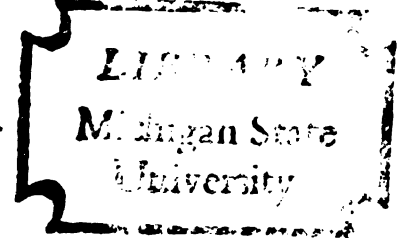


A COMPARISON OF THE BEHAVIORAL
STYLES OF POLICEMEN AND
SOCIAL WORKERS

Thesis for the Degree of Ph. D.
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY
ROBERT CHESTER TROJANOWICZ
1969



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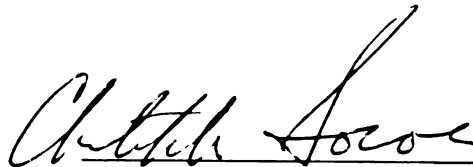
A COMPARISON OF THE BEHAVIORAL STYLES OF
POLICEMEN AND SOCIAL WORKERS

presented by

Robert Chester Trojanowicz

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

Ph.D. degree in Social Science


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Date February 26, 1969

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ABSTRACT

A COMPARISON OF THE BEHAVIORAL STYLES OF POLICEMEN AND SOCIAL WORKERS

by Robert Chester Trojanowicz

The basic purpose of this study was to determine:

(1) if the behavioral styles of policemen are different from the behavioral styles of social workers; (2) if sub-specialties of the social work profession exhibit varying behavioral styles; (3) if sub-specialties of the police profession exhibit varying behavioral styles; (4) if rank order in the particular organization, be it a police or social work organization affects behavioral styles.

Behavioral styles are the consistent ways individuals organize their physical, emotional, and energy resources. The operational definition of the term is based upon the measurements on the scales of the Job Analysis and Interest Measurement (JAIM), the instrument used in the study.

Robert Chester Trojanowicz

In order to investigate the stated purposes of the study it was necessary to distribute the JAIM to members of the police and social work professions.

A total of 200 answer sheets were completed, one hundred social workers and one hundred policemen. The answer sheets were coded by (1) occupation. (2) sub-specialty within the profession, (3) rank level within the organization, (4) age, and (5) sex.

Appropriate statistical tests such as analysis of variance and T-tests were utilized. Because there is an extensive number of scales in the instrument, thirty-four to be exact, two scales can be significant by chance alone. Therefore in order for a hypothesis to be accepted, three or more scales had to be significant at (at least) the .05 level of confidence.

The following results were obtained:

1. Twenty-five out of the thirty-four scales significantly differentiated social workers from policemen at the .01 level of confidence.

2. There was a differentiation of behavioral styles within the profession of social work depending on the rank of the person in the organization. The significant differences were at (at least) the .05 level of confidence.
3. There was a differentiation of behavioral styles within the police profession depending on the rank of the person in the organization. The significant differences were at (at least) the .05 level of confidence.
4. There was a differentiation of behavioral styles within the social work profession depending on the area of specialization. The differences were significant at (at least) the .05 level of confidence.
5. There was a differentiation of behavioral styles within the police profession depending on the area of specialization. The differences were significant at (at least) the .05 level of confidence.

A COMPARISON OF THE BEHAVIORAL STYLES OF
POLICEMEN AND SOCIAL WORKERS

By

Robert Chester Trojanowicz

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I am greatly indebted to Professor Christopher Sower, chairman of my guidance committee, for his assistance, guidance, and friendship. I also thank the other members of my committee for their help and encouragement. They are Professor Charles Press, Professor Arthur Brandstatter, and Professor Peter Manning.

A special thanks is extended to Dr. Regis Walther who permitted me to use his instrument in the study. In

addition his technical advice and publications were very helpful in the designing and implementation of this research project.

The literary works of Dr. Shirley McCune, Dr. Jerome Skolnick, and Dr. Arthur Niederhoffer were also very helpful and provided me with a great deal of insight into the social work and police professions. The general outline and some of the ideas of Chapter II should be attributed to Dr. McCune. The assistance given to me by Professor Clarence Minkel was also greatly appreciated.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Problem

From the time of the Greek Philosophers, persons have been cast into classifications of role and personality for the purpose of generalizing and interpreting their behavior. In addition to the typologies posited in the past, psychologists and social scientists have recently made many contributions to the great diversity of such typologies. Max Weber in beginning the modern era of the science of social organization made the distinction between bureaucratic and charismatic leaders. From this it has become a standard practice to "type" the people in organizations either as one homogeneous group in distinction from other people ("organization man" or "bureaucrat") or in differentiated categories such as Robert Presthus "upwardmobile" "indifferents" and "ambivalents." (Men are often typed in accordance with the organization that they are associated with and such expressions as "military mind" or "diplomatic mind" have become common phrases.)

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Even though these broad classifications may be useful and descriptive in the generalized study of society or organizations, their application is difficult and oftentimes deceptive when applied to any complex organization. As is commonly acknowledged, the human personality has too many facets--many of them hardly explored--to depict a single dimension or fixed set of characteristics. Complex organizations are too diverse in terms of the innumerable amount of roles and relationships that exist. Furthermore typologies that are applied are many times rough with ill-defined boundaries. Typologies such as "bureaucrats" or "diplomats" are often manufactured from one's own slight or occasional contacts and from what one has heard or read. Hence, the "image" or "typology" becomes so vague and generalized that reality is displaced by fantasy and subjectivity.¹

There is, however, a mounting accumulation of research literature dealing with personality

¹Frederick C. Mosher, found in Regis Walther, "Orientations and Behavioral Styles of Foreign Service Officers," Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 1965, p. xiii.

differentiation of occupational groups. Walther has shown that persons engaged in different occupations are characterized by distinctive personality patterns and sets of values.² Although the relationship between personal and occupational characteristics has only recently been delineated, Veblen alluded to this relationship when he said that the kind of work which men perform not only influences their thoughts but also is a determining factor in their relations with one another, their culture and their institutions of control.³

Waller did an early study which showed the influence of an occupation on the personality. The study was

² R. H. Walther, The Psychological Dimensions of Work (The George Washington University, Center for the Behavioral Sciences, 1964).

R. H. Walther, Orientations and Behavioral Styles of Foreign Service Officers (New York: The Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 1965).

R. H. Walther and Shirley McCune, Socialization Principles and Work Styles of the Juvenile Court (Washington, D.C.: The George Washington University, Center for the Behavioral Sciences).

³ R. M. MacIver, Society: A Textbook of Sociology (New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1937).

"What Teaching Does to Teachers." His ideas of the "teacher personality" are summarized thusly:

There is first that certain inflexibility or unbendingness of personality which is thought to mark the person who has taught. That stiff and formal manner into which the young teacher compresses himself every morning when he puts on his collar becomes, they say, a plaster cast which at length he cannot loosen. One has noticed, too, that in his personal relationship the teacher is marked by reserve As if this reserve were not in itself enough to discourage ill-considered advances, it is supplemented, when one has become very much the teacher, by certain outward barriers Along with this goes dignity . . . that consists of an abnormal concern over a restricted role and the restricted but well defined status that goes with it The didactic manner, the authoritarian manner, the flat assured tone of voice that go with them, are bred in a teacher by his dealings in the classroom . . . and it is said these traits are carried over by the teacher to his personal relations If these traits . . . are found among the generality of teachers, it is because these traits have survival value in the schools of today. If one does not have them when he joins the faculty, he must develop them or die the academic death.⁴

There is still much speculation in the area of labeling and typing professions and the people who enter them. Some persons speculate that extroverts are drawn

⁴Quoted in Krech, et al., Individual and Society (New York: McGraw Hill, 1962). The original source is Willard Walter Waller, The Sociology of Teaching, New York, Russell and Russell, 1961.

to the sales profession. Others believe that the job molds individuals into extroverts. Until recently discussions on this and similar topics were manytimes not only speculative but highly subjective. Of late it has been generally recognized that both forces, psychological predisposition and learned behavior while on the job, operate to some degree. Just as the individual brings certain personal characteristics such as attitudes, preferences and values to the job so is an individual's work environment a distinctive sub-culture within the general culture of his society. As Walther points out, "in the development of a professional culture, values and behavioral norms become established which, through attraction or repulsion, formal and informal selections and reinforcement patterns, produce the profession's distinctive psychological climate."⁵ The adjustment of an individual to this climate constitutes a process of professional socialization. An example of the process by which an individual changes to maintain congruence with the "significant

⁵Regis H. Walther, The Psychological Dimensions of Work (The George Washington University, Center for the Behavioral Sciences, 1964).

others" who are about him is when a person enters a new occupation. When an individual takes on the norms, values, and interests of the group with which he is a member, he is being socialized.

