Running Head: Burnout and OCB Among Police Officers

# Police Work Experiences and their Relationship to Burnout and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

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Andrea Kohan, ©

Lakehead University, Thunder Bay, Ontario

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Thesis advisor: Dr. D. Mazmanian

Second Reader: Dr. J. Jamieson

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**Abstract**

Recent police stress literature has consistently asserted that *organizational* aspects of work, rather than *operational* ones, are identified by officers as being the most stressful. Exposure to perceived workplace stress can culminate in burnout, a state of diminished well-being and functionality. Although studied among police populations, no attempt has been made to examine the link between burnout and the perceptions of officers regarding chronic exposure to both *organizational* and *operational* aspects of police work. Positive perceptions of work experiences have also been found to influence employee behaviour at work, specifically organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB), extra-role discretionary behaviours that contribute to overall organizational efficiency. The purpose of the present study was to examine the degree to which police officers appraised *organizational* and *operational* facets of work as stressful or uplifting, and to investigate the relationships among such appraisals and burnout and OCB, respectively. In order to do so within an integrated framework that addressed a conceptualization of stress as a process occurring within the person-environment nexus, the moderating effects of coping style and personality were considered. Officers from the Thunder Bay Police Service and the Northwest Region of the Ontario Provincial Police completed self-report measures of these variables. Whereas negative appraisals tended to depend on the frequency of exposure to the different facets of work, potentially positive *organizational* experiences were identified as being more uplifting than *operational* ones. Some evidence was found for expected associations among appraisals of work, burnout, and OCB, with *organizational* hassles and uplifts being more strongly associated with burnout and OCB, respectively, than *operational* ones. Some of the associations were moderated by disposition and coping style, although not always in expected directions, supporting the contention that chronic exposure to stress may impact on officer well-being over and above third variable influences. The study highlighted the importance of considering both positive and negative appraisals of the working environment in the study of police stress, and the potential adaptive function of both problem-focused and emotion-focused coping.

# Police Work Experiences and their Relationship to Burnout and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Police work is often thought to be a stressful occupation. Confronting dangerous, unpredictable, and often emotionally draining situations, witnessing unseemly and tragic events, working under public scrutiny, and often taking adversarial positions, would intuitively seem stress-provoking. However, a substantial body of recent research has shown that it is the organizational aspects of policing that are identified by officers as being the most stressful. Chronic exposure to workplace stress can result in professional burnout, an extreme state of depleted resources. Although much research has been devoted to the study of burnout, relatively few attempts have focused on this reaction among police officers, and none have sought to determine its relationship to daily aspects of work that officers deem stressful.

In addition to their impact on well-being, officers' perceptions of work experiences may have important implications for organizational functioning. Recent organizational behaviour research has concentrated on the contributions of organizational citizenship behaviours to organizational efficiency. Defined as extra-role discretionary acts on the part of the employee that contribute to organizational functionality, organizational citizenship behaviour has been cited as being both desirable and necessary. Much of the research has identified employee perceptions of procedural justice (the fairness of organizational procedures) to be the strongest predictor of this type of behaviour. In light of the identified stressful nature of the police organization, some connection between officers' perceptions of their workplace experiences and organizational citizenship behaviour might be expected. However, no empirical attempts have been made to examine this relationship. Furthermore, as there is evidence to suggest that burnout

detracts from work performance, there may be cause to suspect its involvement in undermining the performance of organizational citizenship behaviour as well.

In an attempt to better understand these relationships, the present study proposed an examination of officers' appraisals of their work experiences, and levels of both burnout and organizational citizenship behaviour. The goal of the study was to determine the extent to which *organizational* and *operational* aspects of work are evaluated as stressful or uplifting, and the extent to which these experiences are differentially associated with burnout and organizational citizenship behaviour. In keeping with the current literature on stress, which acknowledges that stress is the result of an integrated process that occurs within a person-environment nexus, the moderating effects of coping style and personality were also considered.

In order to better appreciate the rationale for the study, the following sections review the relevant literatures on police stress, burnout, and organizational citizenship behaviour. Following this, the study designed to measure the associations among these variables is described.

## Police Work and Stress

It has been an oft cited statement that police work is one of the most stressful of professions (e.g., Sigler & Wilson, 1988; Kreitner, Sova, Wood, Friedman, & Reif, 1985). However, as Hart, Wearing, and Headey (1993) pointed out, although the statement may have intuitive appeal because of the dangerous nature of police work, empirical investigations have failed to substantiate such an assertion (e.g., Brown & Campbell, 1990; Malloy & Mays, 1984; Terry, 1985). Although research over the past two decades has been hampered by the absence of a theoretical framework that could adequately capture the relationship between police officers' work experiences and the effects of such on well-being (Hart et al. 1993; Hart, Headey, & Wearing,1994; Hart, Headey, & Wearing, 1995), investigations that involved anecdotal evidence and relied

upon semi-structured interviews have led to a general acceptance of the existence of four categories of police stressors. *Operational stressors* are those that are inherent to police work, whereas *organizational stressors* are those that stem from the policies and practices of the police organization. *External stressors* are those that result from dealings with the public and external agencies (e.g., courts), whereas *individual stressors* are those that emanate from within the individual, such as feelings of helplessness and incompetence (Hart et al., 1993; Bartol, Bergan, Volckens, & Knovas, 1993). A consistent finding from these unsystematic attempts to measure police stress was that police officers tended to identify the *organizational* elements as being the most bothersome (e.g., Band & Manuelle, 1987; Crank & Caldero, 1991; Kroes, Margolis, & Hurrell, 1974).

Empirical Endeavours

Over the course of the last decade, efforts were been made to employ a more empirical approach to the measurement of police work-related stress. However, the persisting absence of an underlying theoretical framework resulted in the use of an assortment of measurement devices in the assessment of both job stress and well-being. For example, some researchers (e.g., Cooper, Kirkcaldy, & Brown, 1991; Kirkcaldy, 1993; Kirkcaldy & Cooper, 1992), have attempted to measure the impact of exposure to daily work experiences on police officer well-being using an index of chronic or recurring job stress (e.g., The Occupational Stress Indicator; Cooper, Sloan, & Williams, 1988), whereas others (e.g., Li-Ping Tang & Hammontree, 1992; Patterson, 1992; Violanti & Aron, 1993), have used a scale designed to tap specific police work experiences (e.g., The Police Stress Survey Spielberger, Westberry, Grier, & Greenfield, 1981). However, such scales addressed only negative work experiences. In light of evidence that positively and negatively appraised work experiences operate independently to influence officer well-being (Cohen & Hoberman, 1983; Hart, et al., 1993; 1994; Headey & Wearing, 1992), and that positive aspects of the organization can actually serve to enhance well-being

(Hart et al., 1993; 1994; 1995), both scales have been criticized as inadequate measures of police work-related stress (e.g., Hart et al., 1993).

Another approach has been to determine the impact of critical incidents on officer well-being. However, the validity of this approach to the measurement of police work-related stress is questionable considering that chronic exposure to work experiences has been found to be more influential on well-being than the experience of sporadic but traumatic incidents (Chamberlain & Zika, 1990; DeLongis, Coyne, Dakof, Folkman, & Lazarus, 1982; Weinberger, Hiner, & Tierney, 1987). Furthermore, by focusing on only the *operational* component of work experiences, this approach ignored the general finding that there are several types of job stressors, and that *organizational* rather than *operational* job facets have been found to be better predictors of officer well-being. Moreover, if one considers that fact that many officers may work an entire career with very little exposure to such critical incidents (e.g., an extremely violent death investigation, or the shooting of a partner; Kirkham & Wollan, 1980), it seems unlikely that this method could adequately elucidate the sources of police stress. This has indeed been the case, with only weak associations being found between exposure to such incidents and measures of physical and psychological distress and well-being (Lazarus, 1990).

Well-being measures in the relevant literature also portray the varied and chaotic nature of an area of inquiry bereft of theoretical inspiration. Studies have included indices of physical illness (e.g., Doctor, Cutris & Issacs, 1994; Li-Ping Tang & Hammontree, 1992), psychological distress such as depression and anxiety (e.g., Brown & Campbell, 1990; Joseph, 1989; Violanti & Aron, 1993), moodiness, worrying and tension (e.g., Kirkcaldy & Cooper, 1992), psychiatric morbidity (e.g., Alexander & Wells, 1991; Brown & Fielding, 1993), life satisfaction (e.g., Mayes, Barton, & Ganster, 1991, and indirect indices such as job satisfaction (Cooper, Kirkcaldy, & Brown, 1994; Kirkcaldy, 1993; Kirkcaldy, Cooper, Furnham, & Brown, 1993; Norvelle, Belles, & Hills, 1988; Sigler &

Wilson, 1988), absenteeism (Alexander & Walker, 1994; Li-Tang & Hammontree, 1992), Type A behaviour (Kirkcaldy, Shephard, & Cooper, 1993), and drug and alcohol use (Violanti, Marshall, & Howe, 1985).

Finally, the more recent exploration of the role of demographic and individual factors in the stress-well-being relationship has reflected a similar diversity. For example, age (e.g., Mayes et al., 1992), gender (e.g., Barton et al., 1992), locus of control (e.g., Cooper et al., 1994; Kirkcaldy et al., 1993), hardiness (e.g., Li-Ping Tang & Hammontree, 1992), self-esteem (Rosse, Boss, Johnson, & Crown, 1991), mood states (e.g., Evans & Coman, 1993), and career orientation (Burke & Kirchmeyer, 1990a; 1990b), have all been incorporated into studies examining the outcome of police work-related stress.

## Recent Theoretical Developments

In response to the deficit in theoretically inspired investigations of police work experiences and stress, researchers (e.g., Hart et al., 1993; 1994; 1995) have recently developed a method by which to measure the impact of daily work experiences, by relying on the theoretical conceptualizations of stress put forth in the transactional theory (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) and the dynamic equilibrium theory (Headey & Wearing, 1989; 1992). Both theories suggest that an analysis of stress must be conducted within the context of the person-environment nexus. The transactional theory holds that the relationship between environmental factors and an individual's response to them is subject to the mediating effects of both the *appraisal* (evaluations of the environment) and *coping* (emotional and behavioural responses directed at change) processes, with coping having a direct influence on one's adaptational response, and perhaps even serving to influence the initial appraisal process (Lazarus, 1990). The dynamic equilibrium theory stems from perceived quality of life (PQOL) research, and postulates that a personality-based

predisposition works toward the maintenance of an "equilibrium" of well-being in the face of negatively and positively appraised encounters (Headey & Wearing, 1989; 1992). A meshing of the two theories allowed for the influence of coping to be explained in terms of the mediating effects of a personality-based predisposition (Bolger, 1990; Headey & Wearing, 1992).

The Police Daily Hassles and Uplift Scale (PDHUS; Hart et al., 1993; 1994; 1995), developed as a measure of daily police work experiences, was used by these researchers to represent the appraisal of environmental factors in the stress process. The scale deviates from previous scales used to measure stress among police officers in that it includes both negative and positive aspects of police work. The inclusion of positive aspects was based on the argument that distress and well-being do not lie on the same continuum, but rather, are two separate response dimensions, with positive experiences being associated with increases on well-being measures while having little impact on psychological distress measures, and negative experiences being linked to increases on psychological distress measures, while having minimal influence on well-being measures (Cohen & Hoberman, 1983; Deiner & Emmons, 1985; Hart et al., 1993; McCrae & Costa, 1986; Headey & Wearing, 1992).

By incorporating the PDHUS into a model measuring coping style and personality (neuroticism and extroversion), Hart et al. (1995) attempted to elucidate the distressing and rewarding aspects of police work and the relationship of such to the interplay of individual factors and psychological distress and well-being. The results offered further empirical support for the notion that positively and negatively evaluated *organizational* work experiences are more influential on officer well-being (in expected directions) than *operational* work experiences, and that these appraisals may have direct effects on well-being over and above dispositional factors. Furthermore, positive and negative aspects were found to act independently of each other, suggesting that negatively evaluated aspects of work have little bearing on the experience of positively evaluated ones (Hart et

al., 1993; 1994). Finally, although some support for a mediational model was found, uncertainty existed as to whether coping played a mediational role in appraisal-well-being relationships, or whether, as Lazarus (1990) suggested, the coping processes influenced appraisals of work experiences which in turn impacted on states of well-being. Clearly, this matter awaits investigation of a longitudinal nature.

With an appreciation for the potential of *organizational* work experiences to influence officers' psychological distress and well-being, and the concept of a 'person-environment' analysis of work stress, it seems feasible to integrate the notion of burnout, a specific work-related stress, into a multifaceted consideration of stress among police officers similar to the one proposed by Hart and his colleagues. Inasmuch as high levels of burnout have been linked to psychological distress and physical malaise (as discussed below), low levels may indicate an absence of such, and in so doing, reflect states of relative *work-related* well-being. Furthermore, low levels of one facet, *diminished job-related personal accomplishment*, presumably reflect an adequate sense of work-related personal accomplishment which may be construed as a degree of job satisfaction (work-related well-being). Prior to considering burnout among police officers in a "person-environment" model, it makes sense to examine existing empirical efforts directed at measuring burnout among police officers. A general overview of the literature on burnout is presented below, followed by the more specific consideration of burnout among police officers.

## Burnout

The word "burnout" has come to be recognized by both lay people and professionals alike. Not only has it received much attention in the literature over the past two decades, but it seems to have been embraced by society as a "catch-all" term for the malaise associated with the stress of modern working life. The result has been a persisting ambiguity surrounding its conceptualization (Farber, 1983). For example, since the early

stages of its investigation, burnout has been described as a wearing out, a failing, becoming exhausted, losing creativity, losing commitment for work, an estrangement from clients, co-workers, job and agency, a response to the chronic stress of making it to the top, and a syndrome of inappropriate attitudes toward clients and self (Perlman & Hartman, 1982). Other definitions have characterized burnout as the following: a physical depletion accompanied by feelings of helplessness and hopelessness, emotional drain, and the development of a negative self-concept and negative attitudes toward work, life, and others (Pines & Aronson, 1981); a "state of fatigue or frustration brought about by the devotion to a cause, way of life, or relationship that failed to produce the expected reward" (Freudenberger & Richelson, 1980, p. 13); and a "progressive loss of idealism, energy, purpose, and concern as a result of conditions of work" (Edelwich & Brodsky, 1980, p.14). There are those who have questioned the legitimate status of burnout as an index of well-being, claiming that the term simply serves to denote a trendy "out" from the responsibilities and pressures of life (Quinnet, 1981). However, for the most part, as described below, burnout has been acknowledged as a negative and significant response to environmental factors (particularly those of work), the symptoms of which include physical, emotional, and attitudinal facets.

## The Nature of Burnout

Conceptual ambiguity aside, those dedicated to the systematic investigation of burnout have generally agreed upon the fact that burnout is best viewed as a process, a response pattern which is a consequence of a dynamic interplay of environmental and individual factors (Farber, 1983; Maslach & Jackson, 1984). As such, conceptually, it fits nicely along side the description of stress discussed earlier. The systematic study of burnout over the past few decades has even more clearly delineated it as a particular type of job stress in which the response pattern is multifaceted. Specifically, it has been generally accepted that the response pattern to work stressors or demands includes three

components: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and feelings of diminished personal accomplishment (e.g., Jackson and Maslach, 1982; Maslach and Jackson, 1982; Maslach and Jackson 1984).

The *emotional exhaustion* component captures the feeling of depleted energy or fatigue that one may experience as a result of extending oneself beyond one's limit of emotional resource. According to Cordes and Dougherty (1993), the realization of reaching one's emotional limit may inspire frustration, tension, and a general dreading of the work day experience. The *depersonalization* component is characterized by a growing detachment from and callousness toward the recipients of one's services, and a cynicism directed at the organization for which one works, and one's co-workers. Finally, the *diminished personal accomplishment* component is marked by feelings of personal incompetence, and lack of successful achievement in both professional and interpersonal spheres of life. All three facets have been linked to a variety of adverse conditions for both the individual and the organization. These are discussed briefly in the following paragraphs.

Consequences of Burnout

Negative correlates of burnout, as they pertain to individual functioning, include physical malaise (headaches, fatigue, insomnia, gastrointestinal problems), diminished well-being associated with depression and anxiety (Kahill, 1988; Burke, Shearer, & Deszca, 1984a), disruptions in interpersonal relationships (Burke & Deszca, 1986; Burke, Shearer, & Deszca, 1984b), enhanced negativity directed at others, oneself, and one's agency (Kahill, 1988), and increased alcohol, drug, and tobacco use (Burke & Deszca, 1986; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993).

Negative correlates of burnout more directly associated with the functioning of organizations include deficits in work performance (Maslach & Jackson, 1985), increased absenteeism (Jackson, Schwab, & Schuler, 1986) and turnover (Frith & Britton, 1989;

Maslach & Jackson, 1984), intentions to quit (Burke & Deszca, 1986), and diminished organizational commitment (Jackson, Turner, & Brief, 1987). The empirical support for the deleterious correlates of burnout naturally raises questions about prevention. However, in order to take a proactive approach to burnout prevention, there must be some understanding of its antecedents. Accordingly, these are described below.

Antecedents of Burnout

Typically, the antecedents of burnout have been conceptually broken into the two categories of individual characteristics and organizational characteristics. Individual factors related to burnout include age (Russell, Altmaier, & Van Velzen, 1987), marital status and the presence of children (Maslach & Jackson, 1985), social support (Maslach & Jackson, 1985), years of work experience (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993), personal expectations about the self and the organization (Maslach & Jackson, 1984), and diminished expectations (Stevens & O'Neill, 1983). Being married, the presence of children, and social support have all been negatively associated with burnout and/or its component parts, whereas diminished expectations have evidenced positive associations. Age and years of work experience have also exhibited negative associations, with younger workers typically indicating higher levels of burnout, and more experienced workers reporting lower levels.

Characteristics of the organization, which are most pertinent to the focus of this paper, encompass such concepts as role characteristics, job context, and the nature of interpersonal contacts within the organization. A consideration of role characteristics in relation to burnout includes an examination of the degree of: (1) experienced *role conflict*, the discrepancy between one's expectations of one's work role and the role actually being performed; (2) experienced *role ambiguity*, uncertainty regarding one's work role predominantly the result of unclear or non-existent descriptions of performance duties; and (3) experienced *role overload*, a perceived overload of organizational

expectations in terms of both quality and quantity of work performance. All of these subcomponents of the role characteristic category have been shown to be positively correlated with burnout (Cordes & Dougherty,1993).

Job context, as determined by the frequency of contact between the employee and the service recipient, and the intensity of those contacts, has been linked to burnout. Specifically, those contexts in which there is a high frequency of contact, and those in which the contact is considered to be emotionally charged (high intensity), particularly when responsibility for the outcome is relinquished to the employee, have been identified as positive correlates of burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1984). Furthermore, the type of interpersonal contact within the organization has been implicated in burnout. For example, interactions with unpleasant supervisors have been associated with higher levels of burnout (Leiter & Maslach, 1988).

The Professional Context of Burnout

Burnout has been predominantly studied among individuals working in professions and organizations in which there is a high degree of interpersonal contact (Golembiewski, 1986). Originally, investigative emphasis was placed on the emotional strain experienced by health-care professionals who typically have the responsibility of availing themselves of the psychological or physical burdens of others (Farber, 1983). However, more recently, the literature has revealed that burnout is also a phenomenon experienced by those involved in a variety of "people-oriented" professions in which there is a similar responsibility for "the other", such as lawyers (e.g., Maslach & Jackson, 1984), teachers (e.g., Ianni & Reuss-Ianni, 1983; Pretorius, 1994), and police officers (e.g., Burke, 1993a; 1993b; Burke & Deszca, 1986; Burke & Kirchmeyer, 1990a; 1990b; Burke et al., 1984a; Burke et al., 1984b; Jackson & Maslach, 1982).

Police officers have been the subject of burnout investigations because, although they do not belong, strictly speaking, to a "helping profession", they do have a high

frequency of contact with the public, often in situations of high intensity (i.e., emotionally charged interactions). Furthermore, members of the public typically look to police officers for solutions to problems, desiring and demanding them to tend, at least superficially, to their physical, emotional, and social concerns. Additionally, even though officers may often be engaged in solo operations (e.g., while driving their cruiser), they are just as often required to function within a highly interactive working atmosphere, in which close contact with co-workers is necessary. More importantly, the police work environment is one in which many organizational antecedents of burnout are prevalent. The following section reviews the empirical efforts that have been directed at the examination of burnout among police officers.

## Burnout Among Police Officers

Although there is an abundance of research on burnout, only a relatively small portion is directed at the question of burnout within police populations. The studies that have focused on this question can be divided into two categories: those using police samples as yet another population by which to examine the burnout process in general, and those looking at the dimensions existing specifically within this population and how they relate to burnout. The latter is an exercise aimed at understanding the mechanisms operating within the police milieu, rather than the mechanisms of burnout per se. Studies representative of each category are reviewed below.

### Investigating Burnout Using Police Samples

An example of research examining the mechanisms of burnout is the 1986 study by Burke and Deszca, which used a police sample to investigate the use and validity of the phase model of burnout put forth by Cherniss (1980), and researched by Golembiewski and his colleagues (e.g., Golembiewski, 1984; Golembiewski, Munzenrider, & Phelan-Carter, 1983; Golembiewski & Munzenrider, 1984). The model postulates eight phases

of burnout, each one being defined by a rating of low or high on each of the Maslach Burnout Inventory's (Maslach & Jackson, 1986) three subcomponents. The progression of the phases is determined by the progression of onset of each of the three subcomponents, which, according to Golembiewksi (1984), move from feelings of depersonalization, to feelings of diminished personal accomplishment, and ultimately, to a state of emotional exhaustion. Thus, an individual in the initial stage of burnout (phase 1) would display low levels of all three components, whereas an individual experiencing extreme burnout (phase 8) would show high levels of all three. Sandwiched between these two extremes are the six permutations of the lows and highs on each component according to the theoretical progression.

Typically, studies investigating the validity of the phase model have sought to establish the existence of consistent patterns of covariation between the eight phases of burnout and variables implicated in the burnout progression. Such variables have included work setting (the organization's orientation and goals, expected work load, and the degree of stimulation, autonomy, supervision, and social isolation), sources of stress (doubts about one's competency, bureaucratic interference, difficulties with clients, and lack of stimulation, fulfilment and collegiality) and individual characteristics (demographic information, career orientation, internal demands, and degree of outside support; Cherniss, 1980). Theoretically, measures of these variables should increase and decrease in expected directions as the experience of burnout progresses through the eight phases, with individuals in more advanced phases identifying greater deficits in the quality of their work setting, a more negative attitude toward their work, and diminished well-being.

Data from Burke and Deszca's (1986) police sample showed that a variety of work setting and personal outcome variables were associated with the progression of burnout in expected ways. Their results also revealed that 23% of the police officers in their sample were experiencing extreme stages of Burnout (phase 8), while another 23% were experiencing extremely low levels (phase 1). According to the authors, this finding

deviated somewhat from distributions reported in similar studies using samples of other professionals (e.g., Golembiewski & Munzenrider, 1984), raising the question of potential differences in the degree to which police officers experience progressive levels of burnout relative to workers in other organizations.

