountabilities and obligations than others thus, accounting for differing levels of satisfaction for each officer (Morrell & Currie, 2015).

Brunetto et al. (2012) stated management is responsible to provide experiences that include effective leadership, coworker relationships, and interesting work tasks. Julseth et al. (2011) showed patrol officers consistently scored lower on all job satisfaction measures when compared to detectives and supervisors. The differences between patrol officers and detectives and supervisors can easily be seen in each group's day-to-day tasks. Coworker satisfaction as mentioned before in interactions and relationships are another area of concern regarding job satisfaction. Balci (2011) showed officers with lower levels of education (basic schooling and training, no college) held resentment towards fellow officers with higher levels of education (college degree) as the lower educated officers were assigned to work more hours, received fewer promotions, and were assigned to tasks quite different than those assigned to the higher educated officers (desk duties versus traditional patrolling). Comparing a number of studies on job satisfaction and job tasks, O'Leary and Griffin (1995) concluded that task perceptions were a rudimentary determinant of job satisfaction.

Organizational commitment was another variable listed frequently within the literature regarding job satisfaction. Brunetto et al. (2012) maintained the higher the level of commitment from an employee, the stronger their engagement became with their job. Organizational commitment can vary due to factors the organization presents, such as lack of opportunity for advancement (Brough & Frame, 2004), satisfaction with the work itself (Spagnoli & Caetano, 2012), and an employee's level of involvement and identification with the organization (Azeem, 2010). This commitment can change as it is hypothesized the longer an employee stays with an organization, the more time he has to comprehend the organization and what exactly his relationship with it is (Azeem, 2010). There has been a large amount of research linking years of service with job satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Azeem, 2010; Brough & Frame, 2004; Howes & Goodman-Delahunty, 2014; Zhao et al., 1999). Some researchers have noted that job satisfaction can be gained by an employee's ability to achieve personal and organization goals, while dissatisfaction can be determined by work environment conditions (Johnson, 2012).

Organizational commitment has been noted to be a moderating variable with job satisfaction (Top & Gider, 2013; Saridakis, Torres, & Johnstone, 2013). Saridakis et al. (2013) researched job satisfaction and organizational commitment and showed a positive relationship between the two. Top and Gider (2013) also showed a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment using international participants. Other research on this topic has also showed that employees not only weigh their commitment to their employer, but also their emotional attachment to and involvement in their job, the perceived costs of leaving their employer, and lastly, any perceptions they

may have that deal with any obligations they have in staying with their employer (Huang, You, & Tsai, 2012).

Summary and Transition

The extent of diversity in today's workplace has not been seen in history since the Industrial Revolution when people left fields and farms for factories and offices (Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 2013). This diversity stems, in part, from the different generations we have working side by side and the values, mindset, demographics, ambitions, and views each generation brings with them to the workplace (Zemke et al., 2013). There have been a number of studies that have explored what differences each of these generations has between them and what defines and creates each generation. Research has also attempted to address the demand from industries, administrators, and human resource professionals for guidance and understanding of how to address generational differences in the workplace (Cogin, 2012). This research was driven by a search for understanding regarding job satisfaction and how generational cohorts may affect job satisfaction and what each generation specifically wants and needs to obtain desired levels of job satisfaction. Within industries and occupations specifically, law enforcement is one such workplace where the study of generational cohorts has seldom been explored, nor have any of its possible effects on this workforce been reported. Job satisfaction in law enforcement has been examined, but to a lesser extent when compared to other fields of work, such as business. The literature available on job satisfaction in law enforcement personnel has to date focused on either specific facets of the job and their possible effects on job satisfaction or demographic information of officers and their possible effects on

job satisfaction. Existing research has yet to examine generational cohorts within law enforcement to see if this variable may affect job satisfaction levels of officers.

With this review of the literature, it can be seen how generational cohorts may be related to job satisfaction in law enforcement officers. All of the previously mentioned variables are intertwined and connected with the officer's policing tasks, their organizational commitment, as well as his satisfaction or dissatisfaction, with the work environment and co-workers being key predictors of job satisfaction. Having seen the different approaches and variables studied regarding job satisfaction and law enforcement officers, there is a need for the study of generational cohorts and their relationship to job satisfaction. The business world has shown through its extensive study of generational cohorts that these cohorts can have an impact in the workplace and with both individual and organizational job satisfaction. Within the law enforcement literature constantly seen are the variables of age and years of service as demographics used to predict job satisfaction, yet no study I am aware of to date has tied these variables to generational cohorts.

Chapter 3 shows how the existing gaps will be examined and researched, including how data will be collected and analyzed to understand the significance of the proposed hypotheses. Chapter 4 shows the results of this study with the analysis of data. Chapter 5 offers interpretation of the findings, limitations to the study, recommendations for future research, and implications for social impact.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to see if generational cohorts have a significant relationship with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, age, and the performance of policing duties among law enforcement officers. This study looked at similarities and differences of three generations: Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials currently working in law enforcement, thus adding to the existing research. Moreover, possible changes in future practices within law enforcement were arguably gained from this study due to the shown generational differences. With a vast number of studies on job satisfaction and with generations in the workplace there is a lack of research on generations and job satisfaction in law enforcement; thus, there is the need for further research using these variables. My research added to existing knowledge and the findings might assist law enforcement administrators in hiring new officers, retaining current officers, and also in understanding what aspects may affect job satisfaction in the different generations of officers. The unique blend of generations in law enforcement at this time and the knowledge that costs associated with hiring and training new officers will continue to increase (e.g. Lynch & Tuckey, 2008; Smith et al., 2013; Wilson, Dalton, Scheer, & Grammich, 2010), together with the possible loss of knowledge from retiring officers (e.g. Lynch & Tuckey, 2008; Wilson, 2012) showed the need to understand the wants, needs, and desires of these generations and how these may alter job satisfaction levels.

This chapter covered the research method, the target population and identified sample, the instruments to be utilized, analysis plan, threats to validity, and ethical procedures for the proposed study.

Research Design and Rationale

This study utilized a correlational design to explore the relationship between officer's generational cohorts, specific patrol duties, organizational commitment levels, and co-worker satisfaction on job satisfaction levels. The JDI and the OCQ were used to measure this correlation from scores collected from both instruments. Officers were not randomly assigned to certain groups and no variables were manipulated within the study, thus justifying the use of a correlation design. The main analysis of this data was done through a regression analysis. This analysis was conducted using the statistical software program SPSS. The regression allowed for illustration of the linear relationship of the IV's (generational cohorts, specific patrol duties, and age) and the DV's (job satisfaction) (organizational commitment scores was used as a moderating variable). This relationship was shown through multiple regressions so as to find the prediction of variables on job satisfaction scores. Also incorporated into the design to compare the means gathered from officer's responses regarding policing tasks was an ANOVA. The ANOVA helped to clarify measurements in the policing tasks areas as it compared means from patrolling duties.

This study used a quantitative approach. This type of design heavily permeates research on both job satisfaction and that of generations in the workplace. Thompson and

Phua (2012) researched job satisfaction studies and found out of a total of 929 studies on job satisfaction, 901 of these studies utilized a quantitative method.

The independent variables were generational cohorts, age, and different policing duties. Generational cohorts were defined as Baby Boomers (1946-1962), Generation X (1962-1979/80), and the Millennials (1980/81-2000) (Black-Beth, 2006; Cennamo & Gardner, 2008). Different policing tasks/duties were defined as patrolling, conducting preliminary investigations, traffic enforcement, warrant service, community relations, critical incident response, and complaint response. Organizational commitment was defined through scores collected from the Organization Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). The dependent variables for this study were job satisfaction scores of law enforcement officers gained from responses collected through the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), and organizational commitment scores of officers gained from responses to the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire.

Time and resource constraints for this study included the amount of time it took to collect the required amount of participants needed for a representative sample. Although this researcher planned on collecting participants at numerous times from the participating agency, many aspects such as leave, vacations, and policing duties may have affected the amount of officers available at the time to participate.

Methodology

Population

The initial population utilized in this study was active sworn police officers employed by a major Midwestern city police department. The original proposed police

department to be studied had 585 sworn police officers as of March of 2015. This researcher acknowledges that this number may fluctuate with retirements, separations, terminations, and new hires but should be relatively close. In 2012 the F.B.I.'s uniform crime reporting program listed this department as having 569 officers with the city's population being 286,020 thus a mean of 16.3 officers per 10,000 population (Federal Bureau of Investigations, 2013). This three-year span shows a change of only 16 officers thus the sampling frame should be rather consistent. This department was not used in the study as the Chief removed his consent for participation directly before data was collected and two subsequent large Midwestern departments were utilized.

Participants for this study were gained through a stratified random sampling. This sampling design ensures a variety of groups of the population are represented adequately within a sample to the extent those invited agree to participate (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). Demographic information was collected through a demographic questionnaire completed by the officers. Knowledge gained from this demographic information was used to attempt to collect a representative sample of each variable within the study. All uniformed patrol officers employed by the departments were solicited to participate and of those who agreed to voluntarily participate, a representative sample from each group was taken so as to ensure better representation. This form of sampling did not violate random sampling as the sample was drawn from within each stratum. One possible drawback of this sampling design would be if participants from a certain stratum did not participate to the level needed to be representative.