Socialization is based

on shared assumptions within the profession regarding the ideal philosophy, the ideal set of behavior, and the ideal person for the profession. The resultant personality structure consists of those interests, attitudes, values, modes of relating to others and other characteristics that make the individual maximally receptive to the cultural ways and ideologies of his profession, that enable him to achieve adequate gratification and security within the profession.⁶

Because, as just pointed out, it is not sufficient to study the personality or jobs apart from one another, research has to emphasize and consider both the professional cultural context and the psychological predispositions of members of the profession. The structure of an occupation provides a framework for the carrying out of a social role. The individual's interests, activities, and personality structure are also important in the

⁶R. Walther, S. McCune, and P. Petersen, "The Shaping of Professional Subcultures: A Study of Student Groups from Five Professions," unpublished paper.

individual's performance of the particular role. When the occupational system and the individual system are interactive and form a style of behavior which is unique to a particular profession, then this provides a level of analysis.

Although there has been much attention given to a child's socialization into society⁷ there has been little emphasis placed on how an adult adjusts to new systems throughout his life and how he is being constantly socialized into new systems.

It is possible for role change to bring about some change in behavior. More importantly, most roles provide an opportunity for the adaption of personal behavioral styles to the role. Most occupational socialization of the individual is not the result of formal contacts that transpire. Most socialization results from informal interaction with members of the profession or through various media that provide information about the profession (professional

⁷Ibid. (Also see references for footnote number 1.)

schools, literature, etc.). "The extent to which the learner internalizes the values and norms of the profession is a highly significant aspect of the worker's development."⁸ This topic will be elaborated upon in Chapter Two.

There has been much and varied discussion as to how an occupation is selected. For example, Caplow believes that

except for that tiny minority whose occupational choices are crystalized in childhood or early adolescence, choices occur at the points where they are built into the educational system. Under the emerging system of occupational determination complete passivity on the part of the student is itself a choice. If he does not elect the appropriate subjects in his early years of high school, he rejects in effect the occupations for which college training is required. If he omits the natural sciences in favor of the social sciences, he eliminates himself as a candidate for thousands of industrial jobs, and if he ignores both of them he will never be qualified for the beginning ranks in government service.⁹

⁸Barbara K. Varley, "Socialization in Social Work Education," Social Work (July, 1963, vol. 8, no. 3), p. 102.

⁹Theodore Caplow, The Sociology of Work (University of Minneapolis Press, St. Paul: North Central Publishing Co., 1954), p. 220.

Caplow, then feels that occupational choices are not made under real working conditions but they are made in the classroom under the influence of the school curriculum. He states that one is never sure of his occupational choice even after that choice has been made.¹⁰

Caplow reports on interdisciplinary studies that have concluded that the choice of an occupation is a subjective process and part of the achievement of maturity. These studies hypothesize that occupational choice is a process. The process takes place in periods or stages and extends over a lengthy period of time. There are three major stages in the process which extends from early childhood to late adulthood. The occupational choice begins with fantasy, extends to a period of tentative choice and then culminates in a realistic choice in adulthood.¹¹

¹⁰Ibid., p. 223.

¹¹Ibid., p. 226.

The empirical work undertaken in connection with this study, and I might add, many other studies, is limited and inconclusive and as Caplow himself states,

The presentation of periods and stages should be considered as hypotheses about individual development and not as a set of findings. As such even studies that emphasize process take the place of a considerable number of vague psycho-analytical pronouncements (e.g., many adolescents sublimate their sadistic impulses by turning to surgery or other naively conceived studies).¹²

Caplow, however, is himself vague when he attempts to explain the process whereby an adult chooses an occupation. He alludes to psychological predispositions but loses clarity when he mentions that realistic choices typically involve the abandonment of old aspirations in favor of more limited objectives.

He seems to ignore the possibility in our society for many and varied opportunities for the selection or rejection of different or similar occupational settings.

He does acknowledge that in some sense it is only a temporary abandonment of aspirations.

With the crystallization of occupational choice, the youth looks around for the means which lie

¹²Ibid., p. 227.

at hand and these are initially humble. But crystallizations of this sort are often impermanent. Closer acquaintance with the occupational milieu may eventually recreate some of the conditions of the transition stage. In other words, the realistic choice is not, especially for the mobile middle class functionary --the final period of development as far as occupational projections are concerned. Instead a continuous process of alternately lowering and raising goals will be initiated. Not until late in his career will the average man be able to sum up his total expectations with some degree of finality and measure them against his remaining aspirations so as to arrive at a permanent sense of frustration, a permanent glow of complacency, or an irregular oscillation from one to the other.¹³

Caplow's work is cited because it illustrates and typifies the general vagueness that exists in terms of whether there is an interaction between the qualities of the individual and the shaping influences of occupational or professional sub-cultures to produce a distinguishable style of behavior that is unique to the particular profession or professions being studied.

Research should be able to delineate the effects and ramifications of these influences and in particular be able to determine if these mentioned influences produce a distinctive "type" of person in a given profession.

¹³ Ibid., p. 228.

The following is an exploratory study of the measured behavioral styles of persons in the social work profession versus persons in the police profession. Measured behavioral styles refer to the consistent ways an individual organizes his physical, emotional, and energy resources. For the purpose of this study, behavioral styles are those characteristics which are hypothesized to be relevant to job functioning and the formulation and measurement of these styles is obtained through the use of the Job Analysis and Interest Measurement (JAIM), a self-report instrument. The instrument will be described in Chapter Four.¹⁴

This study will attempt to test the commonality of behavioral styles of persons within the professions of social work and the police. It will more importantly, however, also test the differences between the two professions. As alluded to previously, it is believed that each profession has, over a period of time, developed shared interests, characteristic norms and values. Once established, this frame of reference is transmitted through

¹⁴The instrument was developed by Regis Walther of the George Washington University Social Research Group.

the forces of attraction of people to the profession and the socialization process which ensues.

Because the major emphasis of this study is an attempt to identify and distinguish behavioral styles of persons functioning "on the job," the study is not designed to differentiate between those behavioral style factors that are the result of the socialization process and those factors that are the result of pre-socialization personality factors. The total behavioral style will be evaluated and then compared with the appropriate categories.

This study does not propose to examine the cumulative process of commitment to a profession. As previously mentioned it involves only an evaluation of behavioral styles by the use of a self-report instrument and will not corroborate the results by such means as participant observation, a check of personnel records, or by evaluations by supervisors. Future research could study the problem by the use of the above mentioned methods.

In a study undertaken by Galen Gockel in 1961, students were asked retrospectively to reveal times of choice and decision of an occupation, social values, and

attitudes toward work and an orientation toward social work as a career. They were also asked about plans for employment and graduate training and a variety of background and demographic characteristics. The students were subsequently asked the same types of questions in 1962, 1963, and 1964.¹⁵

Correlates of recruitment and retention to the work were examined and social values such as helping people, liking people and early choice of an occupation were found important correlates of a stated orientation to social work as a career.¹⁶

In a related research proposal by Peter Manning, a somewhat different perspective is taken. He proposes to study a set of behaviors of social work and medical students over time in contrast to Gockel's retrospective study.¹⁷ Gockel did not analyze the process of career

¹⁵Galen Gockel, Silk Stockings and Blue Collar: Social Work as a Career Choice of America's 1961 College Graduate, National Opinion Research Center, University of Chicago, April, 1966.