Although this and other studies by Burke (e.g., 1993a; 1993b) expanded upon previous empirical endeavours by incorporating an assessment of both the impact of work on non-work facets of life, and physical and psychological well-being as reflected in measures of psychosomatic symptoms, negative mood states (e.g., depression, overt aggression, anger, and irritation), alcohol and drug use, and physical health and life style, they nonetheless, included only generic work setting variables deemed potentially stressful. Furthermore, when an attempt was made to include a measure of some stressful facet unique to the police working environment, only a measure of exposure to potentially traumatic police events was used (The Schedule of Recent Experiences; Holmes & Rahe, 1967). As was previously discussed, this type of measure may be a poor "source of stress" indicator due to the unequal distribution of experiences with such life events among officers. Therefore, its potential to provide information about the relationship between burnout and aspects of the police milieu may be limited.

Other researchers have used police samples to investigate a number of burnout correlates. Rosse et al. (1991), seeking to replicate previous findings that showed self-esteem to be negatively associated with burnout (e.g., Golembiewski & Kim, 1989), explored the link using large samples of police officers and hospital workers. The results corroborated prior research efforts, thereby contributing to the generalizability of the finding. Furthermore, although the data failed to establish self-esteem as a moderator of burnout, they did suggest a dual role for self-esteem as both an antecedent and consequence of burnout. Ross and his colleagues cited this duality as evidence of the necessity to consider personality components along with situational variables in the burnout equation.

Burke and Kirchmeyer (1990a; 1990b) used police samples to explore the concept of career orientation, a form of occupational self-concept (Cherniss, 1980). They looked first at the relationship between one's career orientation at career onset and later negative experiences associated with burnout, and then at the relationship between current career orientation and burnout, stress, and job satisfaction. The former study identified the career orientation, *social activist*, as being most susceptible to the negative physical and psychological correlates of burnout in a police work environment, whereas the latter found that the career orientation, *self-investor*, was most associated with concurrent burnout and diminished well-being.

Finally, Burke (1989a) investigated the relationship between career plateau and burnout. According to Burke, existing research found that, although career plateau may not necessarily be linked to psychological and physical malaise, and diminished work performance, an individual's ability to deal with career plateau may be, with specific organizational dimensions possibly influencing such relationships. The study found that, although officers at career plateau (defined by a status of constable for 15 years or more) assessed their work environment more negatively than their non-plateau counterparts, and reported more perceived stress at work, greater work alienation and intention to quit, and less job satisfaction, they did not indicate greater psychological and physical distress.

The finding that "plateaued" officers evaluated their working environment negatively without necessarily showing elevations on measures of the adverse outcome variables often associated with such appraisal (e.g., Hart et al., 1993; 1994; 1995), led to a description of career plateau as a possible coping mechanism. That is, the donning of a "less committed" attitude toward work (as reflected by the plateau) was seen as a method by which to counter adversity experienced at work. However, although it may protect an officer from the negative outcomes associated with burnout, low commitment to one's work runs counter to the interest of any organization, and thus can be seen to reflect a negative consequence of burnout of an organizational nature. It would be beneficial to

our understanding of the negative impact of burnout on organizational functionality, to test this hypothesis using a measure of work performance related to work commitment. *Organizational citizenship behaviour* is one such measure and will be discussed in detail in a subsequent section. First, the discussion will turn to the second type of research effort involved in the study of burnout among police officers.

Burnout and the Police Milieu

The second category of research on police and burnout is more specifically focused on the unique attributes of the police environment and how they might be related to well-being. An example of this type of research is the study by Stearns and Moore (1993). Drawing upon both previously identified correlates of stress within the police working environment and police personality profiles, these researchers attempted to determine the degree to which such variables were associated with burnout. For example, the presence of cynical attitudes on the part of police officers has regularly been cited in the literature on police stress, often being described as an ineffective coping mechanism used to combat the stress of police work (Violanti & Marshall, 1983), and buffer police from society (Niederhoffer, 1967). Similarly, authoritarianism or "the John Wayne Syndrome" has also been implicated in the ineffective coping response of police officers (Chandler & Jones, 1979; Violanti & Marshall, 1983). Measures of both constructs were included in the Stearns and Moore study. Additionally, a consistent indicator of police personality, an elevated *K* scale (MMPI), was included to examine the relationship between police personality and burnout.

From among the findings, the authors pointed to a solid relationship between these negative attitudes and burnout, suggesting that these attitudes might be considered additional prominent indicators of burnout among police officers. Furthermore, whereas personality factors where shown to have only a weak association with burnout, measures of general well-being, psychological distress and health concerns, life satisfaction, and the

extent to which work was perceived to interfere with sports or hobbies, were found to have the strongest. Stearns and Moore concluded that burnout among police officers was disconcerting because of its broad potential negative impact on officers' lives in general, and that officers' working environment could be an important antecedent of burnout. They recommended that future attention be directed at determining the negative effects of officers' working environment rather than focusing on character flaws associated with a negative response to police work.

In another study representative of this category, Burke (1989b) examined career stage, satisfaction, and burnout among police officers. Although career stage could be examined in any work environment, Burke's goal was to build upon previous research that had demonstrated the existence of a particular pattern of association between career stage and well-being among police officers. Specifically, evidence from previous research (e.g., Cooper, 1982; Violanti, 1983) suggested the existence of a curvilinear relationship between these variables, with officers in mid-career stages (9-12 years) showing the most elevated levels of distress. Burke found similar evidence of a curvilinear relationship between career stage, work setting, and burnout, while controlling for the possible confounding effects of age. Constables having between 6-15 years of police experience reported a greater degree of perceived stress, work alienation, work-family conflict, and burnout, took a greater number of sick days, and had a more negative attitude toward their working environment than their counterparts with less and more experience.

The diminished satisfaction appeared to focus on unmet career expectations, the lack of control over career path, and the uncertainty of career prospects, all of which were explained in terms of an increased desire for promotion among officers at the mid-career point relative to officers with less or more experience. Speculation suggested that promotion at mid-career stage may be important because it is often seen as synonymous with status within the organization. Furthermore, the unique and often pervasive ambiguity inherent in the constable role (Driver, 1985), coupled with feelings of being

locked into a chosen career by needs for security and pay, may cause officers at mid-career stage to view promotion as a way to validate their effectiveness in the organization. This reasoning supported the theories of burnout which attributed role ambiguity and unmet expectations to increases in burnout (e.g., Maslach & Jackson, 1984).

Although the purpose of Burke's study was to expose a specific aspect (promotion and career stage) of the police environment that may be conducive to burnout, the absence of a comprehensive measure of potential daily police stressors is significant. Such was the case in a more recent study by the same author. Burke (1994) examined burnout among police officers within the framework of a multivariate causally-ordered model of antecedents. Although individual coping initiatives were incorporated and examined for their influential impact on both burnout and outcome variables, little in the way of daily work stressors was addressed. There was mention of the fact that there may be a variety of potentially negative and chronic aspects of the police working environment, both of an *organizational* (e.g., excessive paperwork, shift work, the militaristic nature of the bureaucratic structure) and *operational* (e.g., lack of respect from the public, confrontational and negative interchanges with the public, threats of violence) nature. However, none were included in the framework of the model. As in previous studies (e.g., Burke & Descza, 1986; Burke & Kirchmeyer, 1990a; 1990b), a measure of stressful events represented the only attempt to incorporate sources of work stress. These cannot be discounted altogether as sources of officer stress, as indeed the results of this study pointed to their relationship with measures of diminished well-being. However, the author himself acknowledged the importance of expanding the representation to include other work stressors.

In summary, studies in the area of burnout among police officers have been few but varied. Whereas some have added to our knowledge of burnout as a phenomenon that affects police officers in a manner similar to other professionals, others have highlighted unique aspects of the police work environment that have the potential to influence officer

burnout. In general, these studies have overwhelmingly demonstrated the link between burnout and diminished well-being, finding officers who indicated higher levels of burnout to also report increases in psychosomatic symptoms, tension and anxiety at home, career plateau, cynical attitudes, withdrawal from socializing, and a greater negative impact of job demands on non-work facets of their lives.

Overall, it is apparent that there are a variety of antecedents and consequences of burnout. However, the manner in which variables interact to perpetuate the process remains unclear. Future studies would do well to incorporate these into a multivariate and integrated framework to better address stress as a process. Furthermore, none of the studies presented above included a comprehensive measure of chronic work stressors unique to the police work environment -- the events, circumstances, and duties to which officers are exposed on a daily basis and that have the potential to be bothersome (or beneficial). In light of the existing empirical and theoretical information implicating the structure and functioning of the organization in the burnout process, it makes sense for researchers interested in burnout among specific employment populations to include in their inquiries measures of sources of stress unique to the population under study. To the extent that chronic exposure to daily stressors has been demonstrated to have the most potential for deleterious impact on officer well-being, it also makes sense to include a measure of such in an investigation of burnout antecedents. This was one purpose of the present study.

But what of the impact of such exposure on the "well-being" of the organization? If evaluations of work experiences have the potential to impact on officer well-being as has been suggested, might they also be expected to impact on the well-being of the organization by influencing officers' behaviour in relation to it? The term *organizational citizenship behaviour* (OCB) has often been used to connote an employee's contribution to organizational "well-being" (efficiency) through positive spontaneous and innovative acts that go beyond those dictated by job descriptions. It might be expected that chronic

exposure to aspects of the working environment would influence one's actions of organizational citizenship, depending on one's evaluation of that environment. Furthermore, as was discussed in an earlier section of this paper, there is evidence to suggest that individual well-being itself, as measured by burnout, is associated with an assortment of negative consequences for the organization (e.g., increased absenteeism and intention to quit, diminished productivity, career plateau), including diminished levels of organizational commitment (Burke, 1989a; Jackson et al., 1987; Leiter & Maslach, 1988), which implies the possibility of both a direct and indirect influence of burnout on organizational citizenship behaviour.

OCB was theoretically implicated in organizational efficiency several decades ago (Katz, 1964; Katz & Kahn, 1978). Renewed interest in the potential of such behaviour to bear directly on organizational efficiency has inspired a recent proliferation of research aimed at the theoretical and empirical understanding of this relationship. Although several labels have been used to reflect this type of behaviour (e.g., organizational spontaneity, prosocial behaviour), each with its own defining characteristics, OCB has been the most often cited. Whereas much of the research has explored the work environment and personality correlates of OCB, no studies have examined its relationship to specific work experiences and burnout, and none have addressed these associations within a police environment. This was a second purpose of the present study. In order to better appreciate the impact of work experiences and individual factors on organizational efficiency as measured by OCB, the following section reviews the literature on the OCB construct.

## Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

OCB represents a subtle aspect of job performance and is receiving much attention in organizational behaviour literature for its potential impact on the successful functioning

of organizations. Whether such attention reflects a growing appreciation of the limitations of more traditional measures of job performance to adequately capture the dynamics of the work environment-employee behaviour relationship, or the recent push of global competition for more refined measures of success (e.g., innovation and flexibility versus simple productivity), or both, remains uncertain. What is apparent is that despite a 30 year old discussion of the importance of extra-role contributions on the part of employees to organizational efficacy (Katz, 1964; Katz & Kahn, 1978), it is only recently that a plenitude of empirical efforts have been directed at uncovering the mechanisms, antecedents, and consequences of OCB.

## Theoretical Conceptualizations

Two major conceptualizations have dominated the OCB literature and represent the lack of theoretical consensus that currently plagues the area. The first is put forward by Organ (1988), who defined OCB as

> ...individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization. By discretionary, we mean that behaviour is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, that is, the clearly specifiable terms of the person's employment contract with the organization; the behaviour is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable (p. 4).

This definition has come to be represented by five subcomponents or dimensions. These include Altruism, Conscientiousness, Sportsmanship, Courtesy, and Civic Virtue Behaviour. *Altruism* captures those spontaneous behaviours directed at helping both co-workers and customers/clients with tasks and/or problems, and *Generalized compliance*

*or Conscientiousness* refers to the more global concept of carrying out duties beyond minimal requirements. The *Sportsmanship* dimension reflects an employees' abstinence from performing negative behaviours, such as complaining about unavoidable work annoyances, whereas *Courtesy* encompasses employee behaviours aimed at preventing work-related problems that affect co-workers, such as offering reminders, passing along information, and consulting others prior to taking action. Finally, *Civic Virtue Behaviour* refers to responsible participation in the political life of the organization, such as attending meetings, keeping informed about central organizational issues, and getting involved in activities aimed at bettering the organization (Deluga, 1994; Schnake, Cochran & Dumler, 1995).

The basis of this conceptualization of OCB is the *social exchange relationship*, which refers to the idea that a relationship in which rewards, both material and psychological (e.g., status, loyalty, approval), outweigh costs, will inspire long-standing and mutual trust. According to Organ & Konovsky (1989), social exchange encompasses a potentially broad constellation of workplace factors which are largely non-contractual in nature and not necessarily predetermined, whereas an economic exchange is dictated by predetermined contracts such as pay schedules. Thus, fair treatment on the part of the organization and its representatives in connection with these factors, may be seen by the employee as evidence of their own involvement in an established relationship rich in non-monetary rewards, which can be reciprocated through acts of OCB. Conversely, unjust treatment may alter an employee's view of the situation toward a more economically-based exchange in which only actions exacting compensation (e.g., pay) are performed. Thus, OCB may be less likely to occur in situations involving unjust treatment (Deluga, 1995).

The other major conceptualization of OCB was articulated by Graham (1991), who defined OCB as a measure of work behaviour denoted by a three-dimensional framework: obedience, loyalty, and participation. This definition was based on an adaptation of a political philosophy of "responsible citizenship" (e.g., Cary, 1977; Inkeles,

1969; Janowitz, 1980; Pateman, 1970). Like a responsible citizen who obeys the laws of orderly society, is loyal to its interests and values, and actively participates in its perpetuation, an employee who engages in OCB is seen as one who acknowledges the necessity of rules pertaining to the structure and function of the organization and obeys them (obedience), identifies with the organization and defends it against criticism and threats (loyalty), and actively concerns oneself with its affairs by keeping informed through such acts as attending non-mandatory meetings, discussing new and informed opinions, and generally acting in the best interests of the whole (participation). Thus, OCB in this sense includes traditional elements of job performance and political behaviour related to the organization, as well as the extra-role, discretionary behaviours captured in Organ's definition. Being broader in nature, this definition of OCB allowed a variety of employee behaviours to be considered in the assessment of OCB, that although advantageous to the organization, may otherwise have been construed as in-role in nature, and thus dismissed in empirical analyses.

At the heart of the political theory of OCB is the *covenantal relationship*, defined as a coalescent relationship governed by a commitment on the part of both parties to the welfare of the other, with each party's obligations extending beyond self-interest, and each party's actions within that relationship being based on a transcendent set of values (Graham & Organ, 1993). The difference between the social exchange relationship and the covenantal one (even though both are based on the notion of reciprocity) is that the former is governed by an assessment of performance within the relationship, and actions are altered (or the relationship is terminated) according to whether or not the other party is living up to expected obligations. The covenantal relationship on the other hand, is governed by a mutual trust that secures each party's confidence in their status as a permanent party, such that perceptions of inadequate performance do not lead to a termination of the relationship or the necessary altering of behaviour, but rather they inspire a struggle towards progress within the relationship (Bromley & Busching, 1988;

Graham & Organ, 1993). As Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch (1994) suggested, covenantal relationships "are existential; they focus on a state of being and involve intrinsically motivated effort rather than earning something or getting somewhere....The more strongly a person identifies with the collective entity (such as a particular relationship or community) and feels valued and values the connection, the less that individual will rely on legal sanctions to resolve difficulties, and the more he or she will be an active contributor" (p. 768).

According to Graham (1991), because OCB from this perspective is associated with covenantal relationships, in which undesirable changes in organizational conditions do not necessarily result in the commensurate withdrawal of OCB (as typically occurs in social exchange relationships), behaviours geared toward offsetting undesirable behaviour can be included in the definition of OCB. Thus, instead of envisioning the withdrawal of extra-role behaviours in response to dissatisfaction with perceived inequity, Graham argued that such dissatisfaction may actually inspire employee OCB as a method by which to repair organizational functioning. This was seen as an example of participatory responsibility (e.g., voicing concern), which represents a strong form of OCB inasmuch as it requires an employee to maintain vigilance over organizational operations, be concerned with principles, and display moral courage by disrupting the routine of the organization, perhaps bringing upon oneself an invidious reputation.

By including political participation as an integral component of OCB, and highlighting such a controversial interplay between obedience and participation, Graham portrayed OCB as more complex than that suggested by Organ's (1988; 1990) "good soldier" analogy, which likened the "good employee" to a diligent soldier who would work conscientiously, obediently, and co-operatively, until such a time as the organization was perceived as unreciprocating and exploitative. The advantage of this definition relative to the first, is its reliance on a theoretical foundation as a determinant of what should be measured, rather than an extension of its conceptual dimensions based only on

ad hoc efforts (Moorman & Blakely, 1992). Nonetheless, the OCB literature (as reviewed below) is dominated by studies relying on scales assessing OCB from the standpoint of Organ's original definition (e.g., Aquino, 1995; Bateman & Organ, 1983; Deluga, 1994; 1995; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991; Moorman & Blakely, 1995; Organ, 1988; Organ & Lingl, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990; Schnake et al., 1995; Smith, Organ & Near, 1983).

Different conceptualizations aside, there tends to be a consensus regarding the desirability for and necessity of OCB in the successful functioning of organizations. As Kemery, Bedeian and Zecur (1996) articulated, OCB is important from a systems perspective in that such behaviour "serves to maintain an organization's internal equilibrium. Through the co-operative acts of employees responding to one another's needs, an organization's flexibility is increased and, therefore, the probability of its long-term success may be enhanced" (p.635). In order to understand the conditions under which it operates, the trend among present day researchers interested in OCB has been to flush out its potential antecedents. Such empirical efforts, aimed at uncovering both individual and situational factors related to OCB, are discussed in turn in the following sections.

Individual Factor Antecedents

The belief that certain traits or dispositional tendencies may incline one toward a particular type of behaviour has fuelled the search for individual factors predictive of OCB. Researchers have targeted The "Big Five" personality factors, specifically *Agreeableness* and *Conscientiousness* (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1991; Konovsky & Organ, 1993; Moorman, 1990; Organ, 1990; Organ & Lingl, 1995; Smith et al., 1983), dispositional affectivity (e.g., George, 1991; Organ & Konovsky, 1989), and *extraversion* and *neuroticism*, the underlying traits of dispositional affect (Barrick & Mount, 1991;

Smith et al., 1983), as possible OCB correlates. However, preliminary findings have provided only equivocal evidence to support a dispositional link along these lines.

Dispositional affect has been suspected of predisposing an individual toward affective states, which, in conjunction with the stronger effects of situational factors present in the work place, may directly influence OCB (George, 1992; Organ, 1994). Empirical examinations of the connection between mood state, or the *affective component of job satisfaction* (Ajzen, 1989; Schnake, 1991; Schnake et al., 1995) and OCB have consistently demonstrated a positive association between these two variables (e.g., Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Puffer, 1987; Schnake, 1991; Witt, 1991), with mood state possibly mediating the relationship between perceptions of fairness, or the *cognitive component of job satisfaction*, and OCB (Moorman, 1991). For example, the induction of a positive mood state among employees through the perception of fair treatment was shown to be linked to OCB, whereas perceived dishonesty, manipulation and favouritism was shown to inspire a hostility between employees and decision-makers (negative mood state), which in turn was associated with diminished levels of OCB, as well as overt antagonistic acts, such as vandalism, breaking rules, and complaining (Aquino, 1995; Fortado, 1992). Thus, contrary to traditional job performance literature, which pointed to a weak association between measures of job satisfaction and job performance (e.g., Fischer, 1980; Iaffaldano & Muchinski, 1985; Petty, McGee, & Cavender, 1984), job satisfaction has become a widely accepted antecedent of OCB, suggesting that previous research may have been limited by its failure to adequately operationalize job performance (Organ, 1977).

The cognitive aspect of job satisfaction, or perceived fairness of workplace structures, functions and procedures, has also been examined in relation to OCB (e.g., Organ, 1988; Organ & Kovonsky, 1988). The assumption behind such investigations was that perceived unfairness would not necessarily result in a reduction in work performance defined as in-role (behaviours that are typically governed by organizational rewards and

sanctions), whereas extra-role behaviours (OCB) might be something directly affected by an employee's perception of workplace equity, as they are not, by definition, governed by the same reward-sanction system. In others words, when an employee perceives the working environment as unfair, his/her only option might be to withhold non-prescribed behaviours that would otherwise have benefited individual co-workers and the organization as a whole, and for which no punishment would ensue (or they may engage in behaviours that might directly harm both). As it is one of the main contentions of the present study that perceptions of the work environment may be correlated with OCB, a review of situational factors potentially influential on OCB is required. Accordingly, the following section presents the relevant theoretical considerations and empirical efforts directed at uncovering the relationships among workplace operations, perceived fairness, and OCB.

Organizational Antecedents

The assessment of the role of perceived fairness in workplace behaviour has typically focused on the perceived fairness of outcomes of decisions made by supervisors and organization heads (distributive justice), the procedures used when making such decisions (procedural justice), and the method by which the recipients of the decision outcomes are treated by decision makers (interactional justice). These aspects of perceived fairness fall under the rubric of *organization justice*, and represent three distinct categories therein (Eskew, 1993).

Researchers interested in the role of perceived fairness in predicting OCB have examined perceptions falling within the three categories for their potential influence on employee behaviour. Behaviour such as showing concern and offering feedback after a decision is made (Eskew, 1993), conducting performance evaluations, promotional processes, grievance procedures and compensation systems in an non-biased, ethical, consistent, and accurate way (Greenberg, 1986; Eskew, 1993), and offering the employee

a degree of control in organizational processes (Greenberg, 1987; Paese, Lind, & Kanfer, 1988) have all been linked to employee perceptions of fairness and OCB. Overall, empirical analyses have suggested that procedural and interactive justice may be the most important predictors of OCB (e.g., Aquino, 1995; Folger & Martin, 1986; Moorman, 1991).

Many OCB researchers have focused on the role of "trust in supervisor" when examining the perceived fairness-OCB association, with some suggesting a mediational role (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994), and others establishing an empirical link between trust-enhancing behaviours and OCB (e.g., Deluga, 1994; Deluga, 1995; Organ, 1988; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993), and between friendly, mutually trusting and supportive working relationships among leaders and members and OCB (Liden & Graen, 1980). According to the original theory of social exchange (Blau, 1964), trust is the necessary component of the social exchange relationship because, unlike the economic exchange relationship, in which behaviour is conducted according to circumscribed reward schedules, the social exchange relationship progresses over the long-term, and thus may involve periodic incongruities in contributions and benefits. Therefore, mutual trust in each party's contribution over the long-term is essential to the perpetuation of the exchange. Besides making intuitive sense that employees would reciprocate such treatment with extra-role behaviours, this and other similar findings (e.g., Manogran & Conlon, 1993), tend to support the argument that the reciprocal component of the social exchange is important in the prediction of OCB (Organ, 1988).