The stratification used in this research was based off of demographic information that was gathered from sources such as the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS). Since the main variable in this study was generational cohorts, age was the biggest demographic used for stratification. According to the BLS, workers classified as police and sheriff's patrol officers numbered roughly 688,000 in 2015 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2015). Officers who could be classified as Millennials numbered roughly 33% of the total, Generation X and Baby Boomer totals are slightly different as there is a two year overlap from the data provided by the BLS that covers the ages of 52-54 which is included in the category of those aged 45-54. Since no other data were found regarding age and this population, the total from the 45-54 year old group was included in the Generation X total. Using these standards Generation X totaled 55% of the total population. The remaining category of officers included those aged 55-64 and 65 and older (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2015). The oldest members of the Baby Boomers would have been 69 in 2015, so again there is an overlap of age with the last two categories and classifying those who would be Baby Boomers and those who would fall into the Silent Generation, which was not used for this study. When examining the data that were collected, the oldest officer was 65 years old. Using this standard, the age group of 65 and older was not included in the classification of Baby Boomers in the total.

Sample

Using the G*Power program, alpha level, power, and effect size are set as well as the type of test and number of tails used. Using this system of sample size calculation, the following parameters were input into the system: effect size (0.5), α error probability

(0.05), and power (0.95). The sample size calculated was 210 with an actual power of 0.9501287. The power of .95 was used, as this would give a very high probability of the real relationship or real effect. An alpha level of .05 is a standard level set in psychological research whereas this addresses type I and type II errors and increases the probability of coming to the correct conclusion.

Procedures for Recruitment

I recruited participants and collected data that were gathered from pencil-paper formatted instruments. After receiving the proper permissions, I physically went to the recruitment site (police station) and through time allotted by the administration during roll-call, solicited participants. The roll-call solicitation gave the opportunity to have access to the most participants as officers were gathered at a central location at a specific time. The solicitation for participation occurred on numerous days and times so as to give the opportunity for the most participants to be gathered as well as to give officers from several shifts the opportunity to participate. Upon gaining voluntary consent officers were instructed and given an informed consent form and advised that their participation was voluntary, anonymous, and they could end participation at any time. Instruments were administered in-person and the officers were in groups as the groups were made up from the different shifts when they gathered together for roll-call. The time allotted for completion of the instruments was originally planned for roughly fifteen to thirty minutes. This plan was altered as Walden's IRB requested officers be given a sufficient amount of time to consider their participation so all instruments were distributed and collected in self-addressed envelopes. The OCQ consisted of 15 Likert scale questions

and the JDI had a total of 72 items marked with either a yes, no, or question mark response; therefore, time of completion should not have been a significant factor. The main information gathered from participants was their scores from the two instruments, as well as their date of birth for classification into generational cohorts. Participants were advised the nature of the study and what the data would be used for, as well as contact information regarding results of the study.

Instrumentation

Demographics questionnaire.

A simple demographics questionnaire was included with the other instruments to allow officers to self-identify their gender, race, and year of birth.

Job task questionnaire.

A job task questionnaire was included with the instruments to allow officers to self-identify the job task they identified as the most common aspect of their job tasks on a day-to-day basis. The identified job tasks include, patrolling, preliminary investigation, and other tasks associated with the functions of a patrol officer. Each officer marked the frequency of the duty ranging from never to daily.

Job Descriptive Index.

The JDI was first published in 1969 by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin, in their book *The Measurement of Satisfaction in Work and Retirement* (Zickar, n.d.). The JDI looks at five different job facets that include coworkers, present pay, opportunities for promotion, work on present job, and supervision (Zickar, n.d.). Responses are marked either yes, no, or with a question mark under each of the five facets with yes indicating the variable is

what the participant would describe as their work, no indicating it does not describe their work, and the question mark indicating the participant cannot decide if it does or does not describe their work (Zickar, n.d.). This instrument is open to the public and is free to use for both research and workplace development. The populations this instrument has been studied on include a wide variety of public organizations, as well as the population of law enforcement officers (Zhao et al., 1999) that is proposed for this study.

There are two main subdomains of the JDI, one that looks at the global or long term aspects of the respondent's job compared to other jobs held by the respondent, and a day to day domain of the respondent's current job (Kinicki, McKee-Ryan, Schriesheim, & Carson, 2002). Several studies (Donovan, Drasgow, & Probst, 2000; Kinicki et al., 2002; McIntyre, S., & McIntyre, T., 2010; Rosnowski, 1989) have examined the scales and subscales of the JDI, testing its reliability and validity all confirming and reconfirming both of these aspects. The JDI is one of the most well-known and respected instruments utilized for the measuring of job satisfaction in a number of different workplaces. For calculating job satisfaction scores, respondents with scores above 27 indicate satisfaction, while scores below 27 indicate dissatisfaction (Balzar, Kihm, Smith, Irwin, Bachiochi, & Robie, et al., 1997). This score is an accumulation of possible points regarding responses to each facet with points being given for the following responses as 2 point for *yes* responses, 1 point for *?*, 0 points for *no* responses for positive description phrases and 0 points (*yes*), 1 point (*?*), 2 points (*no*) for negative description phrases (Balzar et al., 1997).

Looking at the reliability and validity of this instrument, several studies have tested these factors and there is a universal concurrence that this instrument possesses both. McIntyre, S. and McIntyre, T. (2010) researched job satisfaction in Portuguese health professionals and examined the validity of the JDI and its job in general subscale (JIG) and showed Chronbach's alpha was at the following levels for each scale; work .87, pay .75, promotion .82, supervision .90, people on your present job/colleagues .90, and JIG .85. Kinicki et al. (2002) studied the construct validity of the JDI using a meta-analysis and showed scores of .87 for pay, .88 for promotion, .86 for coworkers, .88 for work, and .89 for supervision. These scores indicate a high level of consistency and reliability with the JDI. A review completed by the Mental Measurements Yearbook (MMY) stated the JDI employs widely used measures of job satisfaction that are applicable to a wide variety of organizations and companies (Harwell, 2014). The norms available from this instrument allows for average responses to be compared to responses of other workers (Harwell, 2014). The MMY review also states reliability of the JDI produced Cronbach alpha coefficients ranging from .86 to .91 (Harwell, 2014). The construct validity of the JDI has been shown to correlate with a number of other job satisfaction scales, job attitudes, and job behaviors (Harwell, 2014).

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ).

The OCQ was developed by Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) based upon a series of studies that included more than 2,500 employees that ranged from nine different organizations. This instrument is composed of 15 statements that are all scored on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree (Azeem, 2010). These

statements are aimed at measuring organizational commitment across three elements that include a “strong belief and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort and a strong desire to maintain membership with that organization” (Azeem, 2010 p. 269). Of the fifteen statements, nine are worded positively, and six are worded negatively and are scored reversely. Scores are summed and then divided by 15 giving a summary indicator of organizational commitment (Azeem, 2010; Mowday et al., 1979). This instrument, similar to the JDI, had been used across a wide variety of population, also including law enforcement officers (Abdulla et al., 2010; Zhao et al., 1999). This instrument is free and open to non-commercial research and educational purposes.

Several studies have tested reliability and validity of this instrument, with an overall concurrence that the OCQ possesses both. Gordon (2007) studied organizational commitment in correctional officers using the OCQ and stated internal consistency in reliability testing showed scores of .74 to .92, and validity scores of .81 to .93. Shore and Martin (1989) also showed internal consistency reliabilities of .89 to .91 for the OCQ in their research. These scores indicate high levels of consistency and reliability with the OCQ. Kanning and Hill (2013) researched the OCQ and examined several studies that had also reviewed reliability and validity aspects of the OCQ. Through their study it was shown that Chronbach’s alpha scores consistently ranged from .82 to .93 and through factor analysis the OCQ was shown to represent a distinguishable construct from other work attitudes (Kanning & Hill, 2013). Reviewing the OCQ through different versions

such as German, Polish, and Malaysian; Kanning and Hill showed high alpha scores and confirmed validity and satisfactory reliability (2013).

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions and hypotheses were intended to examine the effect(s) of generational cohorts on law enforcement officer's job satisfaction.

Research Question 1; What is the relationship between generational cohort memberships and law enforcement officer's job satisfaction?

H₀₁: There is no significant relationship between cohort membership (Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials) and a law enforcement officer's job satisfaction as assessed by the Job Descriptive Index.

H_{A1}: There is a significant relationship between cohort membership (Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials) and a law enforcement officer's job satisfaction as assessed by the Job Descriptive Index.