¹⁶Peter K. Manning, "A Comparative Study of Medical and Social Work Students at Michigan State University," an unpublished research proposal.

¹⁷Ibid.

choice but viewed persons who had already made choices. Manning proposes the former.

Gockel's study and Manning's research proposal are mentioned to illustrate the different research approaches that are available when occupations are being studied. The stated objectives of this study preceeded the description of the above-mentioned study and study proposal.

The specific purposes of the study are:

1. To determine if the behavioral styles of social workers are different when compared to policemen.
2. To determine if sub-specialties (juvenile division, patrol division, crime laboratory division, and training division) of the police profession exhibit varying behavioral styles.
3. To determine if sub-specialties (persons in the Mental Health Department, the Social Service Department, the school system and private agencies) of the social work profession exhibit varying behavioral styles.

4. To determine if rank order in the particular organization, be it a social work or a police organization, affects behavioral styles.

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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Professions have been studied from various viewpoints and in fact there are many different and legitimate ways to approach them. McCune¹⁸ was successful in studying the social work profession from the standpoint of social systems and social role. She discussed the social work profession as a form of social system. The present study will approach the police and social work professions in somewhat the same manner. The discussion of social systems and social role will however be more brief and will be mentioned only to illustrate that a social role cannot be viewed apart from other social roles or their connection with the social system. The following brief discussion of roles and social system will provide a basis for a discussion of the police and social work professions as forms of social systems. Occupational socialization

¹⁸ Shirley D. McCune, "An Exploratory Study of the Measured Behavioral Styles of Students in Five Schools of Social Work" (An unpublished Doctoral dissertation, presented to the Catholic University of America, 1966).

will also be briefly discussed to illustrate the interaction between societal forces and personal characteristics.

Social Systems and Social Role

Many theorists have considered social role theory as being basic for the study and integration of the behavioral sciences.¹⁹ Social role theory has been used by sociologists, psychologists, and anthropologists. The particular emphasis taken in each case of course reflects the particular theorist's field of specialization.

Even though this concept has much potential and looks very promising it is still quite vague and possibly this is the reason why it has been so malleable to the many disciplines within the social science field.

*Furthermore, the concept of role cannot be viewed in isolation from other interacting forces. Linton has stated that

¹⁹ Ibid.

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the interpersonal relations which are of such paramount importance in the formation of personality cannot be understood except with reference to the positions which the individuals involved occupy in the structural system of their society. It is also impossible to understand or delimit the individual's culturally ascribed rights and obligations without taking this system into account. Conversely, the structure of any society is itself a part of the society's culture and many of its features cannot be understood except in relation to the organization of that culture as a whole.²⁰

Parsons' discussion of a social system illustrates that a social role cannot be viewed apart from other social roles. When social roles are combined and connected a social system is formed.²¹ Parsons defines a social system as

a plurality of individual actors interacting with each other in a situation which has at least a physical or environmental aspect, actors who are motivated in terms of a tendency to the "optimization of gratification" and whose relation to their situations including each other is defined and mediated in terms of a system of culturally structured and shared symbols.²²

²⁰ Ralph Linton, The Cultural Background of Personality (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1945), p. xvii.

²¹ Talcott Parsons, The Social System (Glencoe: The Free Press, 1951), pp. 5-6.

²² Ibid.

Hern has been noted for his discussion of the properties of systems. His basic thesis is that there are layers of systems which operate in an environment which helps the systems function in unison so that they can maintain themselves in a steady state.²³

There has not been unanimous agreement when social role is discussed. [Lambert and Lambert believe that social role serves "as a unit for the analysis of social organizations and the structure of the role is largely invariant, regardless of individuals."²⁴] Linton looks at social role as the ["collection of rights and duties of a social position."²⁵]

Goffman is at odds with Linton and does not feel, unlike Linton, that the individual should be the focal point of attention but that it is the individual enacting his bundle of obligatory action which should be in the primary focus.

²³ Gordon Hern, Theory Building in Social Work (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1958), p. 4.

²⁴ William W. Lambert and Wallace E. Lambert, Social Psychology (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964), p. 45.

²⁵ Ralph Linton, The Study of Man (New York: Appleton-Century Company, 1936), pp. 113-114.

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The system or pattern borrows only a part of the individual, and what he does or is at other times and places is not, the first concern. The "role others" for whom he performs similarly represent only slices of these others. Presumably his contribution and their contribution, differentiated and interdependent, fit together into a single assemblage of activity, this system or pattern being the real concern of role analysis.²⁶

Goffman also feels that the various performances of role can be analyzed and distinguished by looking at the commitment, attachment, and embracement of the particular person to the role.²⁷

Kretch and Crutchfield's concept that "the roles which the individual performs in his various groups both reflect and enduringly shape his personality"²⁸ has much meaning for the present study.

Mason and McEachern add some clarity to the concept of role because they attempt to combine the common properties which exist in most definitions of role. They mention that all of the various role definitions have

²⁶ Erving Goffman, Encounters (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1961), pp. 86-87.

²⁷ Ibid.; also McCune, op. cit., p. 11.

²⁸ David Kretch, Richard S. Crutchfield, and Egerton L. Ballachey, Individual in Society (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1962), p. 529.

certain elements in common. [These elements are that individuals in social locations behave according to certain expectations.²⁹]

McCune summarizes the role concept very adequately when she states that

while we recognize role or the pattern of wants and goals, beliefs, feelings, attitudes, values and actions which members of a community expect should characterize the typical occupant of a position, it is also recognized that the point of vantage or the context of the social system from which we view the individual will determine the perceptions of the appropriateness of the role.³⁰

* In summary by way of the previous discussion it has been illustrated that the concept of role although showing much promise and being very adaptable to the various social science disciplines is nevertheless somewhat of an ambiguous concept. Furthermore if the concept is viewed apart from social systems it loses much of its force and meaningfulness.

²⁹ Neal Gross, Ward S. Mason, and Alexander W. McEachern, Explorations in Role Analysis (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1958), p. 17.

³⁰ Shirley D. McCune, "An Exploratory Study of the Measured Behavioral Styles of Students in Five Schools of Social Work" (An unpublished Doctoral dissertation, presented to the Catholic University of America, 1966), p. 10.

In short then, social roles are embedded in social systems and society is composed of interacting and interlocking systems. These systems have sets of relationships to both sub-systems and super-systems.

Occupations as a Form of Social System

The occupation serves as a means for man to not only earn a livelihood but to more importantly express himself. McCune insightfully points out that

the degree to which the individual finds outlets for his abilities, interests, personality traits and values will markedly influence not only the extent to which he obtains work satisfaction, but also life satisfaction. In the work situation the individual plays the kinds of role which interests him, which makes use of his abilities and to which he attributes importance. In these optimum situations the individual utilizes the occupational role as the means for self-actualization.³¹

Early in his writing, Durkheim recognized the importance of the occupation as a social system. He concluded that

³¹ Shirley D. McCune, "An Exploratory Study of the Measured Behavioral Styles of Students in Five Schools of Social Work" (An unpublished Doctoral dissertation, presented to the Catholic University of America, 1966), p. 16.

a nation can be maintained only if, between the state and the individual, there is intercolated a whole series of secondary groups near enough to the individuals to attract them strongly in their sphere of action and drag them in this way, into the general torrent of social life. We have just shown how occupational groups are suited to fill this role and that is their destiny.³²

Caplow believes that in any complex society mutual dependence of highly specialized and differentiated occupational groups helps maintain the society.³³

Super and Goblott discuss occupations in terms of their effects on the individual and the ramifications for his self-concept. Super³⁴ feels that one of the most important decisions an individual makes in his life is the choice of an occupation. A chosen occupation is, in addition to earning a livelihood, a way of life or more specifically a social role. In addition, Super places great emphasis on the fact that because an individual becomes

³² Emile Durkheim, "The Solidarity of Occupational Groups," Theories of Society, Talcott Parsons, Edward Shils, Kaspar D. Naegle, and Jesse R. Pitts (eds.) (New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1961), p. 362.