Researchers have attempted to incorporate a variety of other environmental variables potentially bearing on workplace behaviour into the OCB equation. Reward practices, both real and perceived (Schnake & Dumler, 1993), social cues (informal, spontaneous communications), direct modelling of citizenship behaviours as demonstrated by supervisors and co-workers (Schnake, 1991), work context (e.g., culture, task interdependence, shared norms, work unit homogeneity, and technology; Karambayya,

1990; Schnake et al., 1995), and non-monetary incentives, such as positive evaluations (Werner, 1994), as well as the mediating roles of work ethic, degree of self-monitoring, sensitivity to perceived inequity, and the needs for approval, achievement, and autonomy (Schnake, 1991), have all been suggested as influencing OCB. Of course the question arises as to whether or not behaviours performed in response to rewards, anticipated or otherwise, actually fall within the defining parameters of OCB. However, as Kemery et al., (1996) suggested, such factors are important when attempting to predict the likelihood of a behaviour occurring, and that the presence of rewards does not necessarily remove the discretionary aspect of OCB, in that the failure to engage in it is not sanctioned in this context; its performance is merely encouraged.

In summary, OCB has attracted much attention. Progress towards understanding the theoretical underpinnings of OCB and its antecedents has been perpetuated by the disparate conceptualizations of OCB offered by Organ and his colleagues on the one hand, (e.g., Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988; Organ & Konovsky: Smith et al., 1983) and Graham and hers on the other (e.g., Graham, 1991; Van Dyne et al., 1994). However, the multidimensional nature of the construct has contributed to a state of disjointed affairs in terms of the empirical data, the result of researchers drawing upon single (e.g., Kemery et al., 1996), double (e.g., Aquino, 1995), and multiple (e.g., Deluga, 1994) dimensions to represent dependent measures of OCB. Nonetheless, perceived fairness and trust in one's supervisor have been identified as integral to the performance of OCB, and a variety of other organizational and individual factors have been implicated in the relationship.

Considering the relative imbalance in the existing literature regarding the representation of both conceptualizations, and the desirability of including theoretically driven measures in empirical endeavours, the present study proposed an investigation of OCB based on Graham's (1991) conceptualization. Specifically, a portion of this study sought to investigate the relationship between police officers' appraisals of work

experiences (cognitive aspect of job satisfaction) and OCB. Having discussed the potentially influential effects of perceptions of workplace factors on OCB, and the existence of relationships between police work experiences appraised as either bothersome or uplifting and measures of psychological distress and well-being (e.g., Hart et al., 1993; 1994; 1995), the next consideration becomes the extent to which such appraisals might be related to OCB among police officers.

## OCB and the Police Working Environment

Although there have been no studies specifically examining the occurrence of OCB within police organizations, inferences based on existing studies involving other types of organizations might provide a starting point from which to address the question of interest.

### Potential Associations

It is clear from the reviewed literature that a wide variety of factors (both situational and personal) have been linked to OCB. To the extent that some of the situational factors might be present in the police work place, OCB might be expected to occur in that environment, or not, in accordance with theoretical and empirical suppositions. For example, organizational factors captured in the hassles portion of the PDHUS, such as "not receiving recognition for a job well done", "having no say in decisions that affect one directly", "not being able to speak one's mind", and "a lack of honesty from one's supervisor about one's work", can be construed as issues of organizational injustice, and might be linked to diminished OCB. Alternatively, beneficial organizational aspects depicted in the uplifts portion of the PDHUS, such as "honesty about work by superiors", "helpful supervision" "clarity of operational guidelines", and " having a say in decisions" might be expected to be associated with enhanced OCB.

Furthermore, the evidence linking the appraisal of *organizational* factors, more so than *operational* ones, to subjective evaluations of psychological distress and well-being (e.g., Hart et al, 1995) suggests a potential influence of such on subjective evaluations of the job as well. Given the latter's demonstrated association with the occurrence of OCB, the proposed link between perceived police organizational "hassles" and "uplifts" and diminished and enhanced OCB, respectively, seems all the more plausible.

Along another vein, the literature dealing with burnout among police officers, as reviewed in this paper, suggested that a variety of factors might potentially influence the experience of burnout. Although none of the studies specifically assessed the relationship between officers' appraisals of their daily work experiences, potentially stressful generic facets of the work environmental were shown to predict increased levels of burnout. To the extent that chronic exposure to work stressors are expected to influence individual well-being as denoted by high burnout scores, they might also be expected to be associated with diminished "organizational well-being", by undermining behaviours directed at organizational functionality (diminished OCB). Inasmuch as "organizational well-being" or efficiency can be enhanced by OCB, it seems conceivable that perceptions of work experiences might have important implications for organizational functionality. A corollary to this is that diminished individual functioning, as reflected in increased levels of burnout, might also be expected to diminish one's capacity and desire to engage in OCB.

There are several reasons for police organizations undergoing self-examination, and those interested in OCB in general, to examine the relationship between officers' perceptions of their work experiences and the performance of OCB. First, as paramilitary organizations with entrenched hierarchical structures, police organizations present an unique environment for empirical study. Second, it is possible that such structures, which overtly emphasize rank and privilege, obviate democratic processes, and rely on direct orders and legal sanctions to guarantee performance, may undermine the formation of covenantal or social exchange relationships, and inspire greater perceived procedural and

distributive injustice, and thus, low levels of OCB. Finally, in taxing economic times when "more must be done with less" and competition demands flexibility and innovation, efficient organizational functioning combined with limited expenditure is imperative. As enhanced OCB can be a considerable contributor to this goal, inquiries that can shed light on its antecedents are essential.

## Purpose

The purpose of the present inquiry was threefold. One purpose was to determine which facets of police work officers identify as distressing and which facets make them "feel good", and whether or not those facets differentially fall within the categories of *organizational* and *operational* work experiences. A second purpose was to determine the nature of the relationships among the perceptions of police work experiences, officer well-being as measured by burnout, and "organizational well-being" as measured by OCB. Finally in accordance with the recent emphasis on an integrated approach to the study of stress, a third purpose was to determine the moderating effects of coping style, and the personality characteristic *dispositional affect* on such relationships. The following section highlights the issues discussed throughout the paper relevant to these goals, and presents the hypotheses of the study.

## Summary and Hypotheses

The police stress literature has consistently asserted that, contrary to intuitive reasoning, the aspects of work identified by officers as most bothersome are those that fall within the *organizational* category, rather than the *operational* one. Such an assertion is based on the well-established, empirically demonstrated link between diminished levels of a variety of indices of well-being and organizational facets of police work. However, comparative analyses and interpretations of early research in this area were hampered by a lack of theoretical grounding. It was not until recent empirical efforts based on the

transactional theory of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) and the dynamic equilibrium theory (Headey & Wearing, 1989; 1992 ), that officers' appraisals of their day-to-day work experiences were considered within a theory-driven integrated person-environment framework.

With the development of the PDHUS, researchers (e.g., Hart et al., 1993; 1994; 1995) provided empirical evidence not only of the connection between negative perceptions of work experiences and subjective measures of psychological distress, but of the link between positive perceptions and well-being as well. Moreover, in accordance with previous findings, perceptions of organizational facets of police work were found to have the most bearing on well-being. Furthermore, some evidence of mediating effects of coping and personality factors were found.

Chronic exposure to work stress can culminate in burnout, a state of diminished well-being and functioning associated with both physical and psychological malaise and diminished work performance. It has most often been characterized by three subcomponents: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and diminished personal accomplishment. Demonstrated correlates have included a variety of individual factors (e.g., age, years working), and organizational characteristics (e.g., job context, role conflict, role ambiguity, role overload). Typically, burnout has been studied in the context of the helping professions, but more recently, a variety of people-oriented professions have been the subject of burnout investigations, including police work. Although studied among police populations as an index of diminished well-being, and examined for its relationship to a variety of personality (e.g., cynicism, authoritarianism, career orientation, career plateau) and generic situational factors (e.g., work setting, generic sources of stress), burnout has yet to be included in an empirical effort directed at the identification of the well-being correlates of chronic exposure to daily "hassles" and "uplifts" unique to the police working environment.

In addition to the potential impact on individual well-being, perceptions of work experiences have also been found to influence employee behaviour at work. Specifically, OCB, extra-role discretionary behaviour that contributes to overall organizational efficiency, has been found to be associated with perceptions of the work environment, particularly perceptions of procedural and interactional justice. Although a variety of other personal (e.g., job attitudes, dispositional affect) and situational factors (e.g., organizational values, supervisor qualities, support, type of supervisor-subordinate relationship) have been hypothesized as antecedent or mediating variables, perceived fairness has been the most consistently identified OCB correlate. However, disparate construct conceptualizations and operationalizations have detracted from interpretative consensus.

Recent adherence to a theoretically-grounded conceptualization of OCB, based on a political philosophy of responsible citizenship, has perpetuated a more inclusive view of OCB as a multidimensional construct composed of loyalty, obedience, and participation dimensions. However, no research has been devoted to the question of the links between perceptions of daily police work experiences and OCB. Nor has the potential relationship between individual well-being, as measured by burnout, and behaviour at work as measured by OCB, been addressed.

Based on the review of the relevant literatures as presented herein, three main a priori hypotheses were made. First, *organizational* factors were expected to be identified by police officers as being more bothersome than *operational* factors. Specifically, work experiences of an *organizational* nature, as itemized on the PDHS, were expected to be endorsed by officers as being significantly more bothersome relative to the items reflecting work experiences of an *operational* nature.

Second, those factors identified as being more stressful were predicted to be positively correlated with self-reported burnout, and negatively correlated with self-reported OCB. Furthermore, those factors identified as uplifting were predicted to be

negatively associated with self-reported burnout, and positively associated with self-reported OCB. Although this prediction appears to contend with the evidence supporting the hypothesized orthogonality of hassle-psychological distress and uplift-well-being relationships (e.g., McCrae & Costa, 1986; Headey & Wearing, 1992; Hart et al, 1993), it was in keeping with a conceptualization of burnout as a measure of work-related psychological distress and well-being, depending on reported levels. Additionally, burnout was expected to be negatively associated with OCB. Table 1 presents the expected significant associations.

Third, the hypothesized relationships were expected to be *moderated*, rather than *mediated*, by coping style and the personality variable, dispositional affect. The mediation-moderation question continues to plague the stress research area in that the terms are often conceptually and methodologically misunderstood (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988), and there is evidence to support both approaches. For example, trait negative affect has been found to have direct effects on measures of stress, and to potentially confound stressor-strain relationships (Moyle, 1995; Elliot, Chartrand, & Harkins, 1994). However, recently it has also been implicated as a moderating vulnerability factor in occupational stress, and suspected of being mediated by perceptions of the working environment (Moyle, 1995), and mediating the negative appraisal-psychological distress relationship (Costa & McCrae, 1990).

The present inquiry took a moderational approach based on the contention that personality characteristics, appraisals and coping do not actually cause the occurrence of the other, as is necessary for the existence of a mediational effect (Baron & Kenney, 1986). Rather, personality characteristics were seen as influencing the relationship by heightening an individual's proneness to a particular appraisal type and stress response, and coping styles were seen as existing within an individual's emotional and behavioural repetoir, having the potential to be activated or not by the appraisal of an event. Indeed , as Folkman and Lazarus (1988) pointed out, individuals use a variety of coping options to

deal with environmental encounters of all kinds. Underlying the conceptualization was the contention that chronic exposure to work stressors and uplifts have the potential to influence an officer's state of well-being, over and above personality and coping style (Hart et al., 1995). However, the role of such variables was acknowledged in that they were viewed as antecedent variables with the potential to interact with the appraisals (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988), thereby either strengthening or undermining the associations.

Specifically, "problem-focused" coping, often cited as adaptive coping (Billings & Moos, 1984; Hart et al., 1995; Headey & Wearing, 1992), was expected to significantly reduce the strength of the relationship between stressful work experiences and self-reported burnout, mitigate the negative association between stressful work experiences and OCB, and enhance any negative relationships between positive work experiences and burnout, as well as any positive ones involving OCB. Furthermore, the presence of high dispositional positive affect was expected to undermine the strength of relationships between work stress and burnout and OCB, respectively, and enhance the ones involving work uplifts and the same outcome measures. The presence of high negative dispositional affect was expected to moderate relationships in opposite directions.

## Method

### Participants

All police officers from the Thunder Bay Police Service (TBPS), the Northwest Region of the Ontario Provincial Police (OPP), and the Thunder Bay detachment of the Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP), were solicited to participate. Of the 593 police officers solicited, a total of 199 participated (33.5%). Of these, 170 were male, and 29 were female; 148 were married, 12 lived in common-law relationships, 21 were single, 15 were separated or divorced, and 1 was widowed. The mean age was 36.5 years, and the

mean number of years worked was 13.07 years. The officers in the sample had varied levels of experience and performed a variety of duties (124 patrol/investigative, 13 administrative, and 15 supervisory; an additional 40 performed a mixture of these duties, and another 7 fell into the category labeled 'other').

Measures

The variables of interest were operationalized by means of self-report measures and incorporated into a questionnaire. The questionnaire asked officers to indicate their age, sex, marital status, years of service, and type of police work (Appendix A). It also included the following measures of appraisals of work experiences, burnout, OCB, method of coping, dispositional affect, and social desirability.

Police work experiences. The Police Daily Hassles (PDHS; Appendices B and C) and Uplifts (PDUS; Appendices D and E) Scales (Hart et al., 1993, 1994) was used to measure appraisals of negative (e.g., "giving bad news", "going to a dangerous call", "being told what to do by others") and positive (e.g., "helping the public", "getting a good result at court", "working with people who know what they are doing") work experiences encountered by police officers on a day-to-day basis. The PDHS measures 19 dimensions of negative work experiences, whereas the PDUS measures 12 dimensions of positive work experiences. Positive and negative work experiences, as measured by the PDHUS, have been found to be two distinct concepts, rather than a unitary bipolar dimension, with hassles correlating with diminished well-being and negative personality factors (e.g., neuroticism), independent of uplifts, which tend to correlate with well-being and more positive personality factors (e.g., extraversion; Hart et al., 1993; 1994; 1995).

Second-order factor analyses have demonstrated that all 31 dimensions can be grouped into two global domains reflecting *operational* and *organizational* work experiences. *Organizational* experiences (both hassles and uplifts) are defined as those stemming from the day-to-day routine of police organizations, and are similar to the

experiences of workers in other types of organizations (e.g., "honesty about my work by supervisors", "clarity of operational guidelines", "unfair promotional policies"). *Operational* experiences are defined as work experiences specific to police officers, and result from the tasks that are undertaken only by those working as officers within a police environment. (e.g., "dealing with domestics", " taking an accident report", "having to make a forcible arrest"; Hart et al., 1993). Internal consistency of the PDHUS has been reported in terms of coefficient alphas ranging from .77 to .93 for the hassles dimensions, and between .52 and .92 for the uplifts dimension, and preliminary studies (e.g., Hart et al., 1994; 1995) have supported the scales' construct validity. The PDHS contains a list of 86 work experiences and respondents were asked to indicate the degree to which each experience had hassled or bothered them as a result of police work during the past month according to a five-point Likert scale ranging from "0" (Definitely does not apply to me) to "4" (Strongly applies to me). The PDUS contains a list of 50 work experiences and respondents were asked to indicate the degree to which each experience had made them "feel good" as a result of police work during the past month according to the same five-point scale.

Burnout. Burnout was measured using the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson, 1986; Appendix F). The MBI is a scale designed to measure the three aspects of the burnout syndrome: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and lack of personal accomplishment, with each aspect being measured by a separate subscale. The *Emotional Exhaustion* subscale (nine items) measures feelings of being emotionally overextended and exhausted by one's work (e.g., "I feel emotionally drained from my work", "I feel that I'm working too hard on my job"). The *Depersonalization* subscale (five items) assesses an unfeeling and impersonal response toward recipients of one's service (e.g., "I don't really care what happens to some citizens", "I've become more callous toward people since I took this job"). The *Diminished Personal Accomplishment* subscale (eight items) measures feelings of competence and successful achievement in

one's work with people (e.g., "I feel that I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work", "I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job"). A high degree of burnout is reflected in high scores on the Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization subscales, and low scores on the Personal Accomplishment subscale, with high and low scores being considered so, if they fall in the upper third and lower third of the normative distribution, respectively.

The MBI is the most widely accepted measure of burnout (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993) and is supported by such favourable psychometric properties as good internal consistency (alphas = .90, .79, and .71, respectively) and test-retest reliability (.82, .60, and .80, respectively) for each subscale. Convergent validity has been demonstrated in comparisons of self-reports of burnout using the MBI to outside observer evaluations (e.g., Jackson & Maslach, 1982; Maslach & Jackson, 1986), dimensions of job experiences (e.g., Maslach & Jackson, 1984), and personal outcome measures (e.g., Jackson, & Maslach, 1982). Discriminant validity has been demonstrated in low correlations between MBI scores and potential confounds, such as measures of job satisfaction (e.g., Maslach & Jackson, 1986; Riggar, Godley, & Hafer, 1984), and social desirability (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). Respondents were asked to read each of the 22 items and indicate the frequency with which they experienced each statement according to a seven-point anchored scale ranging from "0" (never) to "6" (every day). As frequency measures have been found to strongly correlate with intensity measures (Maslach & Jackson, 1986), the standard procedure is for responses on the frequency dimension alone to be recorded.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour. OCB was assessed using The OCB Scale (OCBS; Van Dyne et al., 1994; Appendix G). The OCBS was designed to measure OCB according to a conceptualization based on a political philosophy of responsible citizenship. Its 34 items are a series of statements depicting the three dimensions of the construct: *obedience* (e.g., "rarely wastes time while at work", "always comes to work on

time", "follows work rules and instructions with extreme care"; alpha = .88), *loyalty* (e.g., "represents organization favourably to outsiders", "actively promotes organization's products and services", "would accept job at competing organizations for more money"; alpha = .84), and *participation* (e.g., "has difficulty co-operating with others on projects", "uses professional judgement to assess right/wrong for the organization", "does not pursue additional training to improve performance"; alpha = .76). High internal consistency was also reported for the entire scale (alpha = .95; Van Dyne et al., 1994). Preliminary analyses have suggested good temporal stability over a four-week period for the subscales (.81, .88, .80, respectively) and the entire scale (.92), and provided strong support for the scale's construct validity (Van Dyne et al., 1994). Respondents were asked to read each statement and indicate the extent to which the statements applied to them according to a seven-point continuum ranging from "1" (never true for me) to "7" (always true for me). Approximately half of the items are reverse-coded to avoid response bias.

Coping. Coping was assessed using the Revised Ways of Coping Checklist (WCCL; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985; Appendix H). It describes a wide range of cognitive and behavioural strategies that individuals use to manage internal and external demands during a stressful situation. Factor analyses (Folkman et al., 1986) have revealed that the checklist encompasses eight subscales of coping-types: *Confrontive Coping* (e.g., "stood my ground and fought for what I wanted", "tried to get the person responsible to change his or her mind", " I expressed anger to the person(s) who caused the problem"; alpha = .70), *Distancing* (e.g., "went on as if nothing had happened", "didn't let it get to me-refused to think about it too much", "tried to forget the whole thing"; alpha = .61), *Self-Control* (e.g., "I tried to keep my feelings to myself", "kept others from knowing how bad things were", "tried not to burn my bridges, but leave things open somewhat"; alpha = .70), *Seeking Social Support* (e.g., "talked to someone who could do something concrete about the problem", "accepted sympathy and understanding from someone"; alpha = .76), *Accepting Responsibility* (e.g., "criticized or lectured myself", "realized that I brought the

problem on myself"," I apologized or did something to make it up"; alpha = .66), *Escape-Avoidance* (e.g., "wished that the situation would go away or somehow be over with", "tried to make myself feel better by eating, drinking, smoking, using drugs or medications etc.", "avoided being with people in general"; alpha = .72), *Planful Problem-Solving* (e.g., "I knew what had to be done, so I doubled my efforts to make things work", "I made a plan of action and followed it", "came up with a couple of different solutions to the problem"; alpha = .68), and *Positive Reappraisal* (e.g., "changed or grew as a person in a good way", "I came out of the experience better than when I went it", "found new faith"; alpha = .79).

The subscales have been dichotomized into two provisional and general types of functional coping, with Confrontive Coping and Planful Problem-Solving falling into the *problem-focused* category, and Distancing, Self-Control, Accepting Responsibility, and Positive Reappraisal falling within the *emotion-focused* category. Seeking Social Support could fall into both (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). However, it has been suggested that either type of general coping style can serve to regulate emotions or problem-solve, depending upon the psychological context in which it is used. Therefore, any act or thought can have more than one coping function (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988).

Typically, a structured protocol is used to help respondents reconstruct a recently (i.e., in the past month) experienced stressful or emotional encounter. Respondents are then asked to rate the extent to which they used each of the 66 strategies provided by the WCCL according to a four-point Likert scale where "0" represents "Not Used", and "3" represents "Used a great deal". In order to ensure the assessment of coping strategies used among police officers in *work-related* encounters, respondents in the present study were asked to think about a *work-related* situation that bothered them, or that they felt was stressful, and rate the extent to which they used the coping strategies at work according to the same Likert scale.

Positive and negative affect. Positive and negative affect are opposite-sounding constructs that are relatively independent and display distinctive correlations with other variables (Watson, Clark & Carey, 1988; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). High positive affect is associated with zest for life, pleasurable engagement, excitement, social activity, and extraversion, whereas low positive affect is associated with feeling sluggish, drowsy, fatigued, lethargic, and sometimes lonely. In contrast, high negative affect is a dimension of subjective distress that is associated with feeling upset, aversively aroused, nervous, guilty, and tense, whereas low negative affect is associated with feeling peaceful and relaxed. In the present study these variables were measured by the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson et al., 1988; Appendix I), which is a list of 20 adjectives (ten for each subscale). The scales display high internal consistency, high test-retest reliability over a two-month period, low intercorrelations (-.12 to -.23) and significant correlations with theoretically relevant variables (Watson, et al., 1988).

Although the scale has been used as a measure of mood state (i.e., subjects are asked to indicate the extent to which they have felt that way over the past 24 hours), it has also been used as a measure of dispositional affect, in which subjects are asked to indicate the extent to which they have felt that way over the past three to four months. In the present study, it was used to measure the latter. However, in an effort to avoid confusion between temporary mood state and disposition, and ensure the adequate assessment of affect in a dispositional sense, subjects were asked to read each adjective and indicate the extent to which they felt that way *generally* ( i.e., the extent to which the adjective is descriptive of them as a person). Responses were provided on seven-point scales ranging from "1" (very little) to "7" (very much).

Social desirability. As participants were asked to provide a large amount of personal information concerning their personality, well-being, and behaviour directed at their organization, the potential for socially desirable responding, along both attributional (the tendency to attribute socially desirable but improbable statements to oneself) and

denial-type (the tendency to deny socially undesirable, but probable statements about oneself) lines seemed likely (Fischer & Fick, 1993). In order to assess the extent to which such responding might confound scale scores, a shortened-version of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (SDS; Crowne & Marlowe, 1960) was included in the questionnaire (Appendix J). The shortened version, proposed by Strahan and Gerbasi (1972) is a ten-item true-false scale that, like the original, describes culturally approved behaviours with a low probability of occurrence. This version has been shown to have high internal consistency and be highly correlated with the standard 33-item original scale, relative to other short-form versions. Furthermore, it has been found to represent an improvement in fit over the original and other short-form versions as measured by "goodness of fit" indices (Fischer & Fick, 1993). Respondents were asked to read each of the ten statements (items) and indicate the extent to which each was true or false for them, by placing a "T" of "F", respectively, beside each statement.