This research question was addressed first by determining each participant's generational cohort from the voluntary demographic information supplied by the participant. Once generational cohort membership was established, levels of job satisfaction were measured using the Job Descriptive Index. The JDI has a preset measurement in which researchers can determine job satisfaction or un-satisfaction based off of scores gained from the instrument with scores at or above 27 indicating satisfaction, while scores below 27 indicating dissatisfaction (Balzar et al., 1997). These scores are gained through a point accumulation based off of responses given by the

participant. The accumulated totals for each generation were gathered and analyzed using a regression.

Research Question 2; What is the relationship between generational cohort membership and performing specific patrol policing tasks on a law enforcement officer's job satisfaction?

H₀₂: There is no significant relationship between cohort membership (Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials) and specific patrol policing tasks on a law enforcement officer's job satisfaction as assessed by the Job Descriptive Index.

H_{A2}: There is a relationship between cohorts' membership (Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials) and specific patrol policing tasks on a law enforcement officer's job satisfaction as assessed by the Job Descriptive Index.

Research question two used the same identification information as research question one to establish generational cohort membership and used self-identified information regarding policing tasks (see Appendix B) to identify what task the participant indicates they perform on a regular basis, as well as ranking the seven different patrol tasks in order of preference from 1 being most preferred or liked to 7 being the least preferred or least liked patrol task. This information was analyzed using an ANOVA to test if there were any variation between the generations as well as to test among the generations.

Research Question 3; What is the relationship between generational cohort membership and organizational commitment levels on a law enforcement officer's job satisfaction?

H₀₃: There is no significant relationship between cohort membership (Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials) and organizational commitment levels as assessed by responses given to the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire on a law enforcement officer's job satisfaction as assessed by the Job Descriptive Index.

H_{A3}: There is a significant relationship between cohort membership (Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials) and organizational commitment levels as assessed by responses given to the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire on a law enforcement officer's job satisfaction as assessed by the Job Descriptive Index.

Research question three once again used the same information as indicated by the previous research questions to identify generational cohort membership. This research question then determined organizational commitment levels based on responses given by participants to the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. The OCQ also has given set scores that indicate the level of organizational commitment of the participant. This data was studied using a regression analysis.

Research Question 4; What is the effect of age on a law enforcement officer's job satisfaction?

H₀₄: There is no significance effect of age on a law enforcement officer's job satisfaction as assessed by Job Descriptive Index.

H_{A4}: There is a significant effect of age on law enforcement officer's job satisfaction as assessed by the Job Descriptive Index.

Research question four also used provided demographic information to determine chronological age. The Job Descriptive Index determined levels of job satisfaction. Scores gained from this scale were examined using a regression analysis.

Data Collection

After receiving permission from Walden's IRB (approval # 01-22-16-0295119) participants were recruited, advised of the nature and purpose of the study and informed consent had been given and obtained, data was collected in the following manner. First, participants were given a demographics questionnaire to complete which included questions on gender, date/year of birth, race/ethnicity, and years of service with the police department. Officers then completed a job task questionnaire that allowed them to self-identify the frequency of job tasks they complete with responses ranging from 1 (task never performed), 2 (task performed a few times a year), 3 (task performed a few times a month), 4 (task performed a few times a week), or 5 (task performed daily). This same job task questionnaire also allowed officers to self-identify their preference of the listed job tasks. Of the seven listed patrol tasks officers ranked these tasks in order of 1-7, with 1 being their most preferred or liked duty and 7 being their least preferred or least liked duty. This same questionnaire also asked the officers to rank on a scale of 1-7 the importance to job success each of the listed job tasks. Officers were also advised how to

complete both the JDI and the OCQ and each was administered with the other instruments. These instruments were given in a paper-pencil format.

Data Reduction

Completed instruments were reviewed for data cleaning and completeness. Incomplete instruments or ones missing identifying information were excluded from the analysis as the demographic information collected was key to the analysis in identifying officers' generational cohorts. Using a paper-pencil format the advantages of this method over other collection methods include the fact the participants were provided all material needed to participate whereas if the collection method was conducted using electronic means many assumptions would need to be made such as access to a computer or the internet, the time it takes from first accessing to final completion of the instruments, and lastly, who actually completed the instruments (Weigold, A., Weigold, I., & Russell, 2013). It has also been shown that internet-based research generally produces up to an 11% lower response rate when compared to other collection methods (Manfreda, Bosnjak, Bezelak, Haas, & Vehovar, 2008). All of the cleaned and complete data was entered into SPSS for both retention of the information besides the hard copies, as well as for statistical testing.

Data Analysis

Data collected during this study were analyzed using regression analysis. This form of analysis tests the relationships between variables and was used to see the possible effects the proposed independent variables (generational cohorts, organizational commitment, specific patrol duties, & age) may have on the dependent variable (job

satisfaction scores). This comparison examined the combined and relative effects of the officer's generational cohort, job duties, organizational commitment, and coworker satisfaction on predicting overall job satisfaction. Generational cohorts were rank-ordered with Baby Boomers coded as 3, Generation X as 2, and Millennials as 1. Job task ratings with generational cohorts were used as a predictor of job satisfaction.

The use of the OCQ and its Likert type scale may bring forth questions regarding the use of what some may define as ordinal measures in a regression model. The OCQ's use of a 7-pt Likert scale can be treated and accepted in a regression as differences in responses such as one participant marking a response of one (1) (strongly disagree), and another participant marking a two (2) (moderately disagree), is a measurable change. The argument then becomes that that same measurable change cannot be guaranteed to be the same measurable distance when comparing the responses of a mark of 1 to 2 and the change of a response of 4-5 (Norman, 2010). This type of argument though is irrelevant to the analysis as a computer has no way to refute or affirm this as it is merely drawing conclusions about the numbers themselves (Norman, 2010). The use of a Likert-scale type instrument in a regression can also be seen in accepted, peer-reviewed studies similar to my study such as Carlan's (2007) study where he also studied job satisfaction in police officers.

Threats to Validity

In first addressing internal validity, possible threats to this study included selection, mortality, and testing (Creswell, 2014). Due to the fact this study is not experimental in nature, several of the other possible threats to internal validity have been

eliminated. Selection can be the most problematic threat to this study as it deals with participants being chosen for the study due to their possession of certain characteristics and these characteristics may predispose the participants to have certain outcomes (Creswell, 2014). The selection of participants here is difficult as there are several characteristics the participants must meet just to be considered for participation. First, participants must be active-duty police officers, and secondly, their selection was also determined by their age which was used to classify them into generational cohorts. Addressing this threat was through the use of stratified sampling as officers who agreed to participate were categorized into the generational cohorts and from there a random number of samples were drawn from each stratum.

Where mortality played a threat to this study was in the opportunity for participants to drop out of the study due to a number of reasons (Creswell, 2014). The biggest factor that played into this threat is the time it took participants to complete the instruments. In the field of policing there is no guarantee that officers could be called out for an emergency or other duties during the time the instruments are being administered thus leaving the opportunity of participants to drop out or simply not complete the instruments fully. This researcher addressed this threat by collecting and administering instruments as several times and dates. The multiple times and dates gave officers the opportunity to complete the instruments as well as take and return instruments if need be due to work related matters.

The testing threat can be when participants become familiar with the measures and instruments and remember responses for future testing (Creswell, 2014). Although

participants were not tested more than once thus eliminating the chance for repeated responses, there was a chance for participants to share responses with other officers who were not tested at the same time. Due to the administering and collection of instruments on several dates and times, officers may have had the opportunity to communicate with each other and share responses. This researcher administered the instruments within a small frame of dates and time so as to reduce this opportunity of sharing responses. When soliciting participants, informed consent and instruments were distributed within the same day during the beginning of each shift so as to minimize the possibility of communication of responses.

Threats to external validity included interaction of selection and testing, interaction of setting and testing, as well as interaction of history and testing, or in other words drawing incorrect conclusions from the sample population and projecting this to other populations, other settings, and also future or past situations (Creswell, 2014). In addressing the first threat, selection, there is the question of the characteristics of the participants and if these are too narrow to generalize to other individuals who do not have those characteristics. The generalization was comparing the characteristics of three generational cohorts of police officers to other police officers of the same cohorts. Seeing how the projection was to persons of the same profession and same generations, there was minimization of the generalizations.

Setting as an external threat is also a major point of concern for this study. The instruments from this research were administered in the officer's work setting (i.e. police

station). Officers may have been reluctant to fully and truthfully respond to questions about their job satisfaction while in this setting therefore altering their responses.

History as a threat to external validity is due to studies being constrained by time thus affecting generalizations to past or future studies (Creswell, 2014). This study used hypotheses to find correlations between the variables, but there was no plan to predict what officers or generations would continue to have job satisfaction or no satisfaction in the future. There was also no treatment or intervention planned for this study, thus reducing this threat. It is noted that future studies of longitudinal nature would help to address and uncover if the depth of this threat to this type of study.