³³ Theodore Caplow, The Sociology of Work (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1954), p. 4.

³⁴ Donald E. Super, The Psychology of Careers (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957), p. 33.

identified with his occupation, social status, and style of life are dependent upon that occupation and its ensuing rewards.³⁵

Goblot like Super feels that an occupation determines what type of mode of life the individual will encounter. Furthermore, he feels that persons in the same occupation began to imitate one another because of their close proximity and the frequency on their associations.³⁶

Hughes has done a great deal of writing relating to occupations as systems and he also provides a link between occupations and professions. In reference to the former he feels that whether systems are large or small, simple or complex, an occupation is not only a set of activities it is a part of a set of ongoing activities of which individuals are a part. In terms of positions in an occupation Hughes feels that many different

³⁵ Donald E. Super and John O. Crites, Appraising Vocational Fitness (New York: Harper and Row, 1962), p. 408.

³⁶ Edmond Goblot, "Class and Occupation," Theories of Society, Talcott Parsons, Edward Shils, Kaspar D. Naeglele, and Jesse R. Pitts (eds.) (New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1961), p. 535.

relationships exist. ^N The relationships may be formal or informal, distant or close, frequent or rare.³⁷

"The essential is that the occupation is the place ordinarily filled by one person in an organization or a complex of efforts and activities."³⁸

In his discussion of the link between occupations and professions Hughes mentions that the occupation gives the incumbent the license to carry out certain activities in exchange for mainly money. The activities carried out are usually different for different occupations. In addition, members of occupations set up, either implicitly or explicitly, standards of behavior and modes of conduct. In many cases members of occupations will go so far as to try to dictate beliefs and values "for the body societal and politic with respect to some broad areas of life which they believe to be in their occupational domain. Professions,

³⁷ Everett Cherrington Hughes, "The Study of Occupations," Sociology Today, Robert Merton, Leonard Broom, and Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr. (eds.) (New York: Basic Books, 1959), p. 445.

³⁸ Ibid., p. 445.

perhaps more than other kinds of occupation, also claim a broad legal, moral, and intellectual mandate. Not only do the practitioners, by virtue of gaining admission to the charmed circle of the profession, individually exercise a license to do things others do not do but collectively they presume to tell society what is good and right for it in a broad and crucial aspect of life."³⁹

Greenwood has mentioned how professions have even a greater effect on the individual than occupations. In addition to a systematic body of theory and authority provided by society, professions usually abide by a set of ethical codes and have community sanction for their activities.⁴⁰

³⁹ Everett Cherrington Hughes, "The Study of Occupations," Sociology Today, Robert Merton, Leonard Broom, and Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr. (eds.) (New York: Basic Books, 1959), p. 447.

⁴⁰ Earnest Greenwood, "Attributes of a Profession," Social Work, vol. 2, no. 3 (July, 1957), pp. 45-55; also McCune, op. cit., p. 15.

The existence of occupational systems can vividly be seen when we consider the fact that individuals in different occupations have different attitudes, interests, and values. In studies that have utilized the Strong Vocational Interest Blank there has been an indication that interest scores do predict future occupational activity.⁴¹

The Strong Vocational Interest Blank was developed in 1928 and has been evaluated extensively on a long-term basis. It has found that persons engaged in similar occupations tend to have common interests in school and job activities and social relations and hobbies, etc. A personal profile could be compared with other profiles in similar and dissimilar occupations. A follow-up study of the Interest Blank showed that the chances were 3.5 to 1 that a man who was given an "A" for a particular occupation would be employed in that specific occupation 18 years later. A person with a "C" had a 5 to 1 chance that he would not be so employed.⁴²

⁴¹Edward K. Strong, Jr., "An Eighteen-Year Longitudinal Report on Interest," The Strong Vocational Interest Blank, ed. 1962, Wilbur L. Layton (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1962), p. 17.

⁴²Ibid., p. 18.

Kelly and Goldberg (1959) conducted a study of clinical psychologists and in their follow-up study found that measures used in their original studied distinguished among subspecialties ten years later. There was a major difference between the way therapists and teachers scored on the various scales of the instrument. For example, teachers scored high on such scales as intropsychic conflict, curiosity, creativity, and childhood rebelliousness. Therapists scored high on measures of altruism and low on conventionality and exploitiveness. Furthermore persons performing administrative functions scored low on scales which measured childhood rebelliousness, curiosity, scientific interest, and creativity and high on scales which measured such things as social conventionality and exploitiveness.⁴³

Terman also conducted a longitudinal study of gifted children. In a follow-up study a comparison was made between men who eventually became physical scientists with those specializing in social sciences, law, or

⁴³E. L. Kelly and L. R. Goldberg, "Correlates of Later Performance and Specializations in Psychology," Psychology Monographs, 1959, 73. See also Walther, McCune, and Petersen, op. cit., p. 3.

humanities. Significant differences were found on a number of variables. Some of these were an early evidence of ability or interest in science by the scientific group and higher scores on social adjustment for the non-scientific group.⁴⁴

As a result of these longitudinal studies and others by Rosenberg (1957) there seems to be an indication that values, interest, and attitudes play an important part in the choice of an occupation.⁴⁵

There has been much disagreement in the area of interests tests however. Caplow, for example, believes that

there is something absurd in giving a test of interests. Interests, by definition, represents areas of high motivation. It might be maintained that anyone who is not already aware of his own interests but must take an examination to determine what they are, is in fact devoid of any real interests. There is undoubtedly some truth in this argument. Those for whom interest measurement is designed

⁴⁴Terman, et al., Genetic Studies of Genius, Vol. I: Mental and Physical Traits of a Thousand Gifted Children (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1925).

⁴⁵Regis Walther, Shirley McCune, and Peter Petersen, "The Shaping of Professional Subcultures: A Study of Student Groups from Five Professions," an unpublished paper.

are not usually characterized by powerful and well-defined motivations. However, the fact that occupational choices must often be made long before a career can be begun and far from the environment of the occupation itself, necessarily reduces the intensity of interests. If a place in the work world must be chosen by schoolboys who know neither the world nor themselves very well, it is perhaps reasonable that they take a pencil and paper test to discover their own inclinations.⁴⁶

He further states,

In spite of the great number of painstaking researches on the Vocational Interest Inventory, the results have consisted of dubious validity. In spite of the variety of items included, most of the weight in the final score for any occupation is actually derived from direct statements of preference for the occupation itself and for allied activities.⁴⁷

Walther⁴⁸ adds that, "in general, attempts to measure the extent of the relationship between aspects and attributes of the individual and his possible success in a given occupation have been measured by tests of ability, interest, and personality. Although many of these leads have been promising the research has been scattered, and comparative explorations have not been undertaken."

⁴⁶Caplow, op. cit., p. 221.

⁴⁷Ibid., p. 222.

⁴⁸Walther, "Behavioral Styles for Foreign Service Officers," op. cit., p.

One recurrent theme in much of the research is the frequent curvilinear relationship between job performance and intelligence; and between job performance and personality characteristics. Although a minimal level of a particular trait or quality is correlated with performance, the extreme scores may correlate negatively with the criterion or not add to the strength of the prediction.⁴⁹

As a result of research by Walther and others it has been learned that performance and interests are not necessarily related. A person can do something well and not particularly like it. Conversely, a person may be interested in something yet not be adept at doing it. [In the final analysis, lack of satisfaction will likely influence functioning performance. (This may not be true, however, for strongly disciplined individuals.)