## Procedure

The questionnaires were disseminated to the various police agencies and placed in each member's personal diary slot along with an envelope and a cover letter that provided instructions explaining the procedures used to ensure anonymity and confidentiality (Appendix K). The letter also stated that participation was voluntary. Participants were asked to seal their completed questionnaire in the envelopes provided and place them in a large envelope or container that was situated at a central location within their respective stations. These larger envelopes were then forwarded by mail (in the case of outlying detachments), or picked up personally.

## Data Reduction and Analyses

Descriptive analyses. The data analyses involved 16 variables: six measures of work appraisal, six outcome measures, and four measures of individual characteristics.

Prior to analyses, outliers, or extreme scores, on each measure were removed from the data in order to protect against the spurious effects of extreme scores. Specifically, scores more than three standard deviations above or below the mean were declared as missing values and not included in analyses. Table 2 depicts the ranges for the affected scales and the number of extreme scores removed from each. The resulting means and standard deviations, as well as the scale reliabilities are reported in Table 3.

Comparative analyses. Comparative analyses involved assessing differences in the degree to which officers identified two types of work experiences as being bothersome and uplifting. Appraisals of work experiences yielded 6 measures, *total hassles, organizational hassles, operational hassles, total uplifts, organizational uplifts,* and *operational uplifts*. Items with low item-total correlations, defined by a criterion of .40, were removed from the respective scale scores. In all, 19 items were removed, three from the *organizational* hassles scale, 11 from the *operational* hassles scale, three from the *organizational* uplifts scale, and two from the *operational* uplifts scale. Table 4 presents the items that were removed. New means were then calculated for subgroups of officers (e.g., patrol, supervisory, and administrative), as well as for the entire sample. Paired t-tests were used to compare the degree of differences in appraisals of work experiences as stressful and uplifting, using a significance level of .01 to guard against potential Type I errors.

Bivariate analyses. Bivariate analyses involved assessing the predicted relationships among appraisals of work experiences, outcome measures, and individual characteristics (See Table 1) by determining zero-order Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients. Table 6 presents the resulting correlational matrix. Again, a significance level of .01 was used in order to minimize potential Type I errors that might result from the large number of correlations tested. Significant differences among correlations were tested by means of a dependent correlation difference test (Cohen & Cohen, 1983).

Burnout and OCB were the two outcome variables. Each was represented by three separate measures (*emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment*, and *obedience, loyalty, participation*, respectively) rather than total scores, in accordance with the respective authors' instructions (Maslach & Jackson, 1986; Van Dyne et al., 1994). Dispositional affect and coping style represented the individual characteristics.

A measure of social desirability responding was included in order to determine the degree to which officers tended to engage in this response style. The mean level of social desirability responding was 6.08 on a scale of one to 10, and zero-order correlations ranged from $r = .02$ to $r = .38$, the average being $r = .16$. Of the 24 correlations, six, or 25% were significant, and 18, or 75% were not significant. Specifically, significant zero-order correlations were found between social desirability scores and obedience ($r = .29$), emotional exhaustion ($r = -.19$), depersonalization ($r = -.35$), problem-focused coping ($r = -.21$), confrontive coping ($r = -.35$), and escape coping ($r = -.38$). All correlations are depicted in Table 7. The small number of significant correlations, and their relatively small magnitude suggested a minimal likelihood that substantial social desirability response style variance was intruding in self-reported outcome and individual characteristic responses. Therefore, adjustments for this type of responding in subsequent analyses were deemed unnecessary.

Regression Analysis. Hierarchical regression analysis was employed to test the potential moderating effects of the individual characteristic variables. In this procedure, predictors and moderator variables are entered into the regression equation. An interaction is said to occur when a significant incremental change in $R^2$ results from entering the cross-product of the predictor and moderator into the equation. In the present study, the extent to which a particular moderator variable was in fact moderating the relationship in question was then determined by examining the strength of the original relationship at different levels of the moderator variable (e.g., low, average, high). The

levels of the moderator were represented by the mean of the moderator variable, and one standard deviation below and above the mean to reflect average, low, and high levels, respectively. These were then plotted for minimum and maximum levels of the predictor variable (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Table 8 depicts the variables involved in the regression analyses, as well as the relevant bivariate association (main effect), and any significant interaction effect (partial correlation). Figures 1 to 13 demonstrate the extent and direction of the interactions.

Supplementary subgroup analyses. Subgroup analyses involved assessing sex, marital status, job experience, and age differences in levels of appraisal and outcome measures. One-way anovas were used to compare differences between male and female officers, and between married (included common-law) and single (included separated and divorced) officers. Zero-order Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were generated to determine the existence of relationships among the variables according to subgroup categories. The relationship between years experience and appraisal and outcome measures, respectively, was further examined for the presence of a curvilinear pattern. Officers were dividing into four groups according to theoretical categories of stress perception and reaction (e.g., Burke, 1989b; Cooper, 1982; Violanti, 1983; one to 5 years, 6 to 15 years, 16-20 years, and more than 20 years), and compared by means of one-way anovas for differences in appraisal and outcome measure differences.

For all categories of analyses, only significant findings are reported, unless otherwise specified.

## Results

### Appraisals of Work Experiences

Potentially negative *organizational* work experiences were predicted to be appraised by officers as being more bothersome or stressful than similar *operational* ones. Table 5 (a) and (b) presents the results of paired t-tests that were used to compare mean scores of officers' evaluations of their work experiences (hassles and uplifts). The analyses failed to substantiate the prediction, revealing instead a higher mean score for *operational* experiences relative to *organizational* ones ($t$ (167) = 2.52). However, the removal from the analyses of items with low item-total correlations (Table 4) nullified this difference.

When the comparison involved the degree to which both types of potentially negative aspects of work were evaluated as being bothersome by groups of officers from specific areas of police work, diverse findings emerged. Mean scores for patrol officers were higher for *operational* hassles compared to *organizational* ones ($t$ (105) = 3.07), whereas for supervisors and administrators, the reverse was true ($t$ (23) = -2.34 and $t$ (24) = -3.46, respectively). Although differences in the assessment of potentially uplifting work experiences were not predicted, exploratory analyses revealed that mean scores on the PDUS were higher for potentially uplifting *organizational* work experiences compared to corresponding *operational* ones ($t$ (167) = -9.27). This significant difference held when items with low item-total correlations were removed ($t$ (171) = -9.17), and when the various subgroups were examined individually (for patrol officers, $t$ = (103) -5.24; for supervisors, $t$ (25) = -8.09; for administrators, $t$ (23) = -6.96).

### Bivariate Analyses

Work experiences and burnout. Appraisals of work experiences as stressful (hassles) were predicted to be positively associated with burnout. The prediction was confirmed (See Table 6) for emotional exhaustion and depersonalization ($rs$ = .42, .42 and

.29, respectively; $r_s$ = .45, .45 and .34, respectively), but not for personal accomplishment. The correlation between *organizational* hassles and emotional exhaustion ($r$ =.42) was greater than the one between *operational* hassles and emotional exhaustion ($r$ = .29; $t$ (168) = 2.08, $p$ <.05), and the correlation between *organizational* hassles and depersonalization ($r$ = .45) was greater than the one between *operational* hassles and depersonalization ($r$ = .34; $t$ (169) = 1.81, $p$ < .05).

Associations were also expected between positive appraisals of work experiences (uplifts) and the three burnout subcomponents. Results failed to confirm the predictions regarding separate measures of work uplifts (*organizational* and *operational*) and emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, but positive associations between all work uplifts (*total, organizational,* and *operational*) and personal accomplishment were found ($r_s$ = .18, .32 and .21, respectively). Additionally, *total* work uplifts were negatively associated with emotional exhaustion ($r$ = -.23). The correlation between *organizational* uplifts and personal accomplishment ($r$ = .32) did not differ from the one between *operational* uplifts and the same burnout component.

Work experiences and OCB. Negative correlations were expected between work hassles and all three OCB subcomponents. However, the predicted relationships failed to materialize, with two exceptions: Negative associations were found between *total* and *organizational* work hassles, and the loyalty subcomponent ($r_s$ = -.28 and -.31, respectively), and a negative association was found between *operational* hassles and participation ($r$ = .20). Positive associations were expected between work uplifts and all three subcomponents of OCB. Although the analyses failed to confirm this prediction for relationships involving *operational* uplifts, they did substantiate predictions involving the *composite* measure of work uplifts and the *organizational* one. That is, positive correlations were found between *total* work uplifts, as well as *organizational* ones, and obedience ($r_s$ = .28 and .31, respectively), loyalty ($r$ = .27 and .30, respectively), and participation ($r_s$ = .29 and .40, respectively).

Burnout and OCB. As shown in Table 6, the expected negative association between burnout and OCB was evidenced in all aspects of each measure.

Coping and individual differences. Table 6 also depicts the associations among individual characteristics, and appraisal and outcome measures, respectively. A comparison between its contents and the predicted associations found in Table 1 highlights a number of confirmed expectations (i.e., 59 of 98, or 60% of predicted associations were confirmed).

## Moderated Relationships

### Dispositional affect

Work hassles and burnout. Positive dispositional affect was expected to undermine the strength of any significant associations between work hassles and burnout components (See Table 6). However, only the main effects of *organizational* hassles on depersonalization ($R^2$ =.222, $F$ (2, 166) = 23.70, $p < .001$) were marginally moderated by positive affect ($R^2$ change = .017, $p = .0564$). As shown in Figure 1, contrary to expectations, individuals who had the greatest degree of positive affect showed the greatest increase in feelings of depersonalization as *organizational* hassles increased, relative to individuals with more moderate and low levels of positive affect. Although dispositional negative affect was expected to moderate the above relationships by enhancing the positive associations between work hassles and the burnout components, regression analyses failed to confirm such expectations.

Work hassles and OCB. Dispositional affect was expected to moderate the negative relationships between work hassles and OCB components. Table 6 shows that this involved only the loyalty and participation components. Again, regression analyses failed to depict any moderating effects of either type of dispositional affect.

Work uplifts and burnout. Positive affect was expected to enhance the associations between work uplifts and the burnout subcomponents. Table 6 shows

correlations between *total* work uplifts and emotional exhaustion, and between all three measures of work uplifts and personal accomplishment. However, none of the associations were moderated by positive affect. Negative affect was expected to reduce the strength of the above associations. Only the main effects of *total* and *organizational* uplifts on personal accomplishment ($R^2$ = .125, $F$ (2, 157) = 11.23, $p$ < .001; $R^2$ = .121, $F$ (2, 160) = 11.06, $p$ < .001, respectively) were moderated by trait negative affect ($R^2$ change = .022, $p$ < .05; $R^2$ change = .020, $p$ = .0554, respectively), with the latter being only marginally significant. Figures 2 and 3, respectively, depict that, contrary to expectations, higher levels of trait negative affect, relative to lower levels, were associated with greater increases in personal accomplishment, as *total* work uplifts increased, and marginally associated with greater increases in such, as *organizational* work uplifts increased.

Work uplifts and OCB. Positive affect was expected to enhance associations between work uplifts and OCB components. Table 6 depicts significant positive associations between both *total* and *organizational* work uplifts and all three OCB components. Only the main effects of *total* uplifts on obedience ($R^2$ = .119, $F$ (2, 156) = 10.53, $p$ < .001) were moderated by trait positive affect ($R^2$ change = .022, $p$ < .05). As shown in Figure 4, according to expectations, high levels of positive affect, relative to lower levels, were associated with greater increases in obedience to the organization, as *total* work uplifts increased. Although negative affect was expected to reduce the strength of the above associations, no moderating effects were found.

## Coping

Work hassles and burnout. Problem-focused coping was expected to reduce the strength of the associations between work hassles and the burnout subcomponents. As described, these included *total*, *operational*, and *organization* work hassles and emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, respectively. Only the main effects of *organizational*

work hassles on emotional exhaustion ($R^2$ = .195, $F$ (2, 160) = 19.34, $p$ < .001) and depersonalization ($R^2$ = .203, $F$ (2, 161) = 20.46, $p$ < .001) were moderated, marginally so in the first case, by problem-focused coping ($R^2$ change = .018, $p$ = .06; $R^2$ change = .030, $p$ =.01, respectively). As expected, high levels of problem-focused coping were associated with less of an increase in emotional exhaustion (Figure 5) and depersonalization (Figure 6) relative to lower levels of problem-focused coping, as *organizational* hassles increased.

Exploratory analyses revealed that emotion-focused coping was also a moderating variable in that the main effects of *organizational* work hassles on emotional exhaustion ($R^2$ = .175, $F$ (2, 157) = 16.65, $p$ < .001), and depersonalization ($R^2$ = .195, $F$ (2, 158) = 19.08, $p$ < .001), were moderated by emotion-focused coping ($R^2$ change = .032, $p$ =.01; $R^2$ change = .016, $p$ = .08, respectively), with the latter showing only a trend toward significance. Figures 7 and 8, respectively, depict that high levels of emotion-focused coping were associated with less of an increase in emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, relative to low levels, as *organizational* hassles increased.

Work hassles and OCB. Problem-focused coping was expected to reduce the strength of relationships between work hassles and OCB components. As shown in Table 6, *total* and *organizational* work hassles were negatively associated with loyalty, and *operational* hassles were similarly linked to participation. The main effects of *organizational* hassles on loyalty ($R^2$ = .137, $F$ (2, 160) = 12.67, $p$ < .001), and those of *operational* hassles on participation ($R^2$ = .155, $F$ (2, 162) = 14.81, $p$ < .001) were moderated by problem focused coping ($R^2$ change = .049, $p$ = .002; $R^2$ change = .029, $p$ = .017, respectively). Figure 9 shows that, as expected, problem-focused coping reduced the negative association between *organizational* hassles and loyalty, with lower levels of problem-focused coping being associated with greater declines in loyalty, as *organizational* hassles increased. Alternatively, Figure 10 shows that, contrary to expectations, high levels of problem-focused coping, relative to moderate and lower levels, were associated with greater decreases in participation as *operational* hassles increased.

Exploratory analyses supported the moderating role of emotion-focused coping in work hassle-OCB associations. The main effects of both *total* and *organizational* hassles on loyalty ($R^2$ = .160, $F$ (2, 151) = 14.34, $p$ < .001; $R^2$ = .167, $F$ (2, 157) = 15.76, $p$ < .001, respectively), were moderated by emotion-focused coping ($R^2$ change = .031, $p$ = .018; and $R^2$ change = .091, $p$ < .001, respectively), as were the main effects of *operational* hassles on participation ($R^2$ = .129, $F$ (2, 159) = 11.78, $p$ < .001; $R^2$ change = .060, $p$ .001). As shown in Figures 11 and 12, emotion-focused coping, like problem-focused coping, reduced the strength of the negative association between both types of work hassles and loyalty. Figure 13 shows that emotion-focused coping enhanced the negative association between *operational* hassles and participation.

Work uplifts and burnout. Problem-focused coping was expected to strengthen relationships between work uplifts and the burnout subcomponents. As emotional exhaustion was associated with *total* uplifts, and personal accomplishment was associated with *total*, *operational*, and *organizational* uplifts, moderating effects were only examined in relation to these associations. However, no evidence of moderating effects of problem-focused coping was found. Similarly, emotion-focused coping did not moderate any work uplift-burnout relationship.

Work uplifts and OCB. Problem-focused coping was expected to strengthen relationships between work uplifts and the OCB components. Table 6 shows that these included *total* and *organizational* uplifts and all three components. None of the associations were moderated by either problem-focused or emotion-focused coping.

## Supplementary Subgroup Analyses

Sex and marital status. Exploratory comparative analyses directed at determining any differences between male and female officers, and between married and single officers in levels of the outcome measures, revealed no differences with one exception: Male

officers described themselves as being more participatory in the organization than female officers ($F(1, 190) = 12.89$, $p < .001$).

The results of correlational analyses revealed that whole sample findings generally held when analyzed for male officers. However, except for relatively strong correlations between *total* and *organizational* work uplifts and positive affect ($rs = .68$ and $.71$), and between *operational* uplifts and personal accomplishment ($r = .58$), analyses using just female officers did not demonstrate the relationships found in whole sample and male officer only analyses. Furthermore, anomalous positive associations between *total* and *operational* hassles and loyalty ($rs = .58$ and $.54$) and between the *operational* hassles and problem-focused coping ($r = .63$), were found. Interestingly, where a negative association between *operational* hassles and loyalty was found for male officers ($r = -.28$), a positive association was found for female officers.

Similarly, whereas analyses using married officers yielded findings consistent with those found using the entire sample and male officers only, analyses using just single officers resulted in different findings. Specifically, except for positive associations between *total* and *organizational* uplifts and positive affect ($rs = .50$ and $.51$), between *total*, *operational*, and *organizational* hassles and negative affect ($rs = .60$ $.48$, and $.57$), and between *total uplifts* and obedience ($r = .26$) and between *organizational* hassles and emotional exhaustion and depersonalization ($rs = .51$ and $.49$) no associations were found among appraisals of work experiences and outcome measures.

Years of work experience and age. Correlational analyses conducted to explore potential differences in relationships according to years of work experience and age revealed a negative correlation between years of job experience and *operational* uplifts ($r = -.29$), and a positive association between years of experience and the OCB subcomponent *participation* ($r = .30$). The same two variables were also associated with age ($rs = -.32$ and $.25$, respectively). The associations involving years experience remained when analyzed for male officers only ($rs = -.30$ and $.27$, respectively), and

married officers only ($r_s$ = -.27 and .31, respectively), as did the ones involving age when just male officers (-.34 and .24, respectively), and married officers were included ($r$ = -.34 and .27, respectively). Only the association between years of experience and *operational* uplifts remained when non-married officers (single, separated, and divorced) were included in the analysis ($r$ = .-47), and none of the associations persisted when only female officers were included.

Comparative analyses among groups of officers with varying years of experience was aimed at testing for the presence of the curvilinear pattern of perceived stress and psychological distress among police officers espoused by various researchers (e.g., Burke, 1989b; Cooper, 1982; Violanti, 1983). The only difference among the groups was found for *organizational* uplifts ($F$ (3, 44) = 5.43, $p < .01$): Officers between one and five years ($M$ = 129.75), and between six and 15 years service ($M$ = 132.67) identified more *organizational* uplifts than officers between 16 and 20 years service ($M$ = 113.78), and those with more than 20 years service ($M$ = 125.57), with no differences being found between the latter two groups, and the first two groups (Student-Newman-Keuls, $p <$ .05).

## Discussion

Several main conclusions may be drawn from the results. First, comparative analyses revealed that patrol officers identified *operational* hassles as being more stressful, whereas supervisors and administrators identified *organizational* hassles as being more stressful. All officers identified *organizational* uplifts as being more uplifting than *operational* ones.

Second, correlational analyses showed that *operational* and *organizational* hassles were positively correlated with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization (burnout), with the strength of the covariation being greater for *organizational* hassles. Both types

of uplifts were similarly positively associated with personal accomplishment (diminished burnout). Furthermore, the composite measure of work uplifts was negatively correlated with burnout as reflected in lower emotional exhaustion and higher personal accomplishment scores, and all work uplift measures were positively associated with personal accomplishment. *Organizational* rather than *operational* hassles and uplifts were linked to OCB, with increased hassles negatively covarying with loyalty, and increased uplifts positively covarying with all three OCB subcomponents. A negative association between burnout and OCB was evidenced with respect to all subcomponents of each measure.

Third, regression analyses demonstrated that several work hassle-burnout associations were moderated by dispositional positive affect and coping style. Specifically, contrary to expectations, officers high in positive affect showed greater increases in depersonalization as *organizational* hassles increased, and officers who engaged in both problem-focused and emotion-focused coping showed lesser increases in emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Work hassle-OCB associations were moderated only by coping style, with officers who were less inclined to engage in problem-focused coping showing the greatest declines in loyalty as *organizational* hassles increased, and those inclined to engage in emotion-focused coping showing similar declines in the face of increasing *total*, and *organizational* hassles. Contrary to expectations, officers more inclined to engage in either coping style showed greater declines in participation as *operational* hassles increased. Only dispositional negative affect moderated work uplift-burnout associations, with officers high in negative affect showing, contrary to expectations, greater increases in self-reported personal accomplishment as *total* and *organizational* uplifts increased. With respect to the work uplift-OCB associations, the only moderating variable was dispositional positive affect, with officers high in positive affect showing greater increases in obedience as *total* work uplifts increased. The following paragraphs offer an explanatory elaboration on each set of findings.

Work Experiences

Based on previous findings supporting the greater deleterious effects of *organizational* stressors (Band & Manuelle, 1987; Brown & Campbell, 1990; Hart et al., 1993; 1994; 1995), and the recommended emphasis on chronic exposure to daily stressors, rather than on the experience of infrequent but traumatic changes in the environment (e.g., Hart et al., 1993; 1994; 1995; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), police officers in the present sample were asked to appraise their daily work experiences with the expectation that *organizational* aspects would be assessed as being more stressful than *operational* ones. On the surface, the present findings do not appear to support the expectations, showing instead that officers appraised the *operational* aspects of their job as being more stressful. However, with the removal of items with low item-total correlations, any differences in appraisals disappeared. Furthermore, by analyzing the appraisals of officers involved in different types of work, negative appraisals of potentially bothersome aspects of work appeared to depend on the type of work in which one was engaged. Patrol officers, involved in daily patrol and investigation, identified *operational* aspects as being more stressful, whereas supervisors and administrators, primarily involved in the functioning of the organization, reported *organizational* aspects to be the most stressful.

In light of the fact that officers were asked to indicate the degree to which each potentially negative aspect of work "*applied to them in the last month as a result of doing police work*", the different findings based on work type do not seem surprising. One interpretation of the instructions might have led officers to report the extent to which an item was stressful, whereas another might have led them to report that the item did not apply to them simply by virtue of the fact that the type of work in which they were engaged did not expose them to that potential stressor. A response of *"doesn't apply to me"* could mean that the item did not bother them, or that they were not exposed to that

particular aspect of police work. Thus, it is possible that the potentially confounding effects of frequency with which an action was performed obscured a valid assessment of work experience appraisal. Hart et al. (1995) alluded to this when they described the appraisal of operational experiences as "a more objective variable reflecting police officers' involvement in the actual tasks they undertake", and suggested that "the more engaged or involved police officers become in *operational* work, the more they will experience operational hassles or uplifts" (p.146). This might also be extended to *organizational* hassles, although to a lesser extent, for it is more likely that all officers encounter organizational hassles to one degree or another. A simple rewording of the instructions so that officers could indicate the degree to which an item was stressful, whether they currently performed the action or not, could alleviate this problem.

One of the advantages of the PDHUS is that it allows for the assessment of uplifting work experiences. According to Hart et al. (1995), previous research (e.g., Band & Manuelle,1987; Brown & Campbell, 1990) typically ignored the fact that work experiences could be appraised as uplifting as well stressful, and that such could be associated with enhanced well-being. Although no predictions were made concerning the degree to which officers might differentially appraise potentially uplifting work experiences, the present findings showed that, regardless of specific type of police work, officers consistently appraised potentially uplifting *organizational* experiences as being more uplifting than *operational* ones. Barring the confounding effects of frequency discussed above, such consistency might be construed as evidence of a greater potential impact of *organizational* job components on officers' positive appraisals of their job, as well as their individual sense of well-being.