Ethical Procedures

Participants for this research were gathered from two large Midwestern police departments and included both male and female officers, as well as officers of varying demographics that included age which was the main demographic utilized to categorize officers into generational cohorts. The instruments utilized caused no harm other than the possibility of psychological discomfort for the participants. Psychological harm was the most probable risk for this study and was accounted for by giving participants a thorough informed consent and contact information for psychological services provided by the police department, should they need access to said services due to the study. Officers may have felt psychological discomfort as they were asked to report on several factors relating to job satisfaction and this may have produced stress in the officer. This risk was addressed to the officers and the contact information for services should they be of need

to the officers. Also, all information given was protected by anonymity and there was no way to trace responses back to any individual through any means.

Data collected for this study was protected and utilized only in a manner approved by Walden University's Institutional Review Board. No outside entity funded or supported this study so there were no means or incentives driving this researcher to produce a certain outcome of the results. This researcher has no ties to or affiliation with the participants or departments utilized for participants.

Summary and Transition

This chapter showed how a correlation design was used and how a regression was the main statistical test used to analyze the data. The participants for this study and the variables used have been defined and their uses discussed. The instruments utilized have been discussed and shown their relationship to the variables and how these are in congruence. Possible threats and ethical concerns were addressed and were applied throughout the study. Data for this study was collected and stored per regulations of Walden University's IRB and analyzed using the statistical program SPSS.

Chapter 4 shows how the data was analyzed and the statistical tests that were applied during that analysis. The results of that analysis are listed and explained within Chapter 4. Chapter 4 also shows either the acceptance or rejection of the null hypotheses for each of the research questions that were used for this study. Also included in chapter 4 are demographic information of the participants, descriptive statistics, and an overview of the results. Chapter 5 offers interpretation of the findings, limitations to the study, recommendations for future research, and implications for social impact.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of generational cohorts, age, and policing duties on law enforcement officers' job satisfaction. This study examined these aspects with the Job Descriptive Index, Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, and a Job Task Questionnaire. Data collected was analyzed through regression and ANOVA tests. This chapter will give descriptive information on the population used for this study and also a detailed summary of the results gathered from the statistical analysis.

In this study I used stratification to help properly represent the population that was studied. After disseminating nearly 300 surveys that included a demographics questionnaire, job task questionnaire, the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, and the Job Descriptive Index, a total of 212 surveys were returned. After eliminating surveys with blank or incomplete data a total of 194 surveys (64%) were used in the final analysis.

Sample Demographics

The participants of this study showed the following demographics; 178 men (91.8%), 16 women, (8.2%), ages ranging from 22 to 65 years old, 22 participants identified as African American, 1 as American Indian, 3 as Asian or Pacific Islander, 161 as European American or Caucasian descent, 4 as Latino/a or Hispanic, and 3 identified as Other and wrote in biracial (see Table 1). Regarding years of service, 74 officers had 0-5 years of service, 43 had 6-10 years, 38 had 11-15 years, 23 had 16-20 years, and 16

officers had more than 20 years of service (see Table 1). Age limitations were used by both departments that participated in this study with maximum ages ranging from 34-37 years old. The totals for this study included 93 Millennials (48%), 87 Generation X (45%), and 14 Baby Boomers (7%). These demographics are similar to other studies such as Carlan (2007) who studied police officers across the state of Alabama and had age categories of 21-36 years old, 37- 52, and 53 and older with percentages in each of 56%, 39%, and 4%.

Table 1

Demographic Information

	Sub-Category	Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	178	92.0
	Female	16	8.0
Age	53-69	14	7.2
	35-52	87	44.8
	18-34	93	48
Ethnicity/Race	African American	22	11.3
	American Indian	1	.5
	Asian or Pacific Islander	3	1.5
	European American	161	83.0
	Descent or Caucasian		
	Latino/a or Hispanic	4	2.1
Years of Service	Other	3	1.5
	0-5 years	74	38.1
	6-10 years	43	22.2
	11-15 years	38	19.6
	16-20 years	23	11.9
	20 or more years	16	8.2
	Total	194	100.0

Descriptive Statistics

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) consisted of six separate scales that included pay (P), opportunities for promotion (PR), the job in general (JIG), co-workers (C), supervision (S), and work on current job (W) that, except for co-workers had a minimum score of 0 (co-workers was 3) and a maximum score of 54. The mean scores for these categories were at or above 39 which indicated job satisfaction (see Table 2).

Table 2

Job Descriptive Index Scales Descriptive Statistics

JDI Category	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Dev.
P	194	0.00	54.00	40.6811	13.12
PR	194	0.00	54.00	39.6541	15.59
JIG	194	0.00	54.00	45.7892	11.42
C	194	3.00	54.00	43.1838	11.58
S	194	0.00	54.00	43.5568	11.77
W	194	0.00	54.00	39.8811	11.39

Scores at or above 27 indicate job satisfaction while scores below 27 indicate job dissatisfaction. Separating each category, the pay (P) scale had a total of 167 officers with scores indicating satisfaction and 27 officers with scores indication dissatisfaction. The promotion (PR) scale had a total of 156 officers with scores indicating satisfaction and 38 officers with scores indicating dissatisfaction. The job in general (JIG) scale had 182 officers indicating satisfaction and 12 officers indicating dissatisfaction. The coworker (C) scale had 181 officers satisfied, and 13 dissatisfied. The supervisor (S) scale had 176 officers with satisfied scores and 18 officers with dissatisfied scores. Lastly, the work on present job (W) scale had 175 officers with satisfied scores and 21 officers with

dissatisfied scores (see Table 3). Opportunities for promotion and pay had the highest levels of dissatisfaction.

Table 3

Job Descriptive Index Scores Indicating Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction

JDI Category	Baby Boomers	Generation X	Millennials	Total	Percentage
Satisfied					
P	12	71	84	167	86.1
PR	11	61	84	156	80.4
JIG	13	80	89	182	93.8
C	13	80	88	181	93.3
S	11	77	88	176	90.7
W	13	78	84	175	90.2
Dissatisfied					
P	2	16	9	27	13.9
PR	3	26	9	38	19.6
JIG	1	7	4	12	6.2
C	1	7	5	13	6.7
S	3	10	5	18	9.3
W	1	9	9	21	10.8

Separating JDI scale scores by generational cohort we can see additional differences. Baby Boomer officers had roughly 21% of their cohort with dissatisfaction scores in the scales of opportunity for promotion, supervision, and work on current job, whereas it was 14% for the pay scale and 7% on both the job in general and co-worker scales. Generation X officers had 8% dissatisfaction on the job in general scale (8%) and co-worker (8%) scales, whereas pay showed 18% dissatisfaction and the work on current job scale had 10% dissatisfied, the supervisor scale 11% dissatisfied, while the opportunities for promotion scale was roughly 30%. Millennial officers had similar scores on three of the six scales (pay, opportunities for promotion, and work on current

job), all showing rates of roughly 10% of the cohort being dissatisfied. The co-worker and supervisor scale showed 5%, and the job in general scale had 4% dissatisfied.

Results

The following section includes the results of the statistical analyses that were performed on each of the instruments and the corresponding research question for each.

Research Question 1

What is the relationship between generational cohort memberships and law enforcement officer's job satisfaction? This question was examined using a regression analysis. The regression revealed statistical significance for several of the instrument's subsections. Significance was found in the opportunities for promotion scale, the job in general scale, and the supervisor scale. Statistical significance was not found in the pay scale, co-worker scale, and work on present job scale. The regression analysis that was used had dummy coded generational cohorts as this is a categorical variable with more than one level. The dummy coding used dichotomous variables of 0 and 1. Only two of the generations were input as the independent variables as the one excluded was used as a reference, JDI scores were input as the dependent variable.

Table 4 shows the regression for the opportunities for promotion scale. This analysis showed a significant relationship for generational cohort status and job satisfaction scores. Generational cohort status significantly predicted job satisfaction scores between Baby Boomers and Millennials ($p = .048$) and also between Generation X and Millennials ($p < .001$) $F_{(2,192)} = 7.255, p < .001, R^2 = .07$ (see Table 4). Generational cohorts accounted for 7% of the variance of opportunities for promotion scores. When

changing from Millennials to Baby Boomers job satisfaction scores for opportunities for promotion increased 8.66 points and when changing from Millennials to Generation X job satisfaction scores for opportunities for promotion increased 8.43 points. This change in satisfaction scores for the opportunities for promotion scale shows Millennials have lower levels of satisfaction with their opportunities for promotion when compared to both Baby Boomers and Generation X officers. The promotion scale would lead to a rejection of the null hypothesis and acceptance of the alternative hypothesis. Table 4 presents the regression coefficients (β), 95% confidence intervals for odds ratios for each of the predictors, and semipartial correlation (sr), which is a commonly reported effect size for the proportion of variance in the criterion uniquely accounted for by the predictor.

Table 4

Job Descriptive Index Promotion Scale Regression

Variable	<i>B</i>	95% CI	β	<i>sr</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	35.429	[27.471, 43.387]			
Gen. X	-8.428	[-12.984, -3.872]	-.270	-.260	<.001
Millennials	8.662	[0.095, 17.230]	.278	.142	.048
Baby Boomer	-8.662	[-0.095, -17.230]	-.147	-.142	.048

Note. CI = confidence intervals for *B*; *sr* = semipartial correlation.