There are in addition to knowledge, ability, and interests, other personal qualities that have a great influence on whether a person succeeds or fails in a given occupation or profession. It has been

⁴⁹ Regis H. Walther, The Psychological Dimensions of Work (Washington, D.C.: Center for the Behavioral Sciences, 1964), pp. 15-65.

observed and stated that specific abilities or interests are not as much a factor in work failures as are certain personality variables. These qualities are many times very complex and are often described in ways that refer to the person's not being able to "get along with people." Interviews, reference checks, and other like methods have not been successful in identifying these various personality variables. Reference checks and the other mentioned procedures are, of course, important but they do not go far enough.

Even though it is recognized that personality factors influence performance, there is little evidence that existing personality and interest inventories are equipped to measure these relevant variables.⁵⁰

Asastasi has discussed occupational interests in relation to various personality patterns.

At best, what occupational differences have been found in personality patterns represent group trends. For many kinds of work, one could probably write personality sketches that would roughly fit a majority of persons in that occupation. This sort of information is useful in counseling insofar as it gives the counselee

⁵⁰Walther, loc. cit.

some idea of the kind of person with whom he is likely to associate if he chooses a given type of work. But, within any occupational group, the range of individual differences is fully as wide in personality variables as it is in aptitudes. Nor are these differences necessarily associated with different degrees of success. The breadth and flexibility of most occupations are such that different persons choose specialties (as in medicine or law) that are consonant with their own needs, interests, and values. Even a single job can often be structured by the individual to fit his own aptitude and personality pattern. Moreover, the same jobs in different companies or under different supervisors may call for very different personality traits.⁵¹

Thus the selection of an occupation and the following behavior of members of that occupation is affected by the person's personality structure, his interests, and activities and the context within which he operates. For the purpose of the present study the interaction of the occupational system and the individual system as they produce a distinctive behavioral style will be of interest.

There is a constant attempt by the person to acquire a state of equilibrium between his occupational system and his individual system. The concept often cited is adjustment or congruence. "The individual is seen as

⁵¹Ann Anastasi, Fields of Applied Psychology (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964), p. 23.

an active agent in maintaining a stable interpersonal environment."⁵² "Mechanisms which are used to maintain congruence are selective perception of environmental cues, selective interaction (interacts most frequently with those who are like him) selective evaluation of the other person, selective evaluation of self and evocation of congruent responses."⁵³

Interests, values, and attitudes have a tendency to maintain a degree of stability because the social structure helps maintain the environment of the individual. In great part it determines who the person associates with, what is expected of the person, and finally helps form the person's own conception of himself. "The likelihood of encounters with others which would require modification of self and behavior are limited."⁵⁴

An individual, however, does not remain static throughout his life. He does go through a period of modification when he moves through various occupational

⁵² Paul F. Secord and Carl W. Backman, Social Psychology (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964), pp. 576-602.

⁵³ McCune, op. cit., p. 19.

⁵⁴ Ibid., p. 19.

systems as he becomes of age. He takes on new roles which help establish him in the occupational sphere. As mentioned earlier, when the individual takes on interests, values, and norms of the new group with which he is seeking identification we call this the process of socialization.

Occupational Socialization

Stern, Stein, and Bloom believe that the socialization process helps a person adjust to his environment. Certain types of behaviors are emulated and others rejected so that identification with the group is facilitated and adjustment made less painful.⁵⁵

To reiterate a point made earlier in the thesis, the adult often faces many changes throughout his life. Hence, the necessity to adjust to new systems. The point to be made, however, is that even though each role change brings about some change in behavior, most roles provide

⁵⁵George G. Stern, Morris I. Stein, and Benjamin S. Bloom, Methods in Personality Assessment (New York: The Free Press, 1963).

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an opportunity for adopting the role to personal behavioral styles. George Mead discusses roles and personal behavioral styles when he mentions that even though all roles organize behavior, some roles are much more important in integrating the personality.

Roles become a part of a person's conception of himself and they influence the way he interprets the world around him. The major roles of sex, family, and occupation may even construct his ability to be objective or prevent him from acting in ways that would be alien to these major or critical roles.⁵⁶

In terms of the socialization process and its complexity Varley points out that learning new behavior patterns and skills is only a minor part of the socialization process. Socialization also includes crystalizing role expectations, reorganizing the self-image and being convinced that the values governing the new role are legitimate and good.⁵⁷

⁵⁶ Leonard Broom and Phillip Selznick, Sociology (New York: Row Peterson and Co., 1958), p. 98. The original reference is George H. Mead, Mind, Self and Society (ed. C. H. Morris) Univ. of Chicago Press, 1934.

⁵⁷ Barbara K. Varley, "Socialization in Social Work Education," Proceedings, Sixth Annual Program Meeting, Council on Social Work Education (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1958), p. 20

Levinson has given a comprehensive analysis of Role, Personality, and Social Structure in the Organization Setting. A few of his comments will be appropriate at this point, because he makes a primary distinction between the structurally given role-demands and the forms of role-definition achieved by the individual members of an organization.

Personal role-definition becomes a linking concept between personality and social structure. It can be seen as a reflection of those aspects of individual personality that are activated and sustained in a given structural-ecological environment. This view is opposed to both extremes of either the "psychologizing" or the "socializing" of the organizational structure. At the same time, it is concerned with both the psychological properties of social structure and the structural properties of individual adoption.⁵⁸

Levinson also differs with the concept that incumbents of a given position will necessarily exhibit like behavioral styles. He comments that "where individual variations in patterns of role-performance have been investigated, several modal types rather than a single

⁵⁸ Daniel Levinson, "Personality and Social Structure in the Organizational Setting," J. of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 58 (1958), 172-177.

dominant pattern were found.⁵⁹ He cites the studies of Argyis and Greenblatt, et al.⁶⁰

Levinson also comments that too often the prevailing image of the organization has been that of a mechanical apparatus operating impersonally once it is set in motion by administrative edict. The prevailing conception of social role is consonant with this image: the individual member is regarded as a cog in the apparatus, what he thinks and does being solely determined by requirements in the organizational structure.⁶¹

Furthermore, he states, "When social structure and personality fail to mesh, it is assumed to be personality alone that gives. Structure is the prime, uncaused, cause."⁶²

The point he continually emphasizes is that role behavior for all participants in an organization may not follow the simple role-behavior models that have typified discussions in this area.

⁵⁹ Ibid., p. 177.

⁶⁰ D. Levinson and R. Williams and M. Greenblatt (eds.), The Patient and the Mental Hospital (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1957), p. 179.

C. Argyis, Personality and Organization (New York: Harper, 1959).

⁶¹ Levinson, op. cit., p. 170.

⁶² Ibid., p. 172.

It is assumed that structural norms, individual role-conceptions and individual role-performance are three isomorphic reflections of a single entity: the role appropriate to a given organizational position. The unitary conception of social role is unrealistic and theoretically constricting.⁶³

Part of the thesis of this study is that there are behavioral style differences between persons within the same profession, depending on their place in the organizational hierarchy and their area of specialization. Levinson as mentioned in the above paragraph believes that differences also occur among occupants of the same position.

In attempting to characterize the role-requirements for a given position, one must therefore guard against the assumption that they are unified and logically coherent. There may be major differences and even contradictions between official norms, as defined by character or by administrative authority, and the "informal" norms held by various groupings within the organization. Moreover, within a given status group, such as the top administrators, there may be several conflicting viewpoints concerning long-range goals, current policies, and specific role-requirements. In short, the structural demands themselves are often multiple and disunified.⁶⁴

⁶³Ibid., p. 173.

⁶⁴Ibid., p. 174.