An examination of the items removed from the comparative analysis because of low item-total correlations (Table 4) suggests that some categorization refinement of the PDHUS may still be necessary. For example, *organizational* hassle items pertaining to the inconveniences of shift work to eating, high perceived work demands, and difficulties

dealing with members of the public were not found to relate well with other *organizational* hassles. This might be explained by the fact that such things may have less to do with perceived procedural and interactional justice issues than to the inherent nature of a job that requires an employee to deal effectively and efficiently with a seemingly endless stream of citizen-related problems, according to a 24-hour schedule in which little attention is paid to the inconveniences it imposes on daily living. Similarly, potential uplifts such as "days off", "having sufficient time with the family", and "outside support from spouse, partner or friend" may have more to do with others' perceptions and the impact of work on external aspects of an employee's life, than to *operational* or *organizational* functioning per se.

Items such as "studying", "exams", and "equipment failure" may have shown a poor association because of limited applicability to a large number of officers, while other items, such as "achieving a heavy workload" may have been poorly understood because of an ambiguous nature. Finally, the *operational* uplift "charging someone" may have had a weak relationship because of its potential to reflect an appraisal conflict. That is, although an officer might receive satisfaction as a result of charging someone, in that he/she solved an investigation, achieved a sense of justice, and brought satisfaction to the victim, such satisfaction might not necessarily be described as uplifting. It may coincide with an appreciation of the impact of the act of charging, and a sense of disgust, sadness, or anger that the incident occurred in the first place. Further use of the PDHUS would help substantiate these speculations and identify similar item ambiguities and categorization discrepancies to produce a more reliable and valid measure of police work experience appraisal.

## Relationships Among Work Experiences, Burnout, and OCB

Work experiences and burnout. Although several studies have addressed burnout among police officers, (e.g., Burke, 1993a; 1993b; Burke & Deszca, 1986; Burke &

Kirchmeyer, 1990a; 1990b; Burke et al., 1984a; Stearns & Moore, 1993), prior to the present analysis, the relationship between burnout and police officers' appraisals of potentially bothersome and uplifting daily work experiences had never been assessed. In keeping with claims of correlations between negative appraisals and psychological distress (e.g., McCrae & Costa, 1986; Hart et al., 1993; 1995; Headey & Wearing, 1990), it was expected that officers who evaluated their work experiences more negatively would be more likely to experience elements of burnout than those with more moderate appraisals. Furthermore, based on a conceptualization of burnout as a reflection of both work-related psychological distress and relative well-being, officers who assessed their work experiences more positively were expected to report relatively low levels of burnout.

The analyses partially and moderately supported these expectations, in that officers who engaged in more negative evaluations of their work experiences described themselves as feeling more emotionally exhausted and subject to feelings of depersonalization. More importantly, negative evaluations of *organizational* aspects were found to be more strongly associated with these burnout components than similar appraisals of *operational* aspects, suggesting that officers experience more psychological distress as a result of *organizational* hassles than *operational* ones. This finding corroborates the increasingly backed contention that organizational elements of police work are identified by officers as being more stressful than their actual policing duties.

Negative appraisals did not appear to influence feelings of job-related personal accomplishment, suggesting that one's sense of work-related fulfilment may be impacted differently by the correlates than the other burnout aspects that better reflect psychological distress. Factors other than negative perceptions of work experiences may be instrumental in determining an officer's depleted sense of job-related fulfilment. It may be that the personal accomplishment component of burnout more adequately reflects a "true" well-being measure. As such, the lack of association between it and work stressors (and its unique link to work uplifts as discussed below) tend to support claims regarding the

orthogonality of psychological distress and well-being associations (McCrae & Costa, 1986; Diener & Emmons, 1985; Hart et al., 1993; 1995). This suggests that burnout facets may differentially follow these orthogonal lines, rather than the construct as a whole reflecting both work-related psychological states. Clearly, further study is necessary.

As alluded to, officers who more positively appraised their work experiences described themselves as experiencing greater feelings of personal accomplishment, with such appraisals having little effect on burnout as measured by the other two subcomponents. Although positive appraisals as a whole were linked to lower levels of self-reported emotional exhaustion, the effect disappeared when appraisals were assessed according to the different work facets (*operational* and *organizational*). This finding may have been an artefact of statistical analysis (i.e., breaking a composite measure of total uplifts into operational and organizational component parts), and therefore leaves some doubt about any real link between uplifting work experiences and emotional exhaustion.

Interestingly, unlike negative appraisals, positive appraisals of both *operational* and *organizational* work experiences contributed to officers' feelings of job fulfilment. Inasmuch as both facets of work experiences appear to contribute to heightened feelings of job-related fulfilment, earlier assertions espousing the inspirational role of positive *organizational* functioning in the development of job satisfaction (Organ, 1988; Organ & Bateman, 1983) seem plausible. As it would likely prove difficult to enhance *operational* uplifts, improving *organizational* functioning would appear an adequate way to increase officer's feelings of job-related fulfilment.

Work experiences and OCB. Aside from their role in the stress process, it is conceivable that appraisals of work experiences may be instrumental in promoting or inhibiting the performance of extra-role discretionary acts that contribute to overall organizational efficiency (OCB). Research on OCB has consistently established empirical links between such behaviour and perceptions of fairness regarding organizational operations (e.g., Aquino, 1995; Folger & Martin, 1986; Moorman, 1991). Based on this

evidence, negative appraisals of potentially bothersome work experiences were expected to be associated with diminished levels of OCB and positive appraisals of potentially uplifting experiences were expected to be linked with enhanced levels. The results provided partial support for these predictions. Officers who evaluated their *organizational* work experiences as stressful tended to express less loyalty to the organization, and those who identified *operational* experiences as being stressful described themselves as being less participatory in the organization. Officers who identified greater uplifting *organizational* experiences described themselves as being more loyal, as well as more obedient to, and participatory in the organization.

These findings may indicate that, although frustrations with negative *organizational* functioning may detract from feelings of loyalty toward the organization, they may not be strong enough to override externally, implicit, or more inherently-based expectations of employee conformity to organizational rules (obedience), especially in a police organization where much emphasis is placed on following orders and rules in a paramilitary fashion. The lack of association between *operational* stressors and loyalty may reflect an acceptance, on the part of officers, of stressors inherent in policing duties, and that these would likely be experienced when working for any police service. Furthermore, it appears that the stress associated with police work itself, rather than frustrations with organizational functioning, have the potential to inhibit officers' efforts to engage in extra participatory efforts that might benefit the organization. It may be that the latter is insufficient to detract from organizational participation among officers, relative to the unique and stringent demands of policing duties, which may simply undermine the energy and desire needed to dedicate extra time to one's job, and to work toward changes therein.

The tendency toward greater OCB with increasing *organizational* uplifts, and the finding that neither *operational* hassles nor uplifts had any bearing on OCB, support previous research identifying the influential effects of positive perceptions of

organizational functioning on OCB performance. The results also enhance our understanding of the impact of perceptions of work experiences by suggesting that effects go beyond individual well-being to organizational functionality. That positive and negative appraisals operated differentially with respect to OCB, allows for an extension of the argument that both positive and negative aspects of work need to be assessed, not only when attempting to determine officer well-being, (e.g., Hart et al., 1995), but in assessing behavioural contributions to the organization as well.

Burnout and OCB. Well-established links between burnout and an assortment of negative consequences for organizational functioning, such as increased absenteeism (Jackson et al., 1986), turnover (Frith & Britton, 1989; Maslach & Jackson, 1984) and intentions to quit (Burke & Deszca, 1986) raised speculation that diminished well-being as reflected in high levels of burnout out would be associated with diminished tendencies to engage in OCB. The finding that burnout and OCB were associated through all six components (See Table 5) not only clearly corroborates claims regarding the potential detrimental effects of burnout on organizational functionality, but depicts the extent of its impact, in that it appears not only to interfere with employee attendance and discontentment, but also with positive behaviours that might otherwise benefit the organization. In other words, burned out officers may be more inclined to leave a job, and to take more time off, but even if such an employee shows up for work, his or her contributions toward organizational efficiency may be minimal at best.

Moderated Relationships

Dispositional Affect. Based on evidence of the direct effects of hassles and uplifts on psychological distress and well-being, respectively, over and above those of disposition (e.g., Hart et al, 1995), and a conceptualization of individual characteristics not as causal agents, but as influential antecedent factors (e.g., Folkman & Lazarus, 1988), the present study predicted *moderating*, rather than *mediating*, effects of dispositional affect. As

moderating variables, positive and negative affect were expected to interact with appraisals of work experiences, and show either buffering or enhancing effects on relationships involving burnout and OCB, respectively. As officers who experienced a greater degree of work hassles expressed stronger feelings of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, dispositional positive affect was expected to buffer the experience of burnout, such that, even in the face of continual exposure to work hassles, officers high in positive affect would express a lesser degree of burnout. However, although the interaction was only marginally significant, officers with high positive affect engaged in *more* depersonalization as *organizational* hassles increased. Nonetheless, the absence of a direct correlation between positive affect and depersonalization, in light of its potential moderating effects, lends credibility to the conceptualization of dispositional affect as a moderator rather than a mediator (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

When considering the absence of buffering effects of dispositional affect on other burnout subcomponents, moderating effects on depersonalization may reflect a unique role of depersonalization within police contexts. To the extent that depersonalization has been described as a coping mechanism among officers, through which they attempt to counter the distress resulting from regular exposure to unpleasant situations (Dietrich & Smith, 1986), and discount the demands of the various aspects of the job (Violanti & Marshall, 1983), higher levels may reflect enhanced adaptability. Officers with high positive affect may be more inclined to adopt such a strategy as a means of combating the frustrations of the organizational hassles in order to maintain their general upbeat tendency. It may also be the case that those with lower levels of positive affect only extend themselves so far in response to work stress, either viewing such as less of an affront to their more moderate affective states, or perhaps not being able to muster combative resources that a generally upbeat disposition would afford. However, the fact that these effects were not found in response to *operational* hassles as well as *organizational* ones is surprising, and leaves some uncertainty regarding the exact role of depersonalization in police contexts.

Officers high in negative affect were expected to experience greater levels of burnout as work hassles increased, with disposition in this case acting as an enhancer of psychological distress. However, the lack of moderating effects supports Hart et al.'s (1995) finding of significant contributions of work hassles and uplifts to psychological distress and well-being, over and above dispositional effects, and refutes claims that much of the negative appraisal-psychological distress relationship can be accounted for by the presence of a negative disposition (e.g., Costa & McCrae, 1990; Watson & Pennebaker, 1989). In other words, the suggestion is that, regardless of the extent of an officer's negative disposition, chronic exposure to stressful work experiences can have deleterious effects on well-being. Similarly, although contrary to predictions, dispositional affect was not found to moderate work hassle-OCB relationships, suggesting again the possibility of a direct negative influence of exposure to work place stress, especially *organizational* stressors, and diminished levels of OCB, regardless of disposition. The latter finding corroborates assertions that situational factors may be the most important influence on OCB (Organ, 1994).

Burnout in relation to increasing work uplifts was expected to be lower for officers high in positive trait affect, whereas officers high in negative trait affect were expected to experience higher levels of burnout, even in the presence of persisting uplifting work experiences. Burnout in this case was represented by the personal accomplishment component as this was the only one associated with work uplifts. Contrary to expectations, dispositional positive affect had little bearing on the work uplift-burnout association, meaning that whether generally upbeat or not, officers exposed to greater work uplifts expressed less tendencies toward burnout, at least in terms of a heightened sense of job-related personal accomplishment. Surprisingly, officers with high negative affect actually expressed greater feelings of personal accomplishment with exposure to an increasingly uplifting work environment, relative to officers with more moderate and low levels of trait negative affect. Even though this was an unexpected finding, it might be

construed as a testament of the beneficial influences of positive work experiences on officer well-being. Whereas it is conceivable that increasingly positive work experiences might have the degree of influence needed to sway officers who are generally disposed to only a slightly negative outlook toward greater feelings of personal accomplishment, the potential degree of influence is better understood in the finding that officers who are disposed to a strong negative outlook evidenced even greater increases in positive feelings about themselves in response to an increasingly uplifting work environment. Although this may have been a reconciliatory response to possible dissonance caused by disparities between a negative attitude and exposure to uplifting work experiences, a better understanding of the moderating role of negative affect in the work appraisal-burnout association requires further exploration.

Only the OCB component obedience to the organization appeared to be dependent on disposition. In accordance with predictions, officers with high positive affect expressed greater tendencies toward obedience, as they increased their positive appraisals of work experiences. This effect, in the absence of any involving the other two components, may have been due to the possibility that, because obedience, more so than the loyalty component, involves overt acts, it may require more internal impetus than is needed for one to be merely swayed toward loyal sentiments in response to an increasingly uplifting work environment. Thus, high levels of positive affect may act in conjunction with positive appraisals of work experiences to result in increased acts of obedience. This may help explain why previous research examining a dispositional basis for OCB (e.g., George, 1991; Organ & Konovksy, 1989) found only tenuous links. Furthermore, it corroborates assertions that both predisposition toward affective states, as well as cognitive evaluations of the job, have the potential to influence OCB (e.g., George, 1992; Organ, 1994). However, this appears to be limited to positive affect, as negative affect was not found to moderate any work uplift-OCB association. As for the participation component, it may be subject to unique influences inasmuch as it involves a degree of political activism. Further

investigation of this issue within police samples, where such behaviour may be overtly discourage, is warranted.

Coping. Coping style, an integral part of the stress process (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988), has been distinguished in terms of its potential to promote adaptability, with problem-focused coping, a more direct, action-based approach, being labelled as adaptive, and emotion-focused coping, an indirect, avoidance-based approach, being construed as maladaptive (e.g., Billings & Moos, 1984; Hart et al., 1995; Headey & Wearing, 1992). Although there is empirical evidence to suggest that the two types of coping fit into the separate and orthogonal mediated pathways of psychological distress and well-being (e.g., Diener & Emmons, 1985; Hart et al., 1993; 1995; Headey & Wearing, 1992; McCrae & Costa, 1986), there are other claims that either coping style may be effective depending upon the context in which it is used (Bolger, 1990; Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis, & Gruen, 1986; Folkman & Lazarus, 1988). In keeping with the conceptualizations of problem-focused coping as adaptive, and being activated, rather than caused by appraisals, the present study predicted that this type of coping would moderate the ill-effects of work hassles and enhance the beneficial effects of work uplifts. Partial support for taking a *moderating* rather than a *mediating* approach came from the correlational analyses which failed to show any significant link between either type of appraisal and problem-focused coping, while depicting a positive covariance between problem-focused coping and various subcomponents of the outcome measures (Baron & Kenney, 1986).

Officers who engaged in problem-focused coping to a greater extent expressed a greater sense of personal accomplishment and more participation in the organization. To the extent that the participation component of OCB may partially reflect a tendency to actively confront organizational dysfunction and inadequacies in order to alter perceived ineffectiveness of status quo functioning, it is not surprising that a direct problem-solving coping strategy might be associated with greater participation in the organization while

not commensurately inspiring greater obedience and loyalty to the organization. In fact, such acts of defiance against organizational authority may detract from tendencies toward obedience and loyalty (Van Dyne et al., 1994). Similarly, it is conceivable that the knowledge that one is dealing directly with a problematic or stressful situation could inspire a heightened sense of job-related personal accomplishment, while not simultaneously alleviating other elements of burnout which may require time away from the work environment, rest, therapy or other health-focused solutions. Refuting evidence of orthogonality and adaptability labels, were the unexpected positive associations found among emotion-focused coping and the same outcome measure subcomponents.

In terms of the moderating effects of coping style, results showed that both coping styles were effective in buffering self-reported burnout levels as exposure to work hassles increased in severity, with officers who engaged more in either style expressing lower levels of burnout. Although this was expected of problem-focused coping, it was not of its emotionally-based counterpart. Again, these results tend to refute claims of orthogonal pathways of well-being in which emotion-focused coping figures as a maladaptive strategy that ultimately leads to psychological distress, and support claims regarding the beneficial effects of both coping styles depending on the context in which they are employed.

It is noteworthy that it was specifically burnout in response to *organizational* stressors that was buffered to some extent by both coping styles. Thus, it appears that the experience of burnout as a result of engaging in mandatory but stressful policing duties (*operational* aspects) may occur regardless of attempts to cope, and this may be an inherent drawback of the job itself. However, the finding that attempts to cope with perceived stressful situations have the potential to alleviate the deleterious impact of *organizational* functioning, suggests that at least the stressors of the organizational environment, which have been shown in this and other studies to cause the most psychological distress for police officers, can be addressed to some extent through the instruction of beneficial coping techniques.

It appears too that the organization itself might benefit from such skill-development, in that diminished loyalty to the organization in response to increases in stressful *organizational* experiences were also moderated (lessened) by both types of coping, as was expected, at least for problem-focused coping. This may suggest that officers recognize and becoming frustrated by the fact that many of the *organizational* stressors could be alleviated. Thus, they may turn to a variety of coping mechanisms to counter these feelings of frustration, and in so doing, generate greater feelings of loyalty to the organization. The finding that participation levels decreased more in those who engaged in both types of coping as *operational* work hassles increased suggests the possibility that another way to cope with the stress of police work itself might be to simply withdraw from extra-role participation (the idea of doing only what one has to, and only within stipulated working schedules). As was already mentioned, a portion of the participation component is said to reflect active efforts to evoke change, and it may be that increasing efforts to cope represent decreasing efforts directed at change. The notion of coping through withdrawal may again reflect officers' acceptance of the stressors inherent in police work. That is, rather than wasting time attempting to alter what cannot be changed, officers may simply opt for less exposure to the job and concentrate on aspects of life outside the job that inspire feelings of well-being. Indeed, this has been theorized to occur by other researchers (e.g., Violanti, 1983), especially among officers at mid-career stage.

Finally, the lack of moderating effects of either coping style on the work uplift-burnout and OCB associations, respectively, although contrary to predictions, may suggest once again, that a strong influence of daily exposure to uplifting experiences may be enough to increase feelings of personal accomplishment, as well as loyalty and obedience to, and participation toward one's organization. This bespeaks the potential benefits of uplifting work experiences for personal and organizational well-being, regardless of any personal input in the form of coping on the part of officers.

Supplementary Sub-Group Analyses

Sex and marital status. No predictions were made regarding individual differences along gender and marital status lines. Analyses using the present sample failed to show any difference in burnout levels among male and female officers. The only difference between the sexes was the greater expressed organizational participation (OCB) of male officers. Inasmuch as this OCB component may reflect both a tendency to speak out against the status quo, and involvement in extra-curricular organizational projects, it is not surprising that men, more so than women, might engage in such behaviour, presumably feeling more comfortable doing both within a male dominated culture.

Although female officers, like their male counterparts, appeared to be influenced in their positive appraisals of work by dispositional positive affect, which also appeared to positively influence their sense of personal accomplishment, they failed to show any of the associations between appraisals and outcome measures found among male officers. This suggests that although male and female officers may report equivalent levels of burnout and OCB, the degree to which those levels are associated with perceptions of the working environment may differ. Such differences were further evidenced in the discrepancy between male and female officers in their expressed loyalty to the organization with increases in work stress. Whereas male officers expressed decreasing levels of loyalty as work stressors increased, female officers expressed increased levels. This may have been an offshoot of female officers' subtle attempts to prove their strength of character and ability to do the job to their male counterparts, such that even in the face of work adversity and stress, they express dedication to the organization and their job. However, it is also important to acknowledge that the sample of female officers was small, especially when compared to the number of male officers. Therefore, any speculation based on these findings is suspect. Clarification of gender differences awaits future research involving a more balanced sample of officers.

Single and married officers also did not differ in their levels of burnout and OCB, thus failing to corroborate previous research that cited married individuals as tending to experience less burnout than single ones (Maslach & Jackson, 1985). Furthermore, single officers showed only a trend toward the work appraisal-outcome measure associations found among their married counterparts. Specifically, the influences of dispositional affect on the uplifts and hassle-type appraisals were evidenced among single officers, as was an increased expression of burnout with increased work hassles, and an increased expression of organizational obedience with increased work uplifts. Thus, it appeared that single officers, like female officers, differed in the degree of appraisal-outcome associations relative to married officers. The reasons for this discrepancy are not clear and require further exploration. As was the case with the female sample, the small sample size of single officers may have undermined the validity of the analyses. Nonetheless, the strong correlations between disposition and work appraisals, and between work hassles and burnout, even in light of the small sample size, calls attention to the potentially strong influences of disposition on the appraisal process, and the similarly strong potential influences of negative perceptions of the work environment on diminished well-being.

Years of work experience. The results of the age and years experience analyses failed to corroborate previous research linking diminished levels of burnout out with increased age (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). However, the results did suggest that as officers increased in age and years of work experience, they tended to decrease their appraisals of potentially uplifting *operational* components of their job, but participated in the organization to a greater degree. That an officer with increasing years service, and getting older, would experience less and less of a sense of reward from policing duties is not surprising considering the physical nature of policing and the shift work involved. Furthermore, finding a job less rewarding with increasing years service and age might be expected to occur within any occupation. The greater tendency toward participation with more years service might simply reflect increased tendencies to voice discontent with more

time spent on the job. The finding that these trends appeared to be consistent only for male and married officers, and to a lesser extent, non-married officers, may have been influenced by the limitations of the small female and single officer sample sizes already discussed.

Although the correlational analyses failed to reveal any link between years of work experience and perceptions of work stress and burnout, respectively, previous research citing the existence of a curvilinear relationship between perceived stress, psychological distress and years of work experience demanded further exploratory analyses. Specifically, officers at mid-career stage (e.g., 9-12 years, or 6-15 years) have been found to show the most elevated levels of distress (Burke, 1989b; Cooper, 1982; Violanti, 1983). Reasons cited for the elevated distress at this career stage, relative to others, have included unmet career expectations, a lack of sense of control over one's career path, and career uncertainty (Burke, 1989b), as well as susceptibility to the disappointment from unsuccessful attempts at promotion which may be looked upon as the only way to validate one's career success (Cooper, 1982). Furthermore, lower levels of perceived stress among officers with more than 14 years service, relative to officers with less time on, has been cited as the result of a growing cynical response to police work in which officers direct themselves toward more personal concerns to avoid the stresses of the job (Violanti, 1983). Similarly, "plateaued" officers' (those who have remained a constable for 15 years or more), lack of psychological distress in the face of increased stress perceptions was explained in terms of their adoption of a less committed attitude toward work at that stage which served as a coping mechanism against burnout (Burke, 1989a).

The present exploratory analyses directed at determining the presence of such a response pattern failed to reveal any evidence of a curvilinear pattern. The only difference among the groups showed that new and mid career stage officers (6 to 15 years) identified more *organizational* uplifts than their more experienced counterparts. It is possible that in this particular sample, newer and mid-career stage officers have enjoyed more positive

experiences with promotional processes. In fact, it may have been that such influenced officers to participate in the study, thus influencing the makeup of the sample. Furthermore, it is possible that newer officers may represent a different type of officer being hired in recent years, one that is educated, not necessary driven toward policing but engaged in it because of a constricted job market, and entering the system with aspirations for early promotion and career success (the "I don't want to start at the bottom" syndrome). Additionally, where it was once mandatory to have an officer accumulate at least 5 years experience prior to specialization, it is now not uncommon to have officers with as little as two years service being offered speciality positions. This may influence a newer officer's perceptions of his/her organizational experiences. It may have also been the case that officers in this sample having between 16 and 20 years service were the ones experiencing the bitterness of unsuccessful promotional opportunities and unmet career aspirations.