Table 5 shows the regression for the supervision scale. This analysis showed a significant relationship for generational cohort status and job satisfaction scores. Generational cohort status significantly predicted job satisfaction scores within the supervision scale between Baby Boomers and Millennials ($p = .013$) $F_{(2,192)} = 3.340$, $p = .038$, $R^2 = .03$ (see Table 5). Generational cohorts accounted for 3% of the variance of supervision scores. When changing from Millennials to Baby Boomers job satisfaction

scores for supervision increased 8.36 points. This scale would also lead to a rejection of the null hypothesis and an acceptance of the alternative hypothesis. Table 5 shows Millennial officers have job satisfaction with their supervisor(s) that are less than that of Baby Boomer officers. This regression showed that the model was significant but again, the 95% confidence interval contained zero so caution is issued in regards to practical significance. The appearance of both positive and negative CI could be due to the sample size of Baby Boomer Officers.

Table 5

Job Descriptive Index Supervision Scale Regression

Variable	<i>B</i>	95% CI	β	<i>sr</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	36.857	[30.725, 42.989]			
Millennials	8.359	[-1.757, 14.961]	.355	.182	.013
Generation X	6.071	[-0.559, 12.700]	.257	.132	.072

Note. CI = confidence intervals for *B*; *sr* = semipartial correlation.

Table 6 shows the regression for the job in general scale. This analysis also showed a significant relationship for generational cohort status and job satisfaction scores. Generational cohort status significantly predicted job satisfaction scores within the job in general scale between Generation X and Millennials ($p = .022$) $F_{(2,192)} = 3.186$, $p = .044$, $R^2 = .03$ (see Table 6). Generational cohorts accounted for 3% of the variance of supervision scores. When changing from Generation X to Millennials job satisfaction scores with the job in general decreased 3.98 points. The JIG scale would lead to a rejection of the null hypothesis and an acceptance of the alternative hypothesis. This regression also showed that the model was significant but, the 95% confidence interval

contained zero so caution is issued in regards to practical significance. The appearance of both positive and negative CI could be due to the sample size of Baby Boomer Officers.

Table 6

Job Descriptive Index JIG Scale Regression

Variable	<i>B</i>	95% CI	β	<i>sr</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	47.966	[45.591, 50.341]			
Baby Boomer	-5.180	[-11.591, 1.231]	-.120	-.116	.113
Generation X	-3.978	[-7.387, -0.569]	-.174	-.168	.022

Note. CI = confidence intervals for *B*; *sr* = semipartial correlation.

A further analysis of the data for research question 1 was conducted due to the fact the data was collected from two different departments. The data was analyzed using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to see if mean scores from the two departments varied significantly. The analysis shown in Table 7, was not significant for the opportunities for promotion, supervisor, coworker, or job in general scales. The two departments showed statistical significance on the pay and work on current job scale. Opportunities for promotion $F_{(2, 191)} = .757, p = .39 (r = .00)$; Supervisor $F_{(2, 191)} = .08, p = .78 (r = .00)$; Coworker $F_{(2, 191)} = 1.08, p = .30 (r = .01)$; Job in general $F_{(2, 191)} = .03, p = .86 (r = .00)$; Pay $F_{(2, 191)} = 8.05, p = .01 (r = .04)$; Work on current job $F_{(2, 191)} = 5.34, p = .02 (r = .03)$ (See Table 7). Neither of these two scales showed statistical significance when the departments were added together and separated by generational cohorts.

Table 7

Department Job Descriptive Index ANOVA

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Pay</i>					
Between groups	2	1335.18	1335.18	8.05	.005
Within groups	191	30351.00	165.85		
Total	193	31686.18			
<i>Promotion</i>					
Between groups	2	184.410	184.410	.757	.385
Within groups	191	44569.450	243.549		
Total	193	44753.859			
<i>Work</i>					
Between groups	2	677.384	677.384	5.339	.022
Within groups	191	23220.000	126.885		
Total	193	23897.384			
<i>Supervisor</i>					
Between groups	2	11.179	11.179	.080	.777
Within groups	191	25504.475	139.369		
Total	193	25515.654			
<i>Coworker</i>					
Between groups	2	144.458	144.458	1.076	.301
Within groups	191	24563.293	134.226		
Total	193	24707.751			
<i>Job in General</i>					
Between groups	2	4.359	4.359	.033	.856
Within groups	191	24018.419	131.248		
Total	193	24022.778			

Research Question 2

What is the relationship between generational cohort membership and performing specific policing tasks on a law enforcement officer's job satisfaction? This question was measured using a job task questionnaire that included seven routine patrol functions that had participants first rate the frequency of the tasks and then rank their preference for each task, and lastly, rank their viewed importance of each task. These

functions included patrol, conduct preliminary investigations, traffic enforcement, warrant service, community relations, critical incident response, and complaint response. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was calculated on participant's ratings of policing duties frequency, preference, and importance. The analysis, as shown in Table 8, was not significant for any of the preference rankings. The different generational cohorts of officers had no statistically significant differences in their preferences for any of the job tasks listed. All p -values were well above the .05 value thus showing weak evidence against the null hypothesis. Patrol preference $F_{(2, 191)} = .452, p = .64 (r = .00)$; Conducting preliminary investigations $F_{(2, 191)} = .24, p = .79 (r = .02)$; Traffic enforcement $F_{(2, 191)} = 1.95, p = .15 (r = .02)$; Warrant Service $F_{(2, 191)} = .975, p = .38 (r = .01)$; Community Relations $F_{(2, 191)} = .862, p = .42 (r = .01)$; Critical incident response $F_{(2, 191)} = .679, p = .51 (r = .01)$; and Complaint response $F_{(2, 191)} = 1.21, p = .30 (r = .01)$ (see Table 8).

Table 8

Job Task Questionnaire Preference ANOVA

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Patrol</i>					
Between groups	2	3.739	1.869	.452	.637
Within groups	191	789.668	4.134		
Total	193	793.407			
<i>Conduct Prelim. Invest.</i>					
Between groups	2	1.373	.686	.240	.787
Within groups	191	546.014	2.859		
Total	193	547.387			
<i>Traffic Enforcement</i>					
Between groups	2	15.105	7.553	1.950	.145
Within groups	191	739.890	3.874		
Total	193	754.995			
<i>Warrant Service</i>					
Between groups	2	6.042	3.021	.975	.379
Within groups	191	592.020	3.100		
Total	193	598.062			
<i>Community Relations</i>					
Between groups	2	6.131	3.066	.862	.424
Within groups	191	679.358	3.557		
Total	193	685.490			
<i>Critical Incident Resp.</i>					
Between groups	2	5.479	2.739	.679	.509
Within groups	191	771.062	4.037		
Total	193	776.541			
<i>Complaint Response</i>					
Between groups	2	10.605	5.302	1.210	.301
Within groups	191	837.230	4.383		
Total	193	847.835			

The analysis of the job task questionnaire importance ranking shown in Table 9, did not show any significance. As seen in Table 9, all p -values again were above the .05 level thus showing weak evidence against the null hypothesis. The different generational cohorts of officers did not show any significant differences in their rankings of importance of each of the listed patrol functions. Patrol importance $F_{(2, 191)} = 1.09, p = .34$ ($r = .01$); Conducting preliminary investigations $F_{(2, 191)} = .05, p = .95$ ($r = .00$); Traffic enforcement importance $F_{(2, 191)} = .11, p = .89$ ($r = .00$); Warrant service importance $F_{(2, 191)} = .66, p = .52$ ($r = .01$); Community relations importance $F_{(2, 191)} = .285, p = .75$ ($r = .00$); Critical incident response importance $F_{(2, 191)} = .341, p = .71$ ($r = .00$); and Complaint response importance $F_{(2, 191)} = .445, p = .64$ ($r = .00$) (see Table 9).