He feels that the most significant properties of an organization are

the degree of coherence among the structurally defined role-requirements, the degree of consensus with which they are held and the degree of individual choice they allow (the range of acceptable alternatives).⁶⁵

In terms of the relationship between sociological and psychological factors in an organization he points out that

every social structure confronts its members with adaptive dilemmas. If we are to comprehend this aspect of organizational life, we must conceive of social structure as having intrinsically psychological properties, as making complex psychological demands that affect and are affected by the personalities of its members.⁶⁶

At times Levinson had difficulty reconciling the integration of the individual personality and the social structure. He concludes that because of the diversity of individual backgrounds it follows that not all incumbents of organizational positions will think alike. He tends to forget at times that persons with similar psychological predispositions are lively to be attracted to similar organizational structures.

⁶⁵Ibid., p. 175.

⁶⁶Ibid., p. 175.

He states,

After all, individual role-conceptions are formed only partially within the present organizational setting. The individual's ideas about his occupational role are influenced by childhood experiences, by his values and other personal characteristics, by formal education and apprenticeship and the like. The ideas of various potential reference groups within and outside of the organization are available through reading, informal contacts, etc. There is reason to expect, then, that the role-conceptions of individuals in a given organizational position will vary and will not always conform to official role-requirements. Both the diversities and the modal patterns must be considered in organizational analysis.⁶⁷

The major point that Levinson tried to make was that individual role-conception and role-performance do not emanate, full formed, from the depths of the personality, nor are they simply mirror images of a mold established by the social structure. This is an insightful theses and supports many of the other theorists cited in this study. Levinson's desire to make this point, however, causes him to become superfluous in his discussion with the resulting effect that his presentation is more complicated than is necessary at times. He loses sight of his main objective by overemphasizing the fact that

⁶⁷Ibid., p. 176.

role incumbents can have different attitudes, desires, and motivations.

Regardless of the particular theorist's specific point of view, it is evident that most believe that there is an interaction between the occupational system and the individual system and that the resultant different systems exhibit varying and distinguishable qualities. If this is in fact true, then the present study should make a differentiation between behavioral styles of occupants of different professions. A distinction should also be possible between persons of the same profession but with a different area of specialization and position in the organizational hierarchy.

With this in mind the policeman's and social worker's occupational systems, their working mileaus and their "working personalities" will be discussed so as to provide background information and a perspective with which to view the two mentioned occupations. The following discussion will, in addition to describing the characteristics of the two professions, provide a basis and a rationale for the development of the hypotheses and assumptions of the study.

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Studies of Policemen

Until comparatively recent times, law enforcement and protection of life and property amounted to self-enforcement and self-protection. When police forces were finally established in the 19th century the public, in effect, delegated its law enforcement power to a relative handful of professional guardians.

The policeman has been described in many and various ways but the description given him by Niederhofer is most illuminating.

The policeman is a "Rorschach" in uniform as he patrols his beat. His occupational accouterments--shield, nightstick, gun and summons book, clothe him in a mantle of symbolism that stimulates fantasy and projection. Children identify with him in the perennial game of "cops and robbers." Teenagers in auto's stiffen with compulsive rage or anxiety at the sight of the patrol car. To people in trouble, the police officer is the savior. In another metomorphosis, the patrolman becomes a fierce ogre that mothers conjure up to frighten their disobedient youngsters. At one moment, the policeman is hero, the next, monster.⁶⁸

Until recently, sociology was also guilty of neglecting the police institution as a topic

⁶⁸ Arthur Niederhoffer, Behind the Shield (New York: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1967), p. 1.

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for scientific research. (In the twenty-five year period from 1940 to 1965 only six articles remotely concerned with the police were published in the American Journal of Sociology and the American Sociological Review.) Although it offered a made-to-order case of institutional split personality, with the additional interesting feature that the occupation was in the throes of a crusade to raise its lower-class status to that of a respected profession. Obviously, this involved problems of bureaucracy, professionalization, ideology, role conflict, social control, and occupational anomie--all subjects close to the heart and art of the sociologist.⁶⁹

Niederhoffer believes that if the law-enforcement occupation is successful in obtaining the status of a respected profession, it will be a Horatio Alger story.

The great stumbling block is its traditionally low status in our culture. A warped conception of policemen has been cultivated in the mass media. The public holds fast to the derogatory stereotypes of the grafting cop, the sadistic cop, the dumb cop, the chiseling cop, and the thick brogued cop. There can be no respected profession where the public refuses to grant high status and prestige. And it does not help the police to call themselves "the finest" as they do in New York City. The title often backfires.⁷⁰

A study by North and Hatt in 1947 sought to determine the prestige of ninety occupations. The

⁶⁹ Ibid., p. 4.

⁷⁰ Ibid., p. 20.

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results showed that policemen ranked fifty-five.⁷¹ Hodge and Siegel reported in 1963, after replicating the aforementioned study, that the police still ranked only forty-seventh.⁷²

"The coefficient of correlation between the results in the two surveys was .99. In sixteen years the occupational prestige ladder had not changed much."⁷³

Throughout his book, Niederhoffer speaks of the police system. Many of his comments appear to be more of generalizations than the result of empirical verification. His observations are nevertheless intriguing.

He believes that the

police system transforms a man into a special type of authoritarian personality required by the police role. No matter what kind of person

⁷¹Paul K. Hatt and C. C. North, "Prestige Ratings of Occupations," Man, Work and Society, Sigmund Nosaw and William Form (eds.) (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1962), pp. 277-283.

⁷²Robert W. Hodge, Paul M. Siegel, and Peter H. Rossi, "Occupational Prestige in the United States, 1925-1963," American Journal of Sociology, vol. 70 (1964), p. 291. (See also Niederhoffer, op. cit., p. 21).

⁷³Niederhoffer, op. cit., p. 21.

he was before joining, the system's brilliant success in creating authoritarian personalities is sometimes a source of serious trouble. Since the policeman feels justified and righteous in using power and toughness to perform his duties, he feels like a martyr when he is charged with brutality and abuse of power.⁷⁴

Goffman has alluded to the fact that the police operate in a "locker room" atmosphere. He feels that in most lowly male service occupations it is inevitable that occupational anecdotes be redefined into sexual terms. He points out however that tales of sexual prowess are common also in the general male subculture.⁷⁵

Neiderhoffer believes that policemen vary in the amount of authoritarianism they exhibit. This, he feels, is the result of the different impact that training, experience, and role models have upon each individual.

The system places the most authoritarian men where they have most opportunity to demonstrate authoritarianism. This is a latent consequence of the normal bureaucratic personnel

⁷⁴ Ibid., p. 118.

⁷⁵ Erving Goffman, The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life (Garden City: Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1949), p. 194.

administration. (It is the patrolman on the beat who is involved in most of the incidents that require a display of authority. It is precisely the patrolman on the beat who is most authoritarian. There is a social process at work within the police system that precipitates the most authoritarian type into the authoritarian role at the lowest level of the hierarchy, pounding the beat. Only after many years, when he is too old to stand the pace, is he rewarded with a quiet job in the station house as messenger or attendant. There, as an elder statesman, he transmits his reverence for toughness to each new generation of recruits.⁷⁶

Extending the discussion of the police system and the working milieu, Skolnick believes that value conflicts of a democratic society create conditions undermining the capacity of police to respond to the rule of law. He says that

the police in a democratic society are required to maintain order and to do so under the rule of law. As functionaries charged with maintaining order, they are part of the bureaucracy. The ideology of a democratic bureaucracy emphasize initiative rather than the disciplined adherence to rule and regulations. By contrast, the rules of law emphasizes the rights of individual citizens and constraints upon the initiative of legal officials. This tension between the operational consequences of ideas of order, efficiency, and initiative, on the one hand, and legality, on the other, constitutes the principal problem of the police as a democratic legal organization. The common juxtaposition of law

⁷⁶Niederhoffer, op. cit., p. 130.

and order is an oversimplification. Law is not merely an instrument of order, but may frequently be its adversary.⁷⁷

In terms of the specific role of the policeman,

There are two principal variables involved in police work; danger and authority which should be interpreted in the light of a constant pressure to appear efficient. The element of danger seems to make the policeman especially attentive to signs indicating a potential for violence and law breaking. As a result, the policeman is generally a "suspicious" person. Furthermore, the character of the policeman's work makes him less desirable for a friend, since norms of friendship implicate others in his work. Accordingly, the element of danger isolates the policeman socially from that segment of the citizenry which he regards as symbolically dangerous and also from the conventional citizenry with whom he identifies. Generally there is, in fact, a greater social distance between policemen and civilians regardless of their color.⁷⁸

The element of authority as Skolnick points out reinforces the element of danger in isolating the policeman. Typically the policeman is required to enforce laws representing puritanical morality such as prohibiting drunkenness and traffic infractions. In these situations a policeman directs the citizenry whose typical response

⁷⁷ Jerome H. Skolnick, Justice Without Trial (John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1966), p. 6.