Limitations

Although efforts were made in the present study to take the recommended integrated approach to the study of stress among police officers, and to incorporate elements of existing relevant theories, several limitations must be acknowledged. First, the correlational and cross-sectional nature of the study prevents any assertions regarding causality. This being the case, questions regarding the inferred directions of associations are impossible to address. It is possible, for example, that an officer's state of distress or well-being may influence the degree to which one appraises work experiences as stressful or uplifting, as was suggested by Hart et al. (1995), rather than the other way around. Similarly, it may be that reciprocal relationships exist among appraisals and outcome measures, as indeed has been hypothesized by other researchers (e.g., Hart et al., 1995; Lazarus, 1990). Clearly, longitudinal approaches are necessary in order to make such determinations.

Second, the reliance on self-report questionnaires to generate data may not only have resulted in less than accurate portrayals, but may have shaped the makeup of the sample in the first place. That is, it may have been that only a particular subset of officers actually participated in the study, and that subset may have had a response set reflecting particular appraisal styles and levels of psychological well-being. Although often difficult to orchestrate, more objective measures (e.g., peer and supervisor evaluations, personnel records, and third party observation), generated from a selected random sample of officers may better access accurate information from a more diverse group of officers.

Third, a variety of variables that have been implicated in the burnout process and OCB performance, such as career orientation, self-esteem, other measures of personality relevant to police officers (e.g., cynicism and authoritarianism), family support systems, job satisfaction, and employment attitudes were not considered in the present study. Similarly, only one psychological distress / well-being measure (burnout) was included, with lower levels being assumed to reflect greater well-being, at least in a work-related sense. A greater inclusion of the above factors, as well as more specific measures of well-being in future integrated approaches might provide a more detailed account of the way in which police officers' work experiences impact on their psychological states.

Finally, although the makeup of police services is more progressively reflecting population diversity in recent years, officers still tend to be predominantly male. Efforts to determine differential effects according to gender are made difficult considering the small sample of female officers relative to male officers. As police services continue to target qualified individuals from all ethnic and religious groups, as well as from both gender groups, discrepancies in numbers along these lines should dissipate, allowing future research to better measure the influences of such on police officers' perceptions, well-being and organizationally directed behaviour.

Implications

Theoretical implications. In undertaking an examination of burnout and OCB among police officers, the present study sought to test the validity of existing theories as well as the authors' own supposition that deviated from them. First, in an effort to abide by recommendations of prior stress researchers who chronicled the importance of considering the impact of chronic and regular experiences on well-being, this study incorporated a measure of potentially stressful and uplifting police work experiences, and examined them in relation to an index of psychological distress (burnout). This also afforded an opportunity to verify assertions regarding the greater influential role of *organizational* stressors in the psychological well-being of police officers.

Second, with the inclusion of a measure of OCB, an attempt was made to extend an understanding of the impact of work stressors and uplifts beyond individual well-being to organizational functioning. With a resurgence of interest in OCB as a subtle but necessary influence on organizational efficiency, its inclusion in the study represented an effort to amalgamate recent research in the two areas of employee stress, and behaviour at work. Furthermore, with perceived organizational fairness being the most commonly cited OCB antecedent, assessing the relationship between appraisals of work experiences and OCB allowed for the validation of previous findings using a population (police officers) in which OCB had yet to be examined.

Finally, with an emphasis on a more integrated approach which included the *moderating* effects of personality type and coping style, the study represented a theory-based attempt to examine stress and organizational contributions among police officers. However, it also represented an exploratory effort in its conceptualization of work experiences as being the most important influence on officer well-being and OCB, over and above dispositional differences and coping style.

Some evidence was found for predicted relationships between appraisals of work experiences and burnout and OCB, respectively, although differences among the

subcomponents of the outcome measures with respect to these associations suggested that psychological and behavioural responses to perceptions of daily work experiences may represent a complex dynamic which may be evidenced differentially depending on the outcome measure chosen. Furthermore, the disparate associations of hassles relative to uplifts helped to substantiate Hart et al.'s, (1993; 1994; 1995) claim that by ignoring the potential beneficial influences of positive evaluations of work experiences, previous empirical endeavours failed to address the complete work stress picture. In terms of organizationally-directed behaviour, the clear association between the appraisals of work experiences and OCB further corroborated already well-entrenched statements regarding the primary role of perceptions of organizational and supervisor fairness (as capture in the PDHS) in OCB performance.

One of the most critical contributions of the study, however, was its implication of the influential role of *organizational* stressors and uplifts in psychological distress and well-being among police officers. This was partially evidenced in the tendency on the part of officers within all areas of police work to appraise uplifting *organizational* experiences as being more uplifting than *operational* ones. Even if this evidence was tainted by the possible confounding effects of performance frequencies, other evidence emerged in the form of stronger correlations between appraisals of stressful *organizational* experiences and burnout, relative to *operational* ones. Furthermore, to the extent that OCB was associated with *organizational* hassles and uplifts, rather than *operational* counterparts, the greater influential role of *organizational* stressors and uplifts might be safely extended to reflect their greater impact on behaviour directed at the organization as well.

Some evidence was found to support a moderational model of relationships, with dispositional affect and coping style being found to moderate at least some of the associations in expected directions. The importance of considering dispositional and coping influences in an integrated approach has been asserted not only in recent stress literature (e.g., Hart et al., 1993; 1994; 1995), but to a lesser extent, in OCB inquiries as

well (e.g., Organ, 1994). The evidence of moderating effects in the present study attests to the merit of such assertions. However, the lack of moderated associations, as well as the presence of moderating effects in unexpected directions, might be construed as greater supporting evidence for the main contention underlying the study's exploratory component, namely that chronic exposure to police work hassles and uplifts has the potential, over and above disposition and coping techniques, to influence psychological distress, well-being, and OCB among police officers. Furthermore, the finding that officers' level of dispositional negative affect did not have any bearing on heightened levels of burnout in response to increasingly stressful work experiences refutes claims that such relationships exist through the *mediational* influences of negative affect (Costa, & McCrae, 1990; Moyle, 1995; Watson & Pennebaker, 1989). Although the present analyses did not test *mediated* relationships, one could at least expect differences in outcome measures for officers with different levels of negative affect if a mediated association were the case. The study's theoretical supposition is strengthened in the absence of such effects.

Finally, with the finding that both types of coping acted similarly in their relationship with outcome measures, and in their potential to buffer the adverse effects (high burnout and low OCB) of work hassles, the maladaptive status of emotion-focused coping is called into question, thereby validating the theoretical contention that coping is context-dependent, and as such can be adaptive or maladaptive only in light of the context in which it is used.

A summary of the implications of the present study are captured in the following five statements: (1) Stronger relationships between *organizational* stressors and burnout, and greater positive appraisals of *organizational* uplifts (relative to *operational* ones), support existing empirical evidence regarding the influential impact of *organizational* work experiences on psychological distress and well-being among police officers; (2) Different outcome associations between work hassles and uplifts corroborates contentions

regarding the importance of considering both stressful and uplifting work experiences in studies of officer stress and work-related behaviour. Furthermore, differential associations between appraisals and the different subcomponents of the outcome measures directs attention to the complexity of the impact of work experiences, and the importance of outcome measure selection; (3) The presence of relationships between work appraisals and OCB promotes a better understanding of the broader potential impact of work hassles and uplifts, and supports existing empirical evidence regarding the importance of perceptions of organizational functioning to the performance of OCB; (4) Some support for a *moderated* approach to work appraisal-outcome relationships suggests the possibility of an alternative conceptualization of the manner in which individual characteristic variables impact on an officers' work environment. It also demonstrates the validity of the previously identified need to consider potential contributions of individual differences in understanding officers' reactions to their work environment. The limited moderating role of disposition lends some credibility to the speculation that work experiences have the potential to directly influence officers' health and work behaviour, and in so doing, raises questions regarding the central role of negative affect in appraisal-distress associations. However, the consistent moderating role of coping style regarding *organizational* stressors implies that, while direct associations might exist, coping style may effectively limit the deleterious effects of organizational stress; (5) Evidence of the beneficial role of emotion-focused coping allows for some scepticism regarding its maladaptive status. This leaves some doubt regarding the existence of separate orthogonal pathways of distress and well-being, at least concerning the role of coping.

Practical implications. The most important practical implications emanate primarily from two findings: (1) the present study's support of claims regarding the more influential role of *organizational* stressors, and (2) evidence of potential main effects of police officers' perceptions of their work experiences on states of psychological distress and well-being, as well as the performance of OCB. Inasmuch as *organizational*

structures and functions are the more easily altered component of police work, relative to *operational* aspects, this and similar studies send a clear message, namely, that officers' identification of *organizational* stressors may reflect more than just grumblings of dissatisfaction; they may represent antecedents of burnout states which themselves have been linked to physical and psychological malaise, absenteeism, and turnover. Alternatively, uplifting *organizational* work experiences in their own right may have desirable organizational correlates, such as enhanced feelings of job-related personal accomplishment, greater acts of obedience, heightened feelings of loyalty among employees, and increased tendencies to participate in organizational betterment. Therefore, one place to begin ensuring organizational efficiency through the presence of healthy, productive, and functional officers at work, might be to attend to officers' perceptions of stressful and uplifting facets of organizational functioning.

Another practical consideration focuses on the role of coping among police officers. To the extent that officers in this sample, as in Hart et al's., (1995) sample, are likely to engage in both coping styles, and that both may be beneficial, officers should be encouraged to develop personally beneficial coping styles. They should be helped to understand that context might be important when deciding on a response pattern, with the only caveat being that one's goal must be to alleviate psychological distress rather than mask it. Therefore, one way to ensure a functional and healthy police service, might be to develop training programs in which officers are educated in the potential beneficial effects of a variety of coping strategies, and the importance of considering the context in making coping style choices.

Overall, the present study points to the merit of examining officers' perceptions of their working environment in future stress-related research involving police officers, and signals managers who are interested in promoting organizational efficiency to focus, as Stearns and Moore (1993) asserted, on the impact of job-related components rather than on the potential individual deficiencies of the officers themselves.

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Appendix A

General Information

**QUESTIONNAIRE**

☐ **I understand that my participation is voluntary, and that my responses will be anonymous and confidential. (please check the box).**

**There are no right, wrong, good, or bad answers to any of the questions below. Please just give the most accurate, truthful response for you. If you find any of the questions too personal, you do not have to respond, although it would be most helpful to us if you answered every question. To ensure anonymity, please do not put your name on this questionnaire. Remember, responses are pooled and analyzed as a group, not individually. For each question, your first impression is probably correct.**

1. Please indicate your gender: _____male _____female
2. How old are you? _____years.
3. What is your marital status? _____
4. How long have you been a police officer? _____years.
5. Please indicate what type of work you do as a police officer. (Check more than one item if necessary)

_____supervisory _____administrative _____patrol / investigative

_____other-with the public _____other-internal

## Appendix B

### Police Daily Hassle Scale-Operational Hassles

**8. The following are statements which may or may not reflect your work experiences. Using the 1-to-5 scale below, indicate the degree to which each experience (item) has "hassled" or bothered you as a result of doing police work in the past month. Answer by placing the appropriate number from the scale below on the blank ("___") beside each statement.**

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| definitely does **NOT** apply to me | rarely applies to me | sometimes applies to me | often applies to me | strongly applies to me |

____ Delivering a death message
____ Giving bad news
____ Dealing with domestics
____ Dealing with road victims
____ Dealing with abused children
____ Dealing with assault victims
____ Seeing other people in misery
____ Taking an accident report
____ Irregular meal times
____ Missing meals
____ Rushed eating
____ Shift work interfering with other activities
____ Quick changeovers
____ Sitting around and then having to become suddenly active
____ Unreasonable expectations from others outside the Department (e.g., lawyers, judges, public)
____ Court decisions being too lenient
____ Outside interference with police work (e.g., government, public, concerned citizens)
____ Wasting time at court
____ Poor media coverage
____ Lack of police powers
____ Courts setting inconvenient dates
____ Too much work to do
____ Too much expected of me
____ Insufficient time to complete a job
____ Meeting deadlines
____ Going on a raid
____ Going to a dangerous call
____ Having to make a forcible arrest
____ Being responsible for others
____ Dealing with other people's problems
____ Trying to show interest in people
____ Hoax calls
____ Not being able to charge someone who is guilty
____ Doing work I don't like
____ Doing things I don't agree with
____ Not being able to get an admission from someone who is guilty
____ Dealing with people who abuse the police
____ Heavy traffic
____ Poor drivers on the road
____ Departmental handling of complaints
____ Complaints by the public

# Appendix C

## Police Daily Hassles Scale-Organizational Hassles

____ Being told what to do by others
____ Too much supervision
____ Working with people who are incompetent
____ Working with people who lack professionalism
____ Other members not pulling their weight
____ Working with people who are not suited for police work
____ Working with people who are inconsiderate
____ Working with people who do not listen
____ Problems with co-workers
____ Disagreement about how to do something
____ Unnecessary forms
____ Poor administration
____ Inconsistent application of rules and policy
____ Lack of forward planning
____ Too much red tape to get something done
____ Inappropriate rules and regulations
____ Excessive paperwork
____ Lack of clarity in operational guidelines
____ Inability to change the system
____ Untidy work areas
____ Dirty locker rooms
____ Poor facilities
____ Lack of equipment
____ Equipment failure
____ Feeling generally inadequate
____ 'Bottling up' my feelings
____ Difficulty staying objective
____ Feelings of not being able to do anything
____ Concerns about the status of police
____ Feelings of just being a number
____ Studying (for work purposes)
____ Exams (for work purposes)
____ Unfair rating system
____ Unfair promotional policy
____ Lack of stability in the station
____ Personality clashes at work
____ Jobs for the boys
____ Low morale
____ Feelings of having to conform to 'pressure' from peers
____ Not being able to speak my mind
____ Having no say in decisions that affect me
____ Lack of honesty about my work by superiors
____ Interference in my decisions by others
____ Responsibility without authority to make decisions
____ Not receiving recognition for a job well done

Appendix D

Police Daily Uplift Scale-Operational Uplifts

**6. The following are statements that may or may not reflect your work experiences. Using the 1-to-5 scale below, indicate the degree to which each experience (item) has made you "feel good" as a result of doing police work in the past month. Answer by putting the appropriate number in the blank ("___") beside each statement.**

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| definitely does NOT apply to me | rarely applies to me | sometimes applies to me | often applies to me | strongly applies to me |

____ Helping the public
____ The public showing an interest in my work
____ Receiving thanks from the public
____ Helping children
____ Helping complainants
____ Delivering good news
____ Helping motorists
____ Obtaining an admission from an accused
____ Charging someone
____ Getting a good "pinch"
____ Going on a raid
____ Going to good calls
____ Getting a good result at court
____ A good roster
____ Shift work fitting in with other activities
____ Days off

## Appendix E

### Police Daily Uplift Scale-Organizational Uplifts

_____ Working with people who are considerate
_____ Working with people who know what they are doing
_____ Working with people who are good performers
_____ Other members doing the right thing
_____ Working with people that I like
_____ Personal reaction from other members
_____ Working with people that listen
_____ Getting along with my peers
_____ Tidy work areas
_____ Good facilities
_____ Tidy locker rooms
_____ Receiving a good promotional rating
_____ Receiving a good performance rating
_____ Getting a good duty
_____ Opportunity for promotion
_____ Working hard
_____ Achieving a heavy workload
_____ Getting things done
_____ Meeting deadlines
_____ Making decisions
_____ Having responsibility
_____ Having a say in decisions
_____ Making popular decisions
_____ Solving a problem
_____ Application of rules and policies
_____ Clarity of operational guidelines
_____ Results of my plans taking effect
_____ Honesty about my work by superiors
_____ Helpful supervision
_____ Having someone to turn to for help or advice
_____ Sufficient time with family
_____ Support for my work from my spouse/partner/friends (whichever is applicable)
_____ Equipment working
_____ Equipment being available

Appendix F

Maslach Burnout Inventory

**The following are statements of job-related feelings. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you have ever felt this way ABOUT YOUR JOB. If you have NEVER had this feeling, write a "0" (zero) in the space before the statement. If you have had this feeling, indicate HOW OFTEN you have felt it by writing the number (from 1-to-6) that best describes how frequently you have felt that way.**

| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| never | a few times a year or less | once a month or less | a few times a month | once a week | a few times a week | every day |

44.___ I feel emotionally drained from my work.[a]
45.___ I feel used up at the end of the workday.[a]
46.___ I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.[a]
47.___ I can easily understand how members of the public feel about things.[c]
48.___ I feel that I treat some members of the public as if they were impersonal objects.[b]
49.___ Working with people all day is really a strain for me.[a]
50.___ I deal very effectively with the problems of members of the public.[c]
51.___ I feel burned out from my work.[a]
52.___ I feel that I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work.[c]
53.___ I've become more callous toward people since I took this job.[b]
54.___ I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.[b]
55.___ I feel very energetic.[c]
56.___ I feel frustrated by my job.[a]
57.___ I feel that I'm working too hard on my job.[a]
58.___ I don't really care what happens to some members of the public.[b]
59.___ Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.[a]
60.___ I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with members of the public.[c]
61.___ I feel exhilarated after working closely with members of the public.[c]
62.___ I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.[c]
63.___ I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.[a]
64.___ In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly.[c]
65.___ I feel that members of the public blame me for some of their problems.[b]

Note. [a] Emotional Exhaustion. [b] Depersonalization. [c] Personal Accomplishment.

Appendix G

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour Scale

**The following questions are in the form of statements which may or may not be reflective of you. Using the 1-to-7 point scale below, indicate the degree to which the statement is generally true for you, by placing the appropriate number in the blank (" ___ ") beside the question.**

**never true for me** 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 **always true for me**

10.___ I represent my police organization favourably to outsiders.[b]
11.___ I do not go out of my way to defend the organization against outside threats.[b]
12.___ I do not tell outsiders that this is a good place to work.[b]
13.___ I do not defend the organization when employees criticize it.[b]
14.___ I actively promote the organization's services.[b]
15.___ I would accept a job at a competing organization for more money.[b]
16.___ I would not urge co-workers to invest extra time and effort in the organization.[b]
17.___ I rarely waste time while at work.[a]
18.___ I produce as much as I am capable of at all times.[a]
19.___ I always come to work on time.[a]
20.___ Regardless of the circumstances, I produce the highest quality work.[a]
21.___ I do not meet all deadlines set by the organization.[a]
22.___ I am mentally alert and ready to start work when I arrive at work.[a]
23.___ I follow work rules and instructions with extreme care.[a]
24.___ I sometimes waste organizational resources.[a]
25.___ I keep work areas clean and neat.[a]
26.___ I sometimes miss work for no good reason.[a]
27.___ I only attend work-related meetings if required by the job.[c]
28.___ I share ideas for new projects or improvements widely.[c]
29.___ I keep informed about products and services and tell others.[b]
30.___ I work so that my personal appearance is attractive and appropriate.[a]
31.___ I am not involved in outside groups for the benefit of the organization.[b]
32.___ I frequently make creative suggestions to co-workers.[c]
33.___ I use professional judgement to assess what is right and wrong for the organization.[c]
34.___ I encourage management to keep their knowledge and skills current.[c]
35.___ I encourage others to speak up at meetings.[c]
36.___ I help co-workers think for themselves.[c]
37.___ I keep well-informed on things where opinions might benefit the organization.[c]
38.___ I do not push supervisors to perform to higher standards.[c]
39.___ I do not pursue additional training to improve my performance.[c]
40.___ I avoid extra duties and responsibilities at work.[b]
41.___ I do not work beyond what is required.[b]
42.___ I volunteer for overtime work when needed.[b]
43.___ I have difficulty co-operating with others on projects.[c]

Note. [a] Obedience. [b] Loyalty. [c] Participation.

Appendix H

Revised Ways of Coping Scale

**66. The following section is designed to find out how people deal with different kinds of stressful situations that occur at work. Take a few minutes and think about different situations at work that you have found stressful, difficult, or troubling. Then, please read each item below and indicate, by circling the appropriate category, to what extent you did or thought about doing, or used each approach or strategy.**

| | Not used | Used somewhat | Used quite a bit | Used a great deal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| [b] Just concentrated on what I had to do next--the next step. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| I tried to analyze the problem in order to better understand it. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Turned to work or substitute activity to take my mind off things. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| I felt that time would make a difference--the only thing to do was wait. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Bargained or compromised to get something positive from the situation. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [a] I did something which I didn't think would work, but at least I was doing something. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [a] Tried to get the person responsible to change his / her mind. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [g] Talked to someone to find out more about the situation. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [e] Criticized or lectured myself. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [d] Tried not to burn my bridges, but leave things open somewhat. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| [h] Hoped a miracle would happen. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [c] Went along with fate; sometimes I just have bad luck. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [c] Went on as if nothing had happened. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [d] I tried to keep my feelings to myself. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [c] Looked for the silver lining, so to speak; tried to look on the bright side. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [h] Slept more than usual. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [a] I expressed anger to the person(s) who caused the problem. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [g] Accepted sympathy and understanding from someone. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| I told myself things that helped me to feel better. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [f] I was inspired to do something creative. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [c] Tried to forget the whole thing. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [g] I got professional help. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [f] Changed or grew as a person in a good way. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| I waited to see what would happen before doing anything. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [e] I apologized or did something to make it up. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| [b] I made a plan of action and followed it. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| I accepted the next best thing to what I wanted. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [a] I let my feelings out somehow. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [e] Realized that I brought the problem on myself. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [f] I came out of the experience better than when I went in. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [g] Talked to someone who could do something concrete about the problem. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Got away from it for a while; tried to rest or take a vacation. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [h] Tried to make myself feel better by eating, smoking, drinking, using drugs or medication, etc. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [a] Took a big chance or did something very risky. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| I tried not to act too hastily or follow my first hunch. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [f] Found new faith. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Maintained my pride and kept a stiff upper lip. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [f] Rediscovered what is important in life. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [b] Changed something so things would turn out all right. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| [h] Avoided people in general. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [c] Didn't let it get to me; refused to think too much about it. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [g] I asked a relative or friend I respected for advice. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [d] Kept others from knowing how bad things were. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [c] Made light of the situation; refused to get too serious about it. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [g] Talked to someone about how I was feeling. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [a] Stood my ground and fought for what I wanted. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [h] Took it out on other people. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [b] Drew on my past experiences; I was in a similar situation before. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [b] I knew what had to be done so I doubled my efforts to make things work. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [h] Refused to believe that it had happened. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [e] I made a promise to myself that things would be different. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [b] Came up with a couple of different solutions to the problem. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Accepted it, since nothing could be done. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| [d] I tried to keep my feelings from interfering with other things too much. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Wished that I could change what had happened or how I felt. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [f] I changed something about myself. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| I daydreamed or imagined a better time or place than the one I was in. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [h] Wished that the situation would go away or somehow be over with. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [h] Had fantasies or wishes about how things might turn out. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [f] I prayed. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| I prepared myself for the worst. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [d] I went over in my mind what I would say or do. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [d] I thought about how a person I admire would handle this situation and used that as a model. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| I tried to see things from the other person's point of view. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| I reminded myself how much worse things could be. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| I jogged or exercised. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| I tried something entirely different from any of the above (describe if you like). | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |

Note. [a] Confrontive Coping. [b] Planful Problem-Solving. [c] Distancing. [d] Self-controlling. [e] Accepting Repsonsibility. [f] Positive Reappraisal. [g] Seeking Social Support. [h] Escape / Avoidance. [a, b, g] Problem-Focused Coping. [c-h] Emotion-Focused Coping.