Table 9

Job Task Questionnaire Importance ANOVA

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Patrol</i>					
Between groups	2	10.396	5.198	1.088	.339
Within groups	191	912.826	4.779		
Total	193	923.222			
<i>Conduct Prelim. Invest.</i>					
Between groups	2	.376	.188	.050	.951
Within groups	191	712.181	3.729		
Total	193	712.557			
<i>Traffic Enforcement</i>					
Between groups	2	.726	.363	.108	.898
Within groups	191	644.516	3.374		
Total	193	645.242			
<i>Warrant Service</i>					
Between groups	2	4.276	2.138	.655	.521
Within groups	191	623.668	3.265		
Total	193	627.943			
<i>Community Relations</i>					
Between groups	2	2.285	1.143	.285	.752
Within groups	191	764.957	4.005		
Total	193	767.242			
<i>Critical Incident Resp.</i>					
Between groups	2	3.183	1.592	.341	.711
Within groups	191	890.286	4.661		
Total	193	893.469			
<i>Complaint Response</i>					
Between groups	2	3.999	1.999	.445	.642
Within groups	191	858.516	4.495		
Total	193	862.515			

The ANOVA analysis displayed in Table 10 did show statistical significance in the frequency category for patrol frequency $F_{(2, 191)} = 14.77, p < .001 (r = .13)$; traffic enforcement frequency $F_{(2, 191)} = 3.17, p = .04 (r = .03)$; and also warrant service frequency $F_{(2, 191)} = 4.82, p = .01 (r = .05)$ (see Table 9). A post hoc Tukey analysis revealed that Baby Boomers officers rated patrol frequency ($M = 4.71, SD = 0.73$) lower

than both Generation X officers ($M = 5.00$, $SD = 0.00$), and Millennial officers ($M = 5.00$, $SD = 0.00$). The post hoc Tukey also revealed on traffic enforcement frequency Millennial Officers ranked this task higher ($M = 3.83$, $SD = 1.04$) than Generation X officers ($M = 3.40$, $SD = 1.24$). Millennial officers again ranked warrant service higher ($M = 3.43$, $SD = 0.91$) than Generation X officers ($M = 2.99$, $SD = 1.01$). On the patrol, traffic enforcement, and warrant service frequency one would reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis. The job tasks frequency scores of conducting preliminary investigation $F_{(2, 191)} = 2.19$, $p = .12$ ($r = .02$); community relations $F_{(2, 191)} = .322$, $p = .73$ ($r = .00$); critical incident response $F_{(2, 191)} = .104$, $p = .90$ ($r = .00$); and complaint response $F_{(2, 191)} = .703$, $p = .50$ ($r = .01$) were all non-significant with p -values above the .05 level.

Table 10

Job Task Questionnaire ANOVA

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Patrol</i>					
Between groups	2	1.060	0.530	14.768	<.001
Within groups	191	6.857	0.036		
Total	193	7.918			
<i>Traffic Enforcement</i>					
Between groups	2	8.254	4.127	3.166	.044
Within groups	191	249.024	1.304		
Total	193	257.278			
<i>Warrant Service</i>					
Between groups	2	9.349	4.675	4.821	.009
Within groups	191	185.213	.970		
Total	193	194.562			

Research Question 3

What is the relationship between generational cohort membership and organizational commitment levels on a law enforcement officer's job satisfaction? A regression was used to examine this research question. The Occupational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) had no significance between scores of Baby Boomers and Generation X and no significance between Baby Boomers and Millennials. The OCQ did show a significant relationship between generational cohort membership and occupational commitment scores. Table 11 shows Generational cohort status significantly predicted occupational commitment scores between Generation X and Millennial officers ($p = .043$) $F_{(2,192)} = 3.082$, $p = .048$, $R^2 = .03$. OCQ scores decreased .335 when moving from Generation X to Millennials. This would lead to a rejection of the null hypothesis and an acceptance of the alternative hypothesis.

Table 11

Occupational Commitment Questionnaire Regression

Variable	<i>B</i>	95% CI	β	<i>sr</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	5.406	[5.181, 5.632]			
Baby	-0.597	[-1.221, 0.027]	-.139	-.134	.061
Boomer					
Generation X	-0.335	[-0.660, -0.011]	-.150	-.145	.043

Note. CI = confidence intervals for *B*; *sr* = semipartial correlation.

Research Question 4

What is the effect of age on a law enforcement officer's job satisfaction? A

stepwise regression was used to analyze this question. A correlations analysis was first ran to see if there were any strong or significant associations. The correlations analysis showed significance at the .01 level for age and opportunities for promotion and supervision, this analysis also showed significance at the .05 level for the work on current job and age and the job in general scale and age. This shows that the population correlation coefficient is not 0 and a nonzero correlation could exist. Table 12 shows the stepwise regression for opportunities for promotion; through this analysis statistical significance was shown at age 45 $F_{(2,192)} = 4.524, p = .035, R^2 = .136$ this accounted for 13% of the variance, age 46 $F_{(2,192)} = 9.424, p = .002, R^2 = .05$ this accounted for 5% of the variance, age 47 $F_{(2,192)} = 8.170, p = .005, R^2 = .09$ this accounted for 9% of the variance, and age 60 $F_{(2,192)} = 4.925, p = .028, R^2 = .114$ this accounted for 11% of the variance (see Table 12). This analysis shows that the ages of 45, 46, 47, and 60 all had statistically significant differences in job satisfaction scores on the opportunities for promotion scale when compared to all other ages used in this study.

Table 12

Opportunities for Promotion Scale Age Regression

Variable	<i>B</i>	95% CI	β	<i>sr</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	41.349	[39.124, 43.574]			
Age 45	-14.149	[-27.275, -1.023]	-.148	-.148	.035
Age 46	-24.849	[-39.483, -10.216]	-.232	-.232	.001
Age 47	-18.349	[-30.483, -10.216]	-.209	-.209	.003
Age 60	--33.349	[-62.361, -4.337]	-.157	-.157	.025

Note. CI = confidence intervals for *B*; *sr* = semipartial correlation.

The stepwise regression for work on current job shown in Table 13, indicated significance for age 25 $F_{(2,192)} = 4.412, p = .037, R^2 = .068$ and accounted for 7% of the variance, age 26 $F_{(2,192)} = 4.369, p = .038, R^2 = .023$ and accounted for 2% of the variance, and age 28 $F_{(2,192)} = 4.213, p = .042, R^2 = .045$ and accounted for 5% of the variance. This regression shows only the ages of 25, 26, and 28 had statistically significant differences in job satisfaction scores for the work on current job scale.

Table 13

Work on Current Job Scale Age Regression

Variable	<i>B</i>	95% CI	β	<i>sr</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	38.823	[37.114, 40.532]			
Age 25	10.577	[.641, 20.513]	.151	.151	.037
Age 26	8.732	[1.239, 16.225]	.165	.165	.023
Age 28	9.177	[.730, 17.624]	.154	.154	.033

Note. CI = confidence intervals for *B*; *sr* = semipartial correlation.

Table 14 displays the stepwise regression for supervision showed significance with the age of 42 $F_{(2,192)} = 7.472, p = .007, R^2 = .04$ and accounted for 4% of the variance. This analysis shows that from the participants used in this study, only the age of 42 had a statistically significant difference for job satisfaction scores on the supervision scale when compared to all other ages.

Table 14

Supervision Scale Age Regression

Variable	<i>B</i>	95% CI	β	<i>sr</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	43.944	[42.242, 45.647]			
Age 42	-14.344	[-24.698, -3.991]	-.198	-.198	.007

Note. CI = confidence intervals for *B*; *sr* = semipartial correlation.

The final stepwise regression for the job in general scale seen in Table 15, showed significance for the age of 53 $F_{(2,192)} = 5.036$, $p = .026$, $R^2 = .03$ and accounted for 3% of the variance (see Table 15). This shows that the age of 53 was the only age of all ages in this study to show a statistically significant difference in job satisfaction scores for the job in general scale.

Table 15

Job in General Scale Age Regression

Variable	<i>B</i>	95% CI	β	<i>sr</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	46.100	[44.438, 47.762]			
Age 53	-11.500	[-21.611, -1.389]	-.164	-.164	.026

Note. CI = confidence intervals for *B*; *sr* = semipartial correlation.

Summary of Findings

All of the instruments used for this study showed some level of statistical significance. These findings lead this researcher to conclude all of the variables used have an effect of law enforcement officers' job satisfaction levels and differences between the generational cohorts of officers. The results of this study show generational cohort membership has a significant relationship with predicting job satisfaction levels of law enforcement officers. When reviewing job satisfaction scores it can be seen that a

majority of officers not only score within the range of being satisfied but that these scores are well above the cut-off score of 27 with a low mean score of 39 and a high of 45 out of a total of 54. From this we can see overall, a vast majority of officers are not only satisfied, but highly satisfied. When looking at specific aspects of the job, officers showed statistical significance in the opportunities for promotion, supervisor, job in general areas. It can be seen that the youngest officers, Millennials, have the lowest scores in these areas as when transitioning from this cohort to the older two cohorts, scores increased in these areas. This study supports the theory that Millennials have expectations about the job itself (as seen through JIG scores), supervisors (supervisor scores), and promotion (opportunity for promotion scores) that are unrealistic and incongruent with what the field of policing/law enforcement can offer. Occupational commitment scores also supported the theory that Millennials have low occupational commitment and also only look to stay at an organization for a short period of time until jumping to another position or organization they believe best suits their wants and needs. It was surprising to see that although a significant relationship existed between generational cohort membership and job task frequency, there was not a significant predictive relationship between those same job tasks and rankings of preference and viewed importance.

Chapter 5 summarizes this study and will provide interpretations of the findings as well as, limitations of the study. Also included will be recommendations for future research and implications for social change.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

This study was conducted to determine if variables such as generational cohorts, age, and policing duties effected law enforcement officers' job satisfaction. This research used a quantitative approach with data that were collected from two large Midwestern police departments that were located in two separate states. Main findings for this study accepted the alternative hypotheses that generational cohorts, age, and policing duties impact job satisfaction levels. This chapter interprets the findings of the study, discusses the limitations involved with the study, and discusses implications for social change that stem from this research.