⁷⁸ Ibid., p. 44.

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does not recognize his authority and emphasizes his obligation to respond to danger. For example, the comment can often be heard by a policeman after he has stopped a traffic violator, "Why aren't you out catching dangerous criminals rather than bothering a law-abiding citizen?" The point to be made is that generally, persons who respond well to danger do not normally subscribe to puritanical codes of morality. As a result, charges of hypocrisy are often heard. "Danger also undermines the judicious use of authority. Where danger, as in Britain, is relatively less, the judicious application of authority is facilitated."⁷⁹

X Dodson feels that law enforcement is selective and it is the community power structure that determines which laws will be enforced. The policeman has to be perceptive enough to know what laws the power structure wants enforced if he is to keep his job.⁸⁰

⁷⁹ Skolnick, op. cit., p. 44.

⁸⁰ Dan Dodson, A speech delivered at M.S.U., May, 1955, reported in Proceeding of the Institute on Police Community Relations (May 15-20, 1956, East Lansing: The School of Police Administration and Public Safety), p. 15.

Likewise Westly believes that enforcement of the law is not the primary function of the police. Satisfying the interests of the power people in the community takes precedence.⁸¹

In addition to political pressures, the policeman also faces other dilemmas, namely the existence of danger and authority in his working environment.

It is difficult to develop qualities enabling him to stand up to danger and to conform to standards of puritanical morality, such as refraining from drinking alcoholic beverages. The element of danger demands that the policeman be able to carry out efforts that are in their nature overtly masculine. Police work, like soldiering, requires an exceptional caliber of physical fitness, agility and toughness. The man who ranks high on these masculine characteristics is not usually disposed to being puritanical.⁸²

Hence, as Skolnick points out, danger and authority, two qualities of the policeman's role and occupation, should never for the sake of the rule of law be permitted to coexist.

Danger typically yields self-defensive conduct, conduct that must strain to be impulsive, because danger arouses fear and anxiety so easily.

⁸¹William Westly, "The Police: A Sociological Study of Law, Custom and Morality" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, The University of Chicago, 1951), p. 30.

⁸²Skolnick, op. cit., p. 57.

Authority under such conditions becomes a resource to reduce perceived threats rather than a series of reflective judgments arrived at calmly.⁸³

Continuing the discussion of personal characteristics and traits of policemen there has been much speculation. Time magazine mentions that most Americans are not even sure what they want the police to be. "We ask our officers to be a combination of Bat Masterson, Sherlock Holmes, Sigmund Freud, King Solomon, Hercules and Diogenes," says Rocky Pomerance, Miami Beach, police chief.⁸⁴

The question has been asked many times, "Who wants to be a cop?" Time magazine answers this question in the following manner. Their description of course reflects the magazine's need to sell copy and hence, the characterizations tend to be a bit exaggerated and generalized.

One of the most common types who become a cop is the ex-high school athlete who went directly into a virile military unit like the Marines, and now seeks security in a job that requires no college degree. Often, he aims to live far from the inter city--a lower middle class

⁸³Ibid., p. 67.

⁸⁴Time magazine, Oct. 4, 1968, Time Inc., Rockefeller Center, New York, N.Y., p. 26.

aspiration that produces white commuter cops who nervously regard black-ghetto patrols as raids behind enemy lines.⁸⁵

(I might add that this description of the policeman being a "commuter personality" is not unlike a description that could be given to the populace in general today. How many businessmen, for example, who work in the ghetto live there?)

According to Chicago psychiatrist, Clifton Rhead, a policeman needs distinct traits-- a tendency to be suspicious, act fast, take risks, be aggressive and obey authority.⁸⁶

Time believes that despite the glaring lack of uniform standards across the country, most police recruits fit Dr. Rhead's prescription, as far as it goes.

In Eastern and Midwestern cities the typical recruit is a Roman Catholic of blue-collar background and Irish, Polish, or perhaps Italian ancestry. Often, says Chicago Psychologist, Arnold Abrams, he has been "exposed to an autocratic environment." Most recruits are eldest sons, most tend to be nervous around authority. In Detroit, says former Police Commissioner Roy Girardin, they usually come from the bottom 25% of their high school class. U.C.L.A. psychiatrist, Charles Wohl, adds that most policemen he has worked with had harsh and punitive fathers.⁸⁷

⁸⁵ Ibid., p. 26.

⁸⁶ Ibid., p. 26.

⁸⁷ Ibid., p. 26.

Time appropriately states however that

the same kind of analysis can, of course, be applied to the motives of judges, surgeons, soldiers, and presidential candidates, to say nothing of journalists. In fact, police work also attracts large numbers of men who sincerely want to serve the public, delight in chores as desperate as solving murders and delivering babies and have all the moral courage requisite to making that awesome police decision--to kill or not to kill. In California, one study showed that 50% of one police force (Sousalito) had the same psychological profile as doctors and ministers. If most cops were not highly motivated, how could they stand the thankless job of doing society's dirty work?⁸⁸

In terms of political beliefs, Time continues,

'Policemen are usually conservative. The policeman says Berkeley Criminologist Gordon Misner, pictures himself as the prime fighter standing alone against the Mongol hordes, without the support of the public, the politicians or the courts.'⁸⁹

In many respects policemen represent the most typical beliefs and attitudes of their communities, including what Los Angeles Chief Thomas Reddin deplores as a moralistic tendency to see things as either-or. Not surprisingly, the police tend to be appalled by abnormal behavior and rebellions against authority. Most scorn long hair and homosexuality horrifies them. With their ingrained respect for work, they take a dim view of people living on welfare. Perhaps most irritating to

⁸⁸ Ibid., p. 26.

⁸⁹ Ibid., p. 26.

cops are the anti-war protestors, most of them collegians who have rejected advantages that policemen themselves lacked and fail to give their own children. The police consider the beatniks spoiled darlings of society, so says Berkeley economist, Margaret Gordon, who also serves on the city council. Their rage and frustration at them can break out uncontrollably even in the historically well disciplined and polite Berkeley police department. What most upset Chicago police during the Democratic Convention of 1968 was obscenity from women and disrespect to the flag. When demonstrators blithely pulled down the Stars and Stripes in Grant Park, several cops at the scene could not hold back their tears.⁹⁰

Time magazine is not, of course, an adequate literary source. It is useful in providing a popular description of the policeman, his personality, his problems, and his working milieu. Most of Time's comments however are largely subjective and empiracally unfounded. Informal observations are manytimes interesting and very helpful but they should, nevertheless, be substantiated by empirical research and testing.

Time's study gives further credence to the fact that there are a diversity of views and suppositions about the policeman and the police profession. Scientific research should help either dispel or possibly support the

⁹⁰ Ibid., p. 26.

common popular conceptions of the policeman and his profession.

By and large there as mentioned previously are few scientific studies of the police profession. An exception to this is a study by Preiss and Erlich. They studied the police from the standpoint of Role Theory.⁹¹ Although this study incorporates role theory its major emphasis is broader in scope.