Appendix I

Positive and Negative Affect Scale

**9. Below are words that describe feelings and emotions. Please read each word and indicate the extent to which you GENERALLY FEEL THIS WAY. In other words, indicate the extent to which these different words are descriptive of you as a person. Use the following 1-to-7 point scale to record your answers in the blank ("___") beside the word.**

**very little** 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 **very much**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| _____interested | _____**irritable** | _____**distressed** |
| _____alert | _____excited | _____**ashamed** |
| _____**upset** | _____inspired | _____strong |
| _____**nervous** | _____**guilty** | _____determined |
| _____**scared** | _____attentive | _____**hostile** |
| _____**jittery** | _____enthusiastic | _____active |
| _____proud | _____**afraid** | _____**depressed** |
| _____**confused** | _____**helpless** | _____**hopeless** |

Note. Bold indicates items reflecting negative affect.

Appendix J

Social Desirability Scale

**7. The following are a list of statements. Please indicate the extent to which they are true for you OR false for you. Use "T" to indicate true or mostly true, and "F" to indicate false or mostly false.**

____ I like to gossip at times.
____ There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.
____ I am always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.
____ I always try to practice what I preach.
____ I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.
____ At times I have really insisted on having things my own way.
____ There have been occasions when I have felt like smashing things.
____ I never resent being asked to return a favour.
____ I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own.
____ I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.

Appendix K

Cover Letter

**Police Work Experiences and their Relationship to Burnout and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour**

I am a constable with the Ontario Provincial Police, currently on leave of absence in order to complete a master's degree in clinical psychology at Lakehead University. As part of my thesis, I am investigating the relationship between the facets of police work, and both burnout and behaviours indicative of organizational citizenship.

One purpose of the research is simply to examine the facets of police work that officers identify as more bothersome, and those that they identify as making them "feel good". Another purpose is to investigate the relationships between work experiences, individual characteristics, burnout, organizational citizenship behaviour, and the role that coping methods play in mediating such relationships, in order to better understand the nature, antecedents and consequences of stress among police officers.

The study involves filling out the following questionnaire on the variables mentioned above. It will require only a few minutes of your time. There is no risk involved. You are **NOT** required to identify yourself, your rank, or your area of work. In other words, **YOUR RESPONSES ARE COMPLETELY ANONYMOUS AND CONFIDENTIAL**. Your participation is completely **VOLUNTARY**, and no one will know if you participate or not. Should you decide to participate, **simply complete the questionnaire, enclose it in the accompanying envelope, seal it, and place it in the large envelope or box that has been provided for this purpose at the front desk of the station.**

There are no right, wrong, or bad answers. The data from all participants will be **pooled and analyzed as a group**, and you may obtain a copy of the final results of the study by writing or calling either me, or the supervising professor, Dr. D. Mazmanian of the Department of Psychology at Lakehead University at the addresses and phone numbers provided below. Also, a summary of the results will be forwarded to each detachment/station after the analyses are completed. There are no benefits to you personally for participating in the study. However, the findings could ultimately be useful in the enhancement of recruitment, training, and organizational practices. Thank you in advance for your co-operation.

Andrea Kohan
302 N. Court St., Thunder Bay
(807) 346-0892

Dr. D. Mazmanian, Dept. of Psychology,
Lakehead University, 955 Oliver Rd.,
Thunder Bay, Ont. (807) 343-8257

Table 1

Predicted Correlations Among Variables

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Total Work Hassles | | (+) | (+) | ? | ? | ? | (+) | (+) | (-) | (-) | (-) | (-) | (-) | ? | (-) | (+) |
| 2. Work Hassles (ORG) | | | (+) | ? | ? | ? | (+) | (+) | (-) | (-) | (-) | (-) | (-) | ? | (-) | (+) |
| 3. Work Hassles (OPER) | | | | ? | ? | ? | (+) | (+) | (-) | (-) | (-) | (-) | (-) | ? | (-) | (+) |
| 4. Total Work Uplifts | | | | | (+) | (+) | (-) | (-) | (+) | (+) | (+) | (+) | (+) | ? | (+) | (-) |
| 5. Work Uplifts (ORG) | | | | | | (+) | (-) | (-) | (+) | (+) | (+) | (+) | (+) | ? | (+) | (-) |
| 6. Work Uplifts (OPER) | | | | | | | (-) | (-) | (+) | (+) | (+) | (+) | (+) | ? | (+) | (-) |
| 7. Emotional Exhaustion | | | | | | | | (+) | (-) | (-) | (-) | (-) | (-) | ? | (-) | (+) |
| 8. Depersonalization | | | | | | | | | (-) | (-) | (-) | (-) | (-) | ? | (-) | (+) |
| 9. Personal Accomplishment | | | | | | | | | | (+) | (+) | (+) | (+) | ? | (+) | (-) |
| 10. Obedience | | | | | | | | | | | (+) | (+) | (+) | ? | (+) | (-) |
| 11. Loyalty | | | | | | | | | | | | (+) | (+) | ? | (+) | (-) |
| 12. Participation | | | | | | | | | | | | | (+) | ? | (+) | (-) |
| 13. Problem-Focused Coping | | | | | | | | | | | | | | ? | (+) | (-) |
| 14. Emotion-Focused Coping | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | (-) | (+) |
| 15. Positive Trait Affect | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | (-) |
| 16. Negative Trait Affect | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Note. (+) Positive correlation. (-) Negative correlation. ? No predicted correlation.

Table 2

Extreme Scores Removed

| Variable | Raw Score Range | Number of Outliers Removed |
|---|---|---|
| Total Work Uplifts | 101-253 | 1 |
| Positive Trait Affect | 24-74 | 2 |
| Negative Trait Affect | 0-57 | 3 |
| Obedience | 35-85 | 2 |
| Loyalty | 28-95 | 1 |
| Emotional Exhaustion | 0-47 | 2 |
| Depersonalization | 0-29 | 1 |
| Problem-Focused Coping | 8-48 | 2 |
| Emotion-Focused Coping | 9-69 | 1 |

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliabilities

| | MEANS | | SD | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Scales | Mean Scores | Total Scores | Mean Scores | Total Scores | Cronbach's Alpha |
| Total Daily Work "Hassles" | 2.70 | 231.85 | .57 | 48.66 | .96 |
| Operational Work "Hassles" | 2.76 | 113.22 | .58 | 23.94 | .92 |
| Organizational Work "Hassles" | 2.63 | 118.37 | .66 | 29.76 | .96 |
| Total Daily Work "Uplifts" (PDUS) | 3.52 | 176.54 | .50 | 24.40 | .93 |
| Operational Work "Uplifts" | 3.21 | 51.32 | .65 | 10.45 | .86 |
| Organizational Work "Uplifts" | 3.67 | 124.90 | .56 | 18.88 | .93 |
| Social Desirability | 6.08 | 6.08 | 2.03 | 2.03 | .58 |
| Positive Affect (PAS) | 5.10 | 51.43 | .89 | 8.24 | .88 |
| Negative Affect (NAS) | 1.94 | 27.18 | .73 | 9.34 | .88 |
| Obedience (OCBS) | 5.38 | 59.15 | .73 | 7.65 | .75 |
| Loyalty (OCBS) | 5.11 | 61.55 | .97 | 11.31 | .80 |
| Participation (OCBS) | 4.76 | 56.49 | .94 | 11.87 | .78 |
| Emotional Exhaustion (Burnout) | 1.90 | 16.80 | 1.11 | 9.36 | .89 |
| Depersonalization (Burnout) | 2.19 | 10.87 | 1.30 | 6.35 | .74 |
| Personal Accomplishment (Burnout) | 4.12 | 32.98 | .93 | 7.44 | .75 |
| Confrontive Coping (WCCL) | 1.13 | 6.76 | .40 | 2.37 | .50 |
| Planful Problem-Solving (WCCL) | 1.83 | 10.98 | .50 | 2.94 | .70 |
| Distancing (WCCL) | 1.11 | 6.67 | .50 | 2.81 | .62 |
| Self-Control (WCCL) | 1.55 | 10.88 | .42 | 2.96 | .54 |
| Accepting Responsibility (WCCL) | 1.18 | 4.74 | .51 | 2.04 | .58 |
| Positive Reappraisal (WCCL) | 1.21 | 8.46 | .51 | 3.59 | .75 |
| Seeking Social Support (WCCL) | 1.41 | 8.47 | .50 | 3.00 | .71 |
| Escape / Avoidance (WCCL) | 0.71 | 5.60 | .45 | 3.39 | .73 |
| Problem-Focused Coping | 1.46 | 26.43 | .36 | 6.09 | .87 |
| Emotion-Focused Coping | 1.31 | 39.45 | .34 | 9.87 | .87 |

Note. See Measures section for scale parameters for each measure.

Table 4

PDHUS Items Removed from Comparative Analyses

| Work Experiences | Items Removed |
|---|---|
| ORGANIZATIONAL Hassles | Irregular meal times |
| | Missing meals |
| | Rushed eating |
| | Poor Media Coverage |
| | Too much work to do |
| | Too much expected of me |
| | Insufficient time to complete a job |
| | Meeting deadlines |
| | Being responsible for others |
| | Dealing with other people's problems |
| | Trying to show an interest in people |
| OPERATIONAL Hassles | Equipment failure |
| | Studying |
| | Exams |
| ORGANIZATIONAL Uplifts | Achieving a heavy workload |
| | Sufficient time with family |
| | Support for my work from spouse/partner/friends |
| OPERATIONAL Uplifts | Charging someone |
| | Days off |

Table5(a)

A Comparison of Operational and Organizational Hassles

| | Mean Scores | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Samples | Operational Hassles | Organizational Hassles | df | t-value |
| Entire Sample N = 168 | 2.75 | 2.64 | 167 | 2.52* |
| Items Removed N = 169 | 2.69 | 2.66 | 168 | 0.54 |
| Patrol Officers N = 106 | 2.90 | 2.74 | 105 | 3.07* |
| Supervisors N = 24 | 2.22 | 2.49 | 23 | -2.34* |
| Administrators N = 25 | 1.90 | 2.37 | 24 | -3.46** |

Table 5(b)

A Comparison of Operational and Organization Uplifts

| | Mean Scores | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sample | Operational Uplifts | Organizational Uplifts | df | t-value |
| Entire Sample N = 169 | 3.19 | 3.67 | 168 | -9.27** |
| Items Removed N = 172 | 3.15 | 3.65 | 171 | -9.17** |
| Patrol Officers N = 104 | 3.38 | 3.60 | 103 | -5.24** |
| Supervisors N = 49 | 2.96 | 3.78 | 48 | -7.42** |
| Administrators N = 24 | 2.47 | 3.71 | 23 | -6.96** |

Note. *$p < .01$. **$p < .001$.

Table 6

Pearson Correlations

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Total Work Hassles | | .91b | .87b | .06 | -.01 | .24a | .42b | .45b | -.08 | -.13 | -.28b | -.17 | .16 | .12 | -.06 | .38b |
| 2. Work Hassles (org.) | | | .60b | .05 | .04 | .13 | .42b | .45b | -.11 | -.11 | -.31b | -.11 | .16 | .09 | -.13 | .34b |
| 3. Work Hassles (oper.) | | | | .10 | -.05 | .33b | .29b | .34b | -.02 | -.13 | -.17 | -.20a | .12 | .11 | .01 | .31b |
| 4. Total Work Uplifts | | | | | .92b | .71b | -.23a | -.07 | .32b | .27b | .27b | .29b | .18 | .25a | .54b | -.13 |
| 5. Work Uplifts (org.) | | | | | | .40b | -.17 | -.10 | .32b | .31b | .30b | .40b | .13 | .20a | .52b | -.15 |
| 6. Work Uplifts (oper.) | | | | | | | -.18 | .03 | .21a | .07 | .09 | -.03 | .14 | .19a | .28b | .03 |
| 7. Emotional Exhaustion | | | | | | | | .43b | -.33b | -.26b | -.42b | -.24b | -.07 | -.00 | -.40b | .37b |
| 8. Depersonalization | | | | | | | | | -.14 | -.18a | -.39b | -.26b | .12 | .08 | -.17 | .32b |
| 9. Personal Accomplishment | | | | | | | | | | .37b | .43b | .43b | .28b | .21a | .41b | -.17 |
| 10. Obedience | | | | | | | | | | | .37b | .37b | .09 | .03 | .37b | -.24b |
| 11. Loyalty | | | | | | | | | | | | .64b | .13 | .18a | .48b | -.27b |
| 12. Participation | | | | | | | | | | | | | .28b | .24b | .43b | -.17 |
| 13. Problem-Focused Coping | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .75b | .19a | .21a |
| 14. Emotion-Focused Coping | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .21a | .23a |
| 15. Positive Affect | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | -.20a |
| 16. Negative Affect | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Note. $_a p < .01$. $_b p < .001$.

Table 7

Correlations Between Social Desirability and other Measures

| Variable | Social Desirability Responding |
|---|---|
| TOTAL Work Hassles | -.11 |
| ORGANIZATIONAL Work Hassles | -.11 |
| OPERATIONAL Work Hassles | -.07 |
| TOTAL Work Uplifts | .12 |
| ORGANIZATIONAL Work Hassles | .11 |
| OPERATIONAL Work Hassles | .02 |
| Emotional Exhaustion | -.19* |
| Depersonalization | -.35** |
| Personal Accomplishment | .18 |
| Obedience | .29** |
| Loyalty | .18 |
| Participation | .11 |
| Problem-Focused Coping | .21* |
| Emotion-Focused Coping | -.13 |
| Positive Trait Affect | .09 |
| Negative Trait Affect | -.16 |

Note. *$p < .01$. **$p < .001$.

Table 8.

Moderated Relationships

| IDV | DV | Moderator | Bivariate Association | Partial Correlation |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Org. Hassles | Depersonalization | PA | .45 | .15m |
| Total Uplifts | Obedience | PA | .27 | .16 * |
| Total Uplifts | Personal Accomp. | NA | .32 | .16 * |
| Org. Uplifts | Personal Accomp. | NA | .32 | .15m |
| Org. Hassles | Emotional Exhaust. | PFC | .42 | -.15m |
| Org. Hassles | Depersonalization | PFC | .45 | -.20 * |
| Org. Hassles | Emotional Exhaust. | EFC | .42 | -.20 * |
| Org. Hassles | Depersonalization | EFC | .45 | -.14m |
| Org. Hassles | Loyalty | PFC | -.31 | .34** |
| Oper. Hassles | Participation | PFC | -.20 | -.19* |
| Total Hassles | Loyalty | EFC | -.28 | .19* |
| Org. Hassles | Loyalty | EFC | -.31 | .33*** |
| Oper. Hassles | Participation | EFC | -.20 | -.26*** |

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. ***$p < .001$. m = marginally significant (see Results).
PA = Positive Affect. NA = Negative Affect. PFC = Problem-focused Coping.
EFC = Emotion-focused Coping.

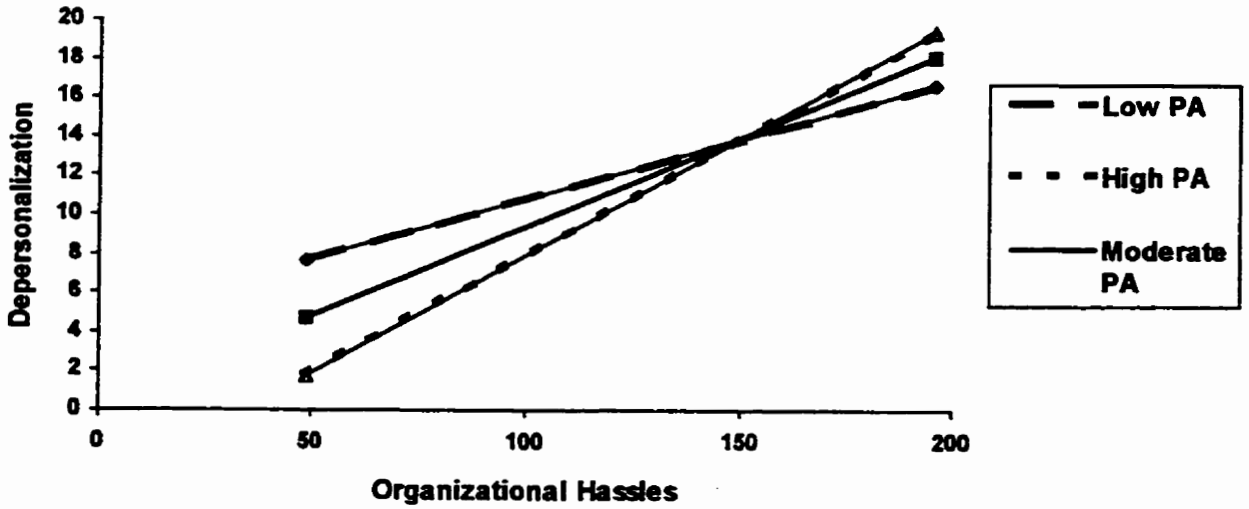



Figure 1. The relationship between organizational work hassles and depersonalization (burnout) moderated by positive affect (PA).

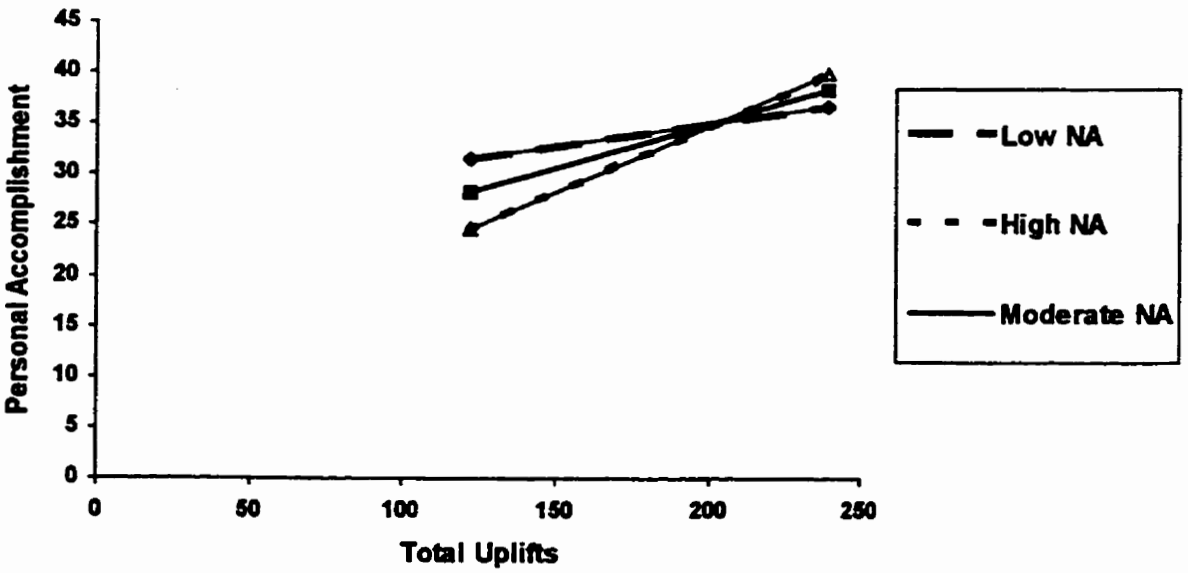



Figure 2. The relationship between total work uplifts and personal accomplishment (burnout) moderated by negative affect (NA).

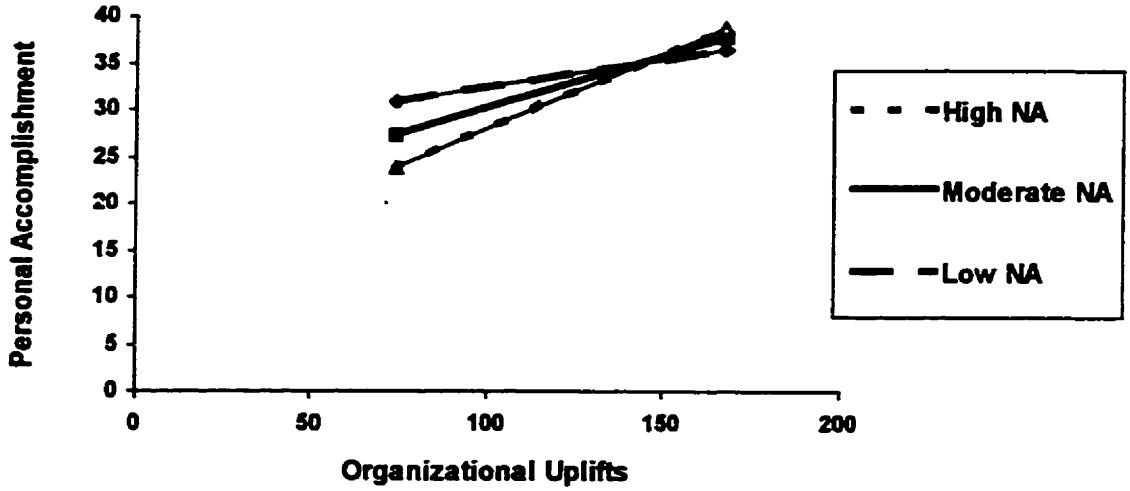



Figure 3. The relationship between organizational uplifts and personal accomplishment (burnout) moderated by negative affect (NA).

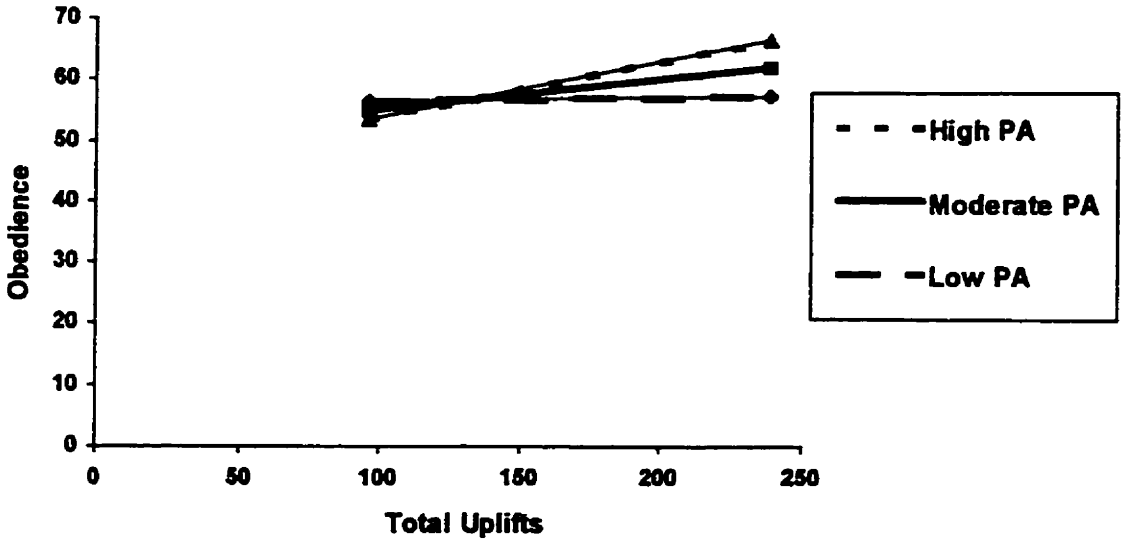



Figure 4. The relationship between total work uplifts and obedience (OCB) moderated by positive affect (PA).