Interpretation of Findings

With statistical analysis and subsequent significance found in at least one aspect of every instrument used in this study it is clear that the alternative hypothesis for each research question be accepted.

Job task questionnaire frequency.

Starting with the job task questionnaire, it was surprising to find no statistical significance in both the importance and preference categories as previous literature (see Hassell et al., 2011; O'Leary & Griffin, 1995) showed changes in job satisfaction levels in police officers when examining job tasks. The statistical significance found in the job task frequency (patrol, traffic enforcement, & warrant service) could possibly be explained by seniority and task assignment. The patrol frequency showed statistical significance between the Baby Boomers when compared to both Generation X and the

Millennials with Baby Boomers indicating lower frequency of the task than the other two generations. Since all officers were assigned to the patrol division there may be several explanations for this. First, the Baby Boomer officers may have been ranking officers which would have explained the lesser frequency in patrolling as they may have been conducting supervisory functions. This finding may also be explained by the Baby Boomers officers being the most senior officers and therefore choosing other tasks, while less senior officers were assigned to duties through seniority. The traffic enforcement frequency showed significance between Generation X officers and Millennial officers with Millennials having the highest mean frequency. This difference may again be accounted for by seniority status. The warrant service frequency showed significance between Generation X officers and Millennial officers, again with Millennials ranking their frequency for this task higher than Generation X officers. Similar to the other two frequencies, this may also be explained by seniority assignments. This task may also be explained by the youngest officers (Millennials) being assigned to this task due to physical capabilities due to the possibility of physical confrontation and the unknown risks associated with this police function.

Job task questionnaire preference and importance.

Another aspect of the job task questionnaire is the only significance was with the amount or, frequency of job task performance. No significance was found in either preference or rated importance of the tasks. This showed that younger officers perform certain tasks more frequently than their older counterparts. When taking this into account and then applying the results from the JDI such as the work on current job scale and the

job in general scale, there is further understanding on why officers had the levels of satisfaction that they did. These results are also supported by the analysis of age where all of the ages in the work on current job scale showed significance with several ages in the 20's. There should be more research into the amount of impact this has on officers.

Organizational Commitment.

Organizational commitment was used as a moderating variable in this study following previous literature (see Top & Gider, 2013; Saridakis et al., 2013) that showed a positive correlation with organizational commitment and job satisfaction. The mean for the OCQ was $M= 5.21$ which is similar to previous findings (Mowday et al., 1979) that indicated mean scores are typically slightly above the midpoint range on the 7-point scale. Significance for this scale was seen between Generation X officers and Millennial officers. This finding was not surprising seeing how previous research has shown a lack of organizational commitment for Millennials and also that organizational commitment scores increase the longer an employee is with an organization (Azeem, 2010; Wilson, 2012).

Job Descriptive Index.

Job satisfaction scores gained through the use of the JDI showed statistical significance on the opportunities for promotion scale, supervision scale, and the job in general scale. The opportunities for promotion scale show statistical significance between Baby Boomers and Millennials and also Between Generation X and Millennials. These results also match previous research that showed Millennials may hold more rapid advancement expectations than policing can actually offer (Wilson, 2012). The statistical

significance shown in the supervision scale was between Millennials and Baby Boomers. These results also follow previous research regarding generational differences and were expected to have the biggest differences between these two generations. The JIG scale showed statistical significance between Generation X and Millennials. Results here continued the expectancy of generations' differences and preferences. Of note is the significance being between Generation X officers and Millennials. This could be explained by the makeup of both departments used and with a majority of officers being in one or the other of these two generations. The low representation of Baby Boomers in the overall sample was similar to demographic information available but also expected. As previously noted, both departments had age restrictions in the maximum and minimum requirements and also the fact a majority of officers retire with 20-25 years of service it was not surprising that so few Baby Boomers were still working in the field especially within the patrol division. It has been noted that for an officer to still be in the patrol function after 20 years is a rare phenomenon as one would assume either through promotion or seniority and access to other possible positions one would not be within the patrol function at an older age.

Limitations with job satisfaction.

When looking at some of the limitations with job satisfaction noted previously such as the Ferguson effect, it was seen through the research that this was not a limitation that played a role in this study. As noted in chapter 4, the job satisfaction levels of all of the officers were well above the cut off score of 27 in each of the categories researched.

When age was examined as a continuous variable and its effect on job satisfaction there were differences depending on the scale used. For the opportunity for promotion scale, all of the ages with significance were in the older ranges (45, 46, 47, 60). This could be explained by officers who at that time in their career may feel they were slighted or overlooked for promotion or a reflection of their career reveals a thought of missed opportunities. The work on current job scale showed significance for all younger ages (25, 26, 28). This significance can be related to generational preferences as all of these ages fall within the Millennial generation. The supervision scale showed significance at the age of 42 with this being similar to the opportunity for promotion scale in that dissatisfaction with supervision could stem from a belief that those officers should be the ones in the supervisory position. Lastly, the job in general scale showed significance at the age of 53 which could follow along with a regretful reflection of one's career or a change in attitude or hardening due to the time within this field.

Limitations

There are many limitations to this study other than those mentioned in chapter 1. This study used participants from two large Midwestern police departments in two different states. The projection of the results of this study could be unique just to this geographical area and demographic makeup of the officers used. The fact there was a very small sample of Baby Boomers also limited the conclusions. As previously noted, it was not surprising that so few of this generation were found especially within this function of the departments. Another limitation was the focus on these three specific generations. When looking at the demographics, this study may have been better suited to

just compare Millennials to Generation X officers as only patrol officers were utilized. The patrol officers also became another limitation to the study as it does not show a comprehensive review of entire department and excluded special divisions, details, and positions such as detectives, administration, and so forth. Other limitations include the fact gender, rank versus nonranking officers, and other demographics were not utilized for this study as they could also offer more information and understanding of this field and group of participants. The amount of instruments used could also be included as a limitation. A majority of the returned instruments not used in the final analysis was due to incompleteness. Even though the instruments were two-sided copies stapled together for a total of three pages, officers may have viewed this as excessive. A final limitation may have been knowledge of the study. All officers were advised I would be coming to their department to solicit them for participation by their administrators before I came to their departments. This knowledge could have altered officer's decisions to participate and also in the responses given.

Recommendations for Future Research

Recommendations for future research include addressing the limitations previously noted. There is also a need for further research on job satisfaction within the field of law enforcement. Generational cohorts remain a nearly untouched variable within the field of law enforcement and more research is needed to understand its possible effects. The field of law enforcement should be leading all other fields in researching generational cohorts as their effects are seen and felt far sooner in this field with maximum age requirements and also retirements occurring after 20-25 years of service.

When adding all of these aspects together we can see the effects of generational cohorts long before these same effects will occur in other fields. With the continued loss of Baby Boomers within the field there will be a new look and feel within policing. There will also be a change in officer demographics with departments becoming younger and also changes with supervisors as more Generation X officers fill the positions vacated by retiring Baby Boomers. This researcher saw firsthand the shortage of officers as both departments studied were hiring and in need of a good deal of officers and each roll call attended reaffirmed this need to the officers. There still remains a need to further understand what Millennials want and look for within the field of law enforcement as well as, the need for understanding on what law enforcement administrators can do to attract and retain Millennials.

Implications for Social Change

Implications for social change from this study include the knowledge that this study produced that generational differences exist in job satisfaction levels of law enforcement officers. Police agencies can use this information to not only recognize these differences but start to address them through changes in policy, procedures, and human resource practices. Information gained from this study also narrows down the possibilities of what to address. The JDI revealed that the areas of concern are opportunities for promotion, supervision, and differences between Generation X officers and Millennials. There may be a reduced need to understand the differences between Baby Boomers and other generations in this field as their numbers continue to diminish while being replaced with younger officers and departments are becoming solely made up of Generation X and

Millennials at the entry level positions. This study also showed that certain job tasks have no bearing on job satisfaction regarding officer preference or thought importance. This again allows law enforcement professionals to focus on specific areas and not overstretch themselves trying to look at areas of non-significance. Law enforcement agencies can also use the information gained from this study to create training programs in police academies and for active officers and administrators. In police academies, a history of policing revolving around different social times, social expectations, and different training and technologies can illustrate the generational differences in law enforcement and compare that to the current recruits' social culture, expectations, and technologies. With active officers and administrations, trainings can focus on the generational differences with Millennials and how they can adjust and better understand the incoming Millennial officers.

Conclusions

This study showed several areas of significance when it comes to generational cohorts and law enforcement officers' job satisfaction. Further research is needed in the area of generational cohorts in law enforcement. Currently there is news of law enforcement agencies relaxing standards or changing standards to attract individuals to the field. Generational cohorts will allow agencies to get a broader picture of what younger individuals want and expect from their employer and allow these employers to adjust their practices to move forward in a successful manner. The need to address generational difference in law enforcement is now. The shift occurring with the exodus of Baby Boomers and the problems in attracting and retaining Millennials brings the urgent

need to now address and solve this problem before there are drastic reactions to a problem that will have great ramifications leaving many with depleted and dysfunctional police forces.

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Appendix A: Demographics Questionnaire

DEMOGRAPHICS QUESTIONNAIRE

The purpose of this questionnaire is for you to provide some basic background information about yourself and your experience within policing. Please read through and full complete the following:

Demographic Information:

1. Gender: _____ Male _____ Female
2. Year of birth: _____
3. Ethnicity/Race (please choose one of the following):
 - a. African-American
 - b. American Indian
 - c. Asian or Pacific Islander
 - d. European American Descent or Caucasian
 - e. Latino/a or Hispanic
 - f. Other (please specify):
4. Please indicate how many years of service you have in policing:
 - a. 1-5 years
 - b. 6-10 years
 - c. 11-15 years
 - d. 16-20 years
 - e. 20 or more years

Appendix B: Job Task Questionnaire**Job Task Questionnaire**

Please rate on a scale of **1-5** with **1** being never, **2** being a few times a year, **3** being a few times a month, **4** being a few times a week, and **5** being daily; how much you conduct the following job tasks; Please also rank from **1-7** with **1** being most preferred/liked, through **7** being least preferred/liked duty. Lastly, please rank on a scale of **1-7** with **1** being most important to job success and **7** being least important to job success:

(1-5) <u>Frequency:</u>	(1-7) <u>Preference:</u>	(1-7) <u>Importance:</u>
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1. Patrol:
2. Conduct Preliminary Investigations:
3. Traffic Enforcement:
4. Warrant Service:
5. Community Relations:
6. Critical Incident Response:
7. Complaint Response:

Appendix C: Organizational Commitment Questionnaire Permission



Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

PsycTESTS Citation: Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. (1979).

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire [Database record].

Retrieved from PsycTESTS. doi: 10.1037/t08840-000

Test Shown: Full

Test Format:

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire items are rated on a 7-point Likert scale with the following anchors: Strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree, neither agree nor disagree, slightly disagree, moderately disagree, strongly disagree.

Source:

Mowday, Richard T., Steers, Richard M., & Porter, Lyman W. (1979). The measurement of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, Vol 14(2), 224-247. doi: 10.1016/0001-8791(79)90072-1, © 1979 by Elsevier. Reproduced by Permission of Elsevier.

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Appendix D: Job Descriptive Index Permission

Obtaining and using the Job Descriptive Index and related scales

The JDI and related scales are frequently used by academic researchers and workplace professionals as a means of measuring employee attitudes such as job satisfaction. These scales are easy to administer, easy to read, simple in format, and scores may be compared to those from a nationally-representative sample of United States workers.

You can download the JDI and related scales, free of charge, for use in your research study or workplace development project.

Appendix E: O*NET Report

Police Patrol Officers Tasks & Job Activities

Tasks:

Provide for public safety by maintaining order, responding to emergencies, protecting people and property, enforcing motor vehicle and criminal laws, and promoting good community relations.

Record facts to prepare reports that document incidents and activities.

Monitor, note, report, and investigate suspicious persons and situations, safety hazards, and unusual or illegal activity in patrol area.

Identify, pursue, and arrest suspects and perpetrators of criminal acts.

Patrol specific area on foot, horseback, or motorized conveyance, responding promptly to calls for assistance.

Review facts of incidents to determine if criminal act or statute violations were involved.

Render aid to accident victims and other persons requiring first aid for physical injuries.

Investigate traffic accidents and other accidents to determine causes and to determine if a crime has been committed.

Testify in court to present evidence or act as witness in traffic and criminal cases.

Photograph or draw diagrams of crime or accident scenes and interview principals and eyewitnesses.

Relay complaint and emergency-request information to appropriate agency dispatchers.

Evaluate complaint and emergency-request information to determine response requirements.

Process prisoners, and prepare and maintain records of prisoner bookings and prisoner status during booking and pre-trial process.

Monitor traffic to ensure motorists observe traffic regulations and exhibit safe driving procedures.

Issue citations or warnings to violators of motor vehicle ordinances.

Direct traffic flow and reroute traffic in case of emergencies.

Inform citizens of community services and recommend options to facilitate longer-term problem resolution.

Provide road information to assist motorists.

Inspect public establishments to ensure compliance with rules and regulations.

Act as official escorts, such as when leading funeral processions or firefighters.

Activities:

Getting Information — Observing, receiving, and otherwise obtaining information from all relevant sources.

Operating Vehicles, Mechanized Devices, or Equipment — Running, maneuvering, navigating, or driving vehicles or mechanized equipment, such as forklifts, passenger vehicles, aircraft, or water craft.

Identifying Objects, Actions, and Events — Identifying information by categorizing, estimating, recognizing differences or similarities, and detecting changes in circumstances or events.

Making Decisions and Solving Problems — Analyzing information and evaluating results to choose the best solution and solve problems.

Performing for or Working Directly with the Public — Performing for people or dealing directly with the public. This includes serving customers in restaurants and stores, and receiving clients or guests.

Communicating with Persons Outside Organization — Communicating with people outside the organization, representing the organization to customers, the public, government, and other external sources. This information can be exchanged in person, in writing, or by telephone or e-mail.

Documenting/Recording Information — Entering, transcribing, recording, storing, or maintaining information in written or electronic/magnetic form.

Resolving Conflicts and Negotiating with Others — Handling complaints, settling disputes, and resolving grievances and conflicts, or otherwise negotiating with others.

Communicating with Supervisors, Peers, or Subordinates — Providing information to supervisors, co-workers, and subordinates by telephone, in written form, e-mail, or in person.

Evaluating Information to Determine Compliance with Standards — Using relevant information and individual judgment to determine whether events or processes comply with laws, regulations, or standards.

Processing Information — Compiling, coding, categorizing, calculating, tabulating, auditing, or verifying information or data.

Assisting and Caring for Others — Providing personal assistance, medical attention, emotional support, or other personal care to others such as coworkers, customers, or patients.

Establishing and Maintaining Interpersonal Relationships — Developing constructive and cooperative working relationships with others, and maintaining them over time.

Performing General Physical Activities — Performing physical activities that require considerable use of your arms and legs and moving your whole body, such as climbing, lifting, balancing, walking, stooping, and handling of materials.

Updating and Using Relevant Knowledge — Keeping up-to-date technically and applying new knowledge to your job.

Analyzing Data or Information — Identifying the underlying principles, reasons, or facts of information by breaking down information or data into separate parts.

Monitor Processes, Materials, or Surroundings — Monitoring and reviewing information from materials, events, or the environment, to detect or assess problems.

Interacting With Computers — Using computers and computer systems (including hardware and software) to program, write software, set up functions, enter data, or process information.

Inspecting Equipment, Structures, or Material — Inspecting equipment, structures, or materials to identify the cause of errors or other problems or defects.

Interpreting the Meaning of Information for Others — Translating or explaining what information means and how it can be used.

Judging the Qualities of Things, Services, or People — Assessing the value, importance, or quality of things or people.

Thinking Creatively — Developing, designing, or creating new applications, ideas, relationships, systems, or products, including artistic contributions.

Developing Objectives and Strategies — Establishing long-range objectives and specifying the strategies and actions to achieve them.

Provide Consultation and Advice to Others — Providing guidance and expert advice to management or other groups on technical, systems-, or process-related topics.

Organizing, Planning, and Prioritizing Work — Developing specific goals and plans to prioritize, organize, and accomplish your work.

Training and Teaching Others — Identifying the educational needs of others, developing formal educational or training programs or classes, and teaching or instructing others.

Appendix F: Patrol Duties Description

Enforces and upholds the Constitution of the United States, the State of Ohio and the Charter of the City of Toledo and faithfully, honestly and impartially discharges the duties of office according to law and the Police Division manual, rules, regulations, orders, policies and procedures; performs long periods of routine patrol while remaining prepared to react quickly to emergency situations and while being continually aware in discerning out-of-the-ordinary conditions or circumstances which indicate trouble or a crime-in-progress; drives a vehicle under normal and emergency situations; uses mature judgment in problem-solving in situations such as a family disturbance, a potential suicide, a crime or offense in progress, an accident, a disaster and other similar emergencies; provides temporary service as needs may arise, including direction of traffic and giving medical assistance; uses mature judgment in deciding when to make an arrest or to use necessary force as needed in any particular situation or emergency; performs intelligible and grammatically correct communication and recordkeeping functions including oral and written reports to be used by the department or in court; tolerates stress in situations where subjected to verbal or physical abuse, e.g., while making arrests, reacting to a disturbance, dealing with violent behavior; exhibits personal courage in the face of situations that may cause injury or death; skillfully questions suspected offenders, victims and witnesses of crime and exhibits a professional self-assured presence in taking charge of an emergency situation without unduly alienating participants or bystanders; maintains a balanced perspective in the face of constant exposure to the worst side of human nature; assists persons in difficulty or in need of information and refers them to

the proper authorities; performs other general public contact and public relations work in many matters of a non-criminal nature; maintains evidence at the scenes of crime and testifies in court.