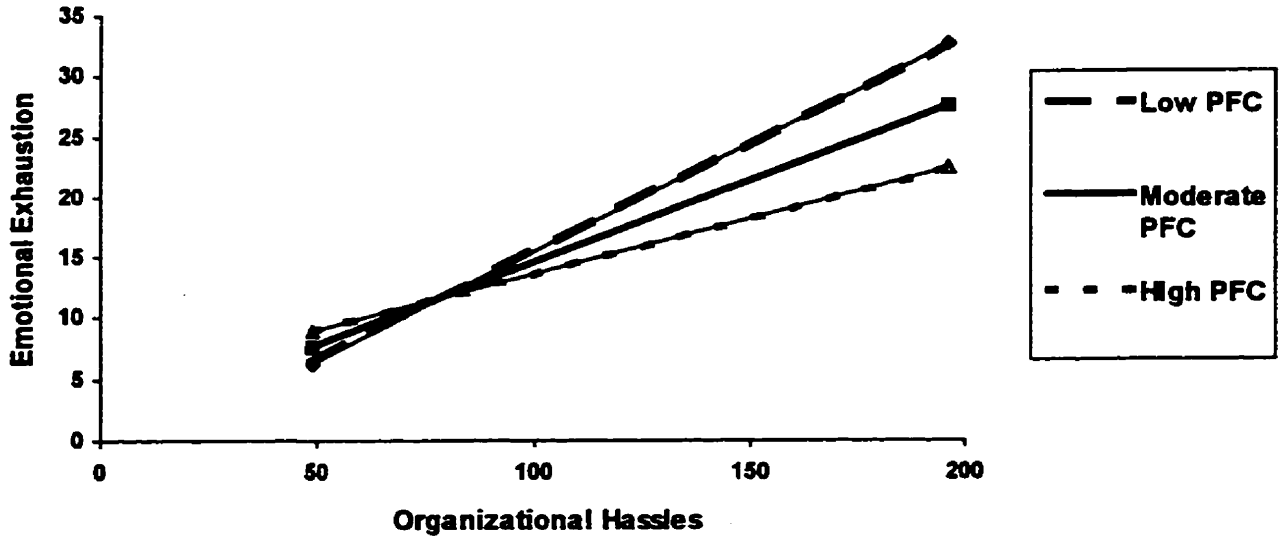



Figure 5. The relationship between organizational hassles and emotional exhaustion (burnout) moderated by problem-focused (PFC).

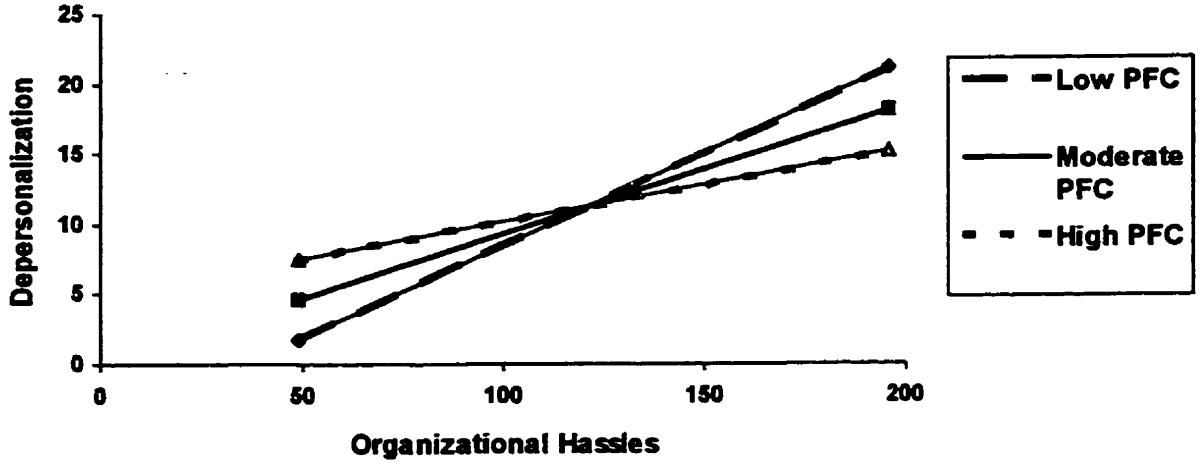



Figure 6. The relationship between organizational hassles and depersonalization (burnout) moderated by problem-focused coping (PFC).

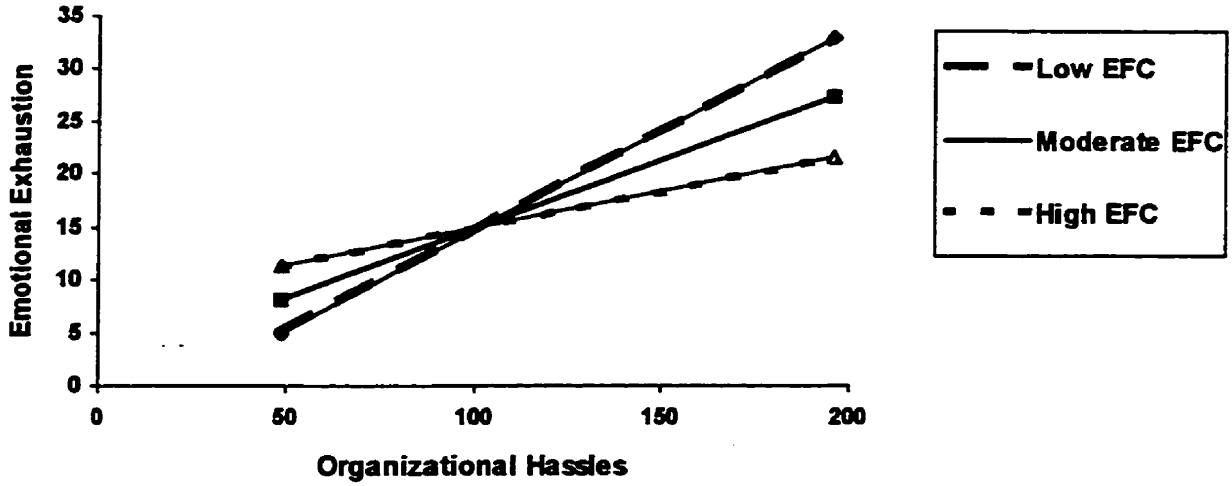



Figure 7. The relationship between organizational hassles and emotional exhaustion (burnout) moderated by emotion-focused (EFC).

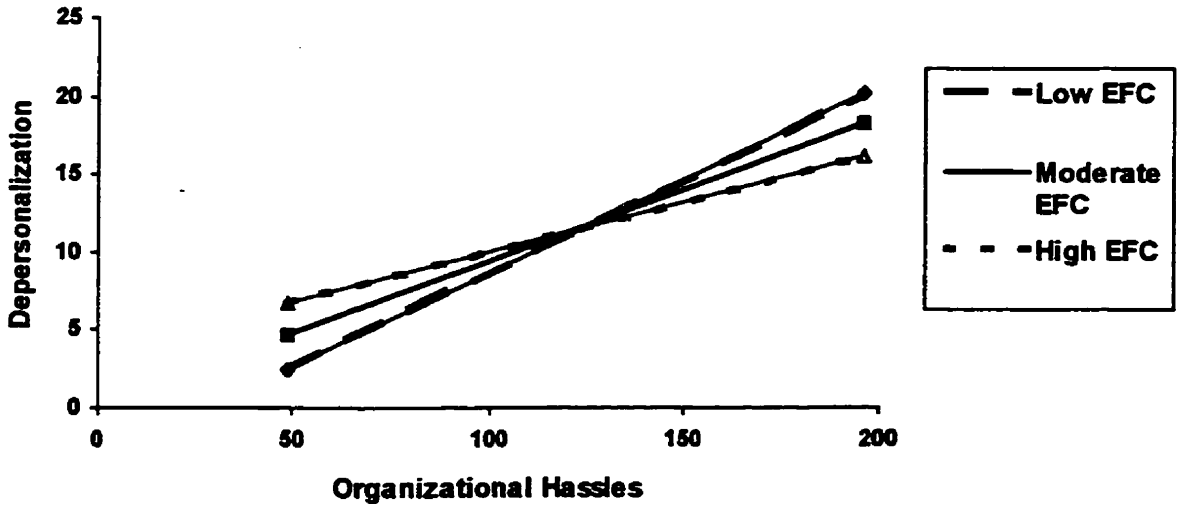



Figure 8. The relationship between organizational hassles and depersonalization (burnout) moderated by emotion-focused coping (EFC).

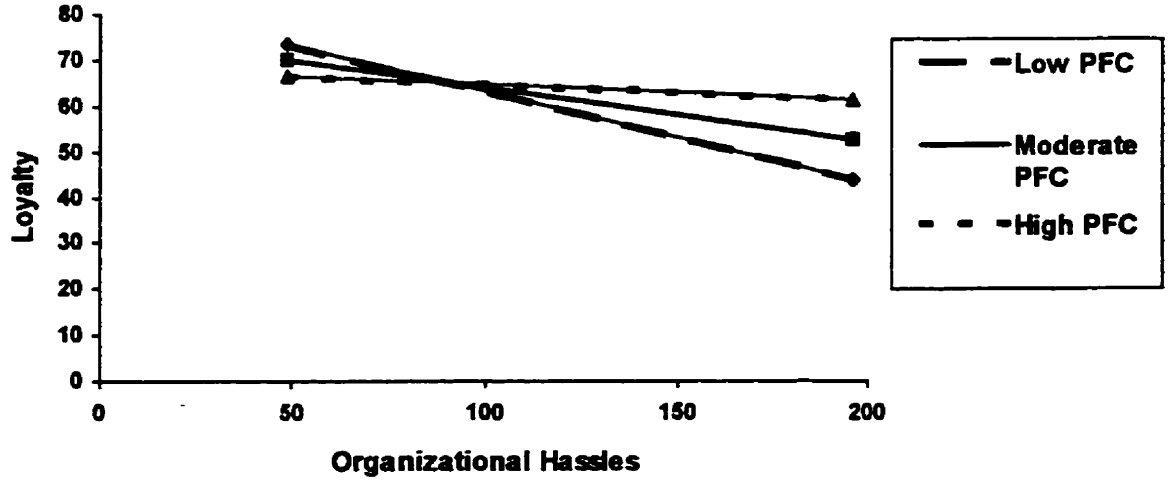



Figure 9. The relationship between organizational hassles and loyalty (OCB) moderated by problem-focused coping (PFC).

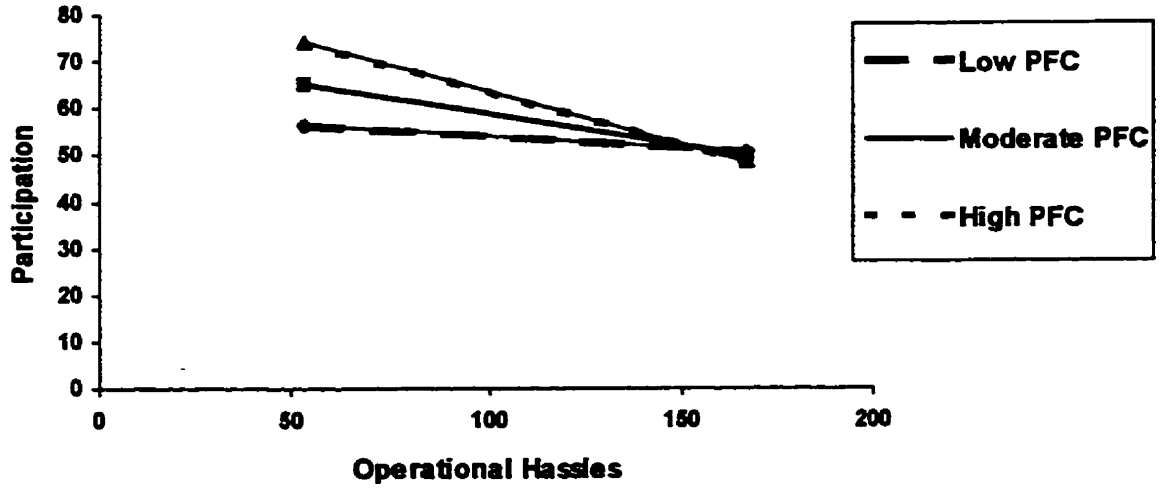



Figure 10. The relationship between operational hassles and participation (OCB) moderated by problem-focused coping (PFC).

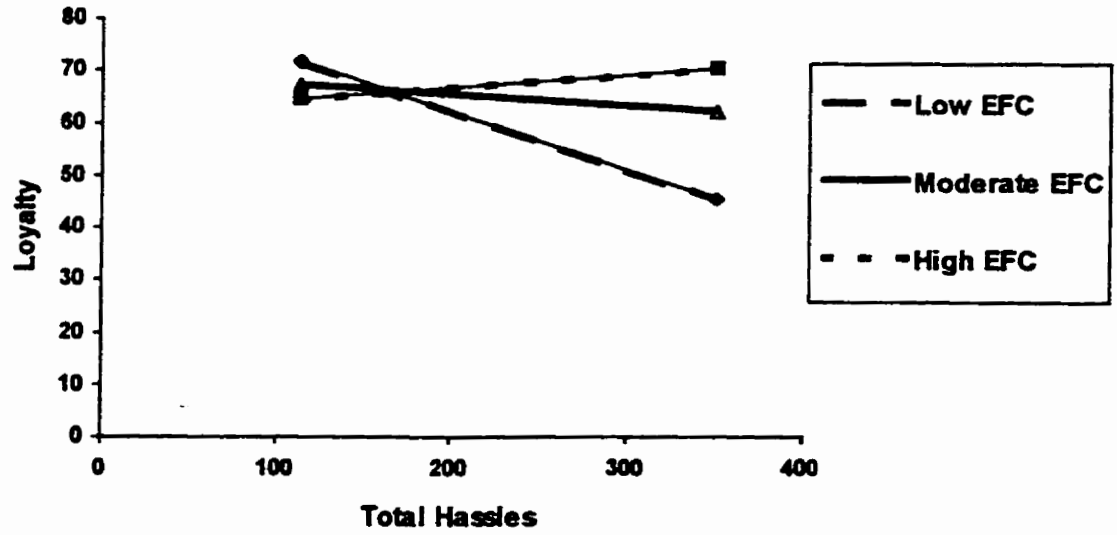



Figure 11. The relationship between total work hassles and loyalty (OCB) moderated by emotion-focused coping (EFC).

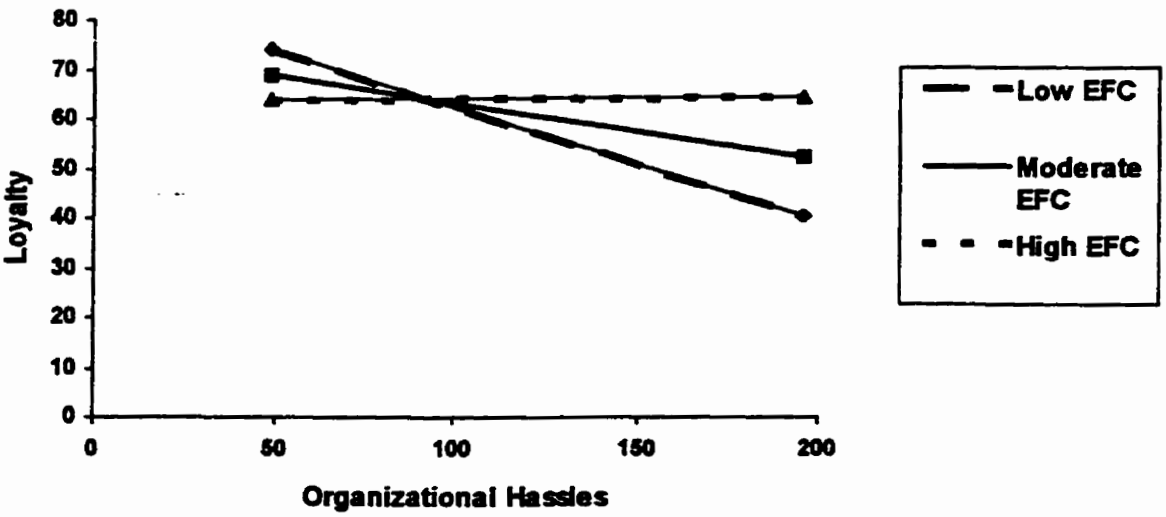



Figure 12. The relationship between organizational work hassles and loyalty (OCB) moderated by emotion-focused coping (EFC).

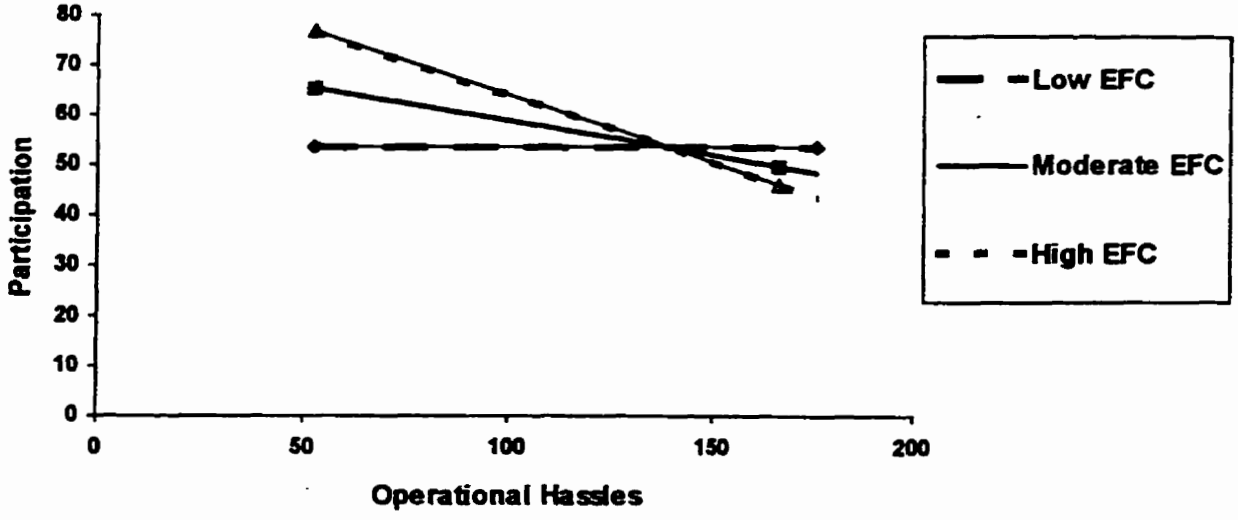
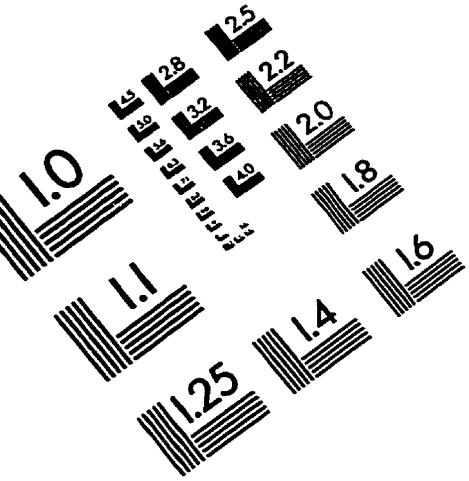
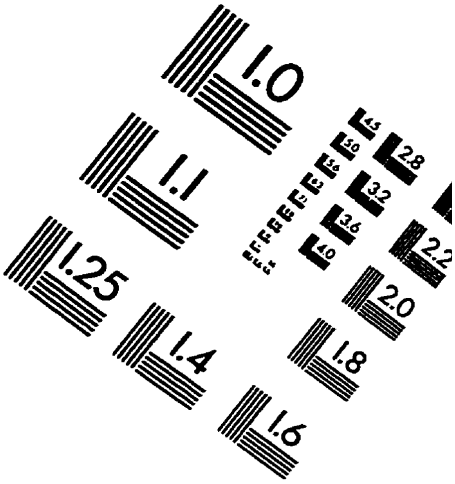
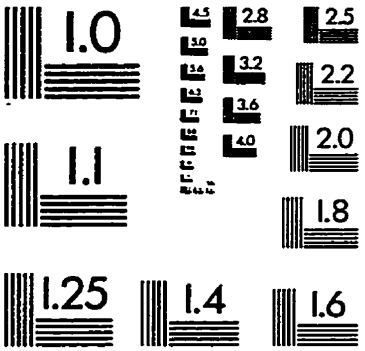


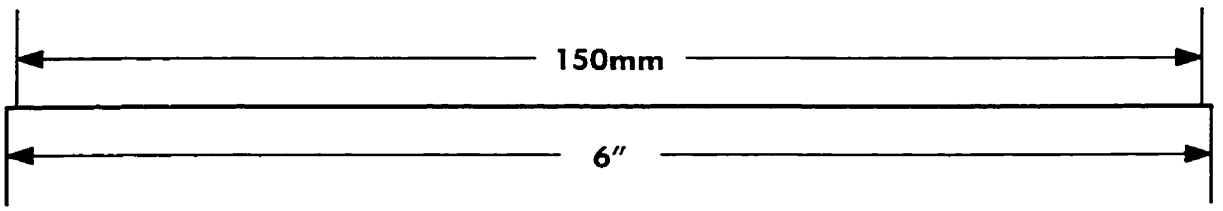

Figure 13. The relationship betwen operational work hassles and participation (OCB) moderated by emotion-focused coping (EFC).

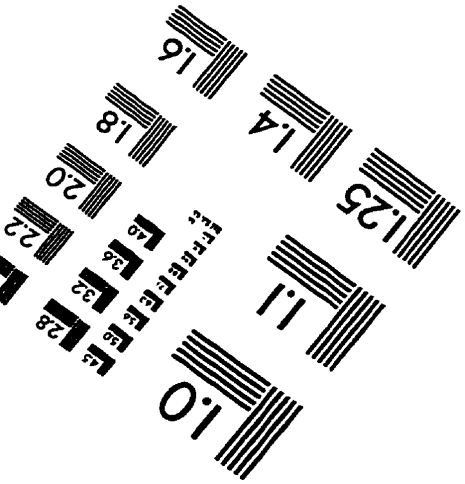
# IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)

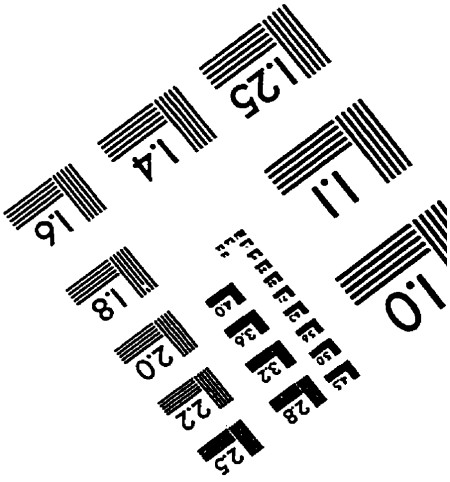



APPLIED IMAGE, Inc
1653 East Main Street
Rochester, NY 14609 USA
Phone: 716/482-0300
Fax: 716/288-5989