Another example of a scientific study is the one conducted by the New York Police Department.

From a survey of backgrounds of more than 1,200 recruits who graduated from the New York Police Academy in the last fifteen years (during a cycle of prosperity) the bulk of police candidates were upper-lower class with a sprinkling of lower-middle class; about ninety-five per cent has had no college training. "The typical characteristics were working class background, high school education or less, average intelligence, and a cautious personality."⁹²

⁹¹Jack Preiss and Howard Erlich, An Examination of Role Theory: The Case of the State Police (Lincoln, Nebraska: University of Nebraska Press, 1961).

⁹²Niederhoffer, op. cit., p. 36.

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Ternan and Miles in 1936 felt that their study gave evidence to policeman's lack of masculinity. As a result of a chance finding they discovered that the policemen they were testing scored low on their masculinity scale which was devised from a series of word associations. The policemen ranked twelfth out of fifteen occupations. The sample, however, only included thirteen policemen.⁹³

Sheldon has extensively studied body types and assigned characteristics to his various classifications. He feels that the policeman's physique fits his mesomorph category perfectly. Since mesomorphy is correlated with the temperament of somatonia he feels that the policemen's temperament can be described in such terms as a need to dominate assertiveness, competitive aggressiveness, ruthlessness and other traits associated with authoritarianism.⁹⁴

⁹³Ibid., p. 125.

⁹⁴William H. Sheldon, The Varieties of Temperament: A Psychology of Constitutional Differences (New York: Harper, 1942), p. 400.

Sheldon, however, is refuted by both his psychologist colleagues and sociologists. Sociologists feel that studying role behavior within the social system is more legitimate. In this case, physique is only one of the variables that must be considered. Hence it would be premature to conclude that a particular physique would automatically indicate authoritarianism.

The well-known F-scale was administered to members of the New York Police Department. The group means score on the F-scale was 4.15, compared to the 4.19 score of the working class in The Authoritarian Personality.⁹⁵ "The score by extrapolation indicates that police candidates in general are no higher in authoritarianism than the rest of the working class and also suggests that there is no self-selection among authoritarian personalities prior to appointment."⁹⁶

Skolnick does not place an extensive amount of emphasis on Police authoritarianism but he does mention

⁹⁵T. W. Adarno, Else Frenkel-Brunswick, Daniel S. Levinson and R. Nevitt Sanford, The Authoritarian Personality (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950).

⁹⁶Niederhoffer, op. cit., p. 150.

that there is for the police "a working personality." He believes this to be the case because of certain outstanding elements in the police milieu which were mentioned previously. They are danger, authority, and efficiency. These, he feels, combine to generate distinctive, cognitive, and behavioral responses in the police.⁹⁷

Such an analysis does not suggest that all police are completely alike in working personality, but that there are distinctive cognitive tendencies in the police as an occupational grouping. Some of these may be found in other occupations showing similar problems. So far as exposure to danger is concerned, the policeman may be likened to a soldier. His problem, as an authority bears a certain similarity to those of the school teacher and the pressures he feels to prove himself efficient are not unlike those felt by the industrial worker. The combination of these elements, however, is unique to the policeman. Thus, the police, as a result of combined features of their social situation tend to develop ways of looking at the world distinctive to themselves, cognitive lenses through which to see situations and events. The strength of the lenses may be weaker or stronger depending on certain conditions but they are ground on a similar axis.⁹⁸

In reference to behavioral styles that are peculiar to specific professions, Janowitz states that the

⁹⁷ Skolnick, op. cit., p. 42.

⁹⁸ Ibid., p. 42.

professions such as the military became a "style of life" rather than merely an occupation.⁹⁹ He attributes this to the fact that where there are crucial tasks that involve life and death decisions such as in police work or in the military the claims over one's life became more blatant and real.¹⁰⁰

Even though most occupational groups share a measure of inclusiveness and identification, and people are brought together simply by doing the same work and having similar career and salary problems, the police, as several writers have pointed out, show an unusually high degree of occupation solidarity.¹⁰¹

⁹⁹ Morris Janowitz, "The Professional Soldier," A Social and Political Portrait (New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1964), p. 175.

¹⁰⁰ Ibid., p. 175.

¹⁰¹ William Westly, "Violence and the Police," American Journal of Sociology (July, 1953, vol. 59), p. 294; and James Q. Wilson, "The Police and Their Problems," A Theory-Public Policy (1963) 12, pp. 189-216.

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It is true that the police have a common employer and wear a uniform at work, but so do doctors, milkmen and bus drivers. It is doubtful that these workers have so close knit an occupation or so similar an outlook on the world as do the police. Set apart from the conventional world, the policeman experiences an exceptionally strong tendency to find his social identity within his occupational mileau. As a result there are tendencies, general enough and similar enough to identify a distinctive "working personality" among police.¹⁰²

In summary then the police system, the police mileau, and the policeman's "working personality" have been briefly viewed. Next attention will be focused on these same general characteristics in the social work profession.

The Social Work Profession

Barber describes social work as an "emerging or marginal" profession.¹⁰³ Furthermore the profession is presently facing many problems

¹⁰² Skolnick, op. cit., p. 52.

¹⁰³ Bernard Barber, "Some Problems in the Sociology of Professions," Daedalus (Fall, 1963), p. 676.

because of the changing and complex environment within which it is practiced.¹⁰⁴

Wilensky and LeBeau¹⁰⁵ feel that contrary to popular opinion, it is medicine and not the ministry, that has become the preferred model for social work.

A close relationship has developed between them. One result of this has been the recent increase in social work efforts to undertake the research needed to establish a unified scientific base--exemplified in programs of research developing at several schools of social work.¹⁰⁶

Social Work began to have a distinct realm of its own when the

Charity Organizations movement provided a system wherein a visitor came frequently and systematically in contact with "cases"--the heads of poverty stricken families primarily--with special attention given to what were seen as individual or family causes of difficulty and as individual resources to meet the problem. Thus a setting and vehicle were provided for the observation of human behavior and for the practice of skills in helping people out of trouble.¹⁰⁷

¹⁰⁴David G. French, "Needed Research on Social Work Manpower," A Report to the Task Force on Social Work Education and Manpower (Washington: Welfare Administration, Dept. of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1964), pp. 1-7.

¹⁰⁵Charles LeBeau and Harold Wilensky, Industrial Society & Social Welfare, Russel Sage Foundation (New York: 1958).

¹⁰⁶Ibid., p. 284.

¹⁰⁷Ibid., p. 288.

Helen Witmer pointed out that casework was "born in the dilemmas of poor relief."¹⁰⁸ It was to be a new method for handling poverty.

In its early days social casework carried a strong "sociological" emphasis: an interest in the socio-economic environment--conditions of factory labor, housing, and income maintenance. Quite early, however, casework became centered on the individual, on his personal strengths and weaknesses, on individual psychological mechanisms and on broad social forces only as these were interpretable in individual behavior terms.¹⁰⁹

Casework, however, has in many cases become an end in itself. Bruno reports that Mary Richmond said

I have spent twenty-five years of my life in an attempt to get social casework accepted as a valid process in social work. Now I shall spend the rest of my life trying to demonstrate to social caseworkers that there is more to social work than social casework.¹¹⁰

Casework operates on the premise that any individual facing social stresses which he cannot deal with has strength and inner resources which, if freed from the shackles of fear,

¹⁰⁸ Helen L. Witmer, Social Work: An Analysis of a Social Institution (New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1942), p. 127.

¹⁰⁹ Wilensky and LeBeau, op. cit., p. 288.

¹¹⁰ Frank J. Bruno, "Trends in Social Work as Reflected in the Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work, 1874-1946" (New York: Columbia University Press, 1948), pp. 186-187.

inhibition, and other types of psychological blockage, will enable him to become effectively self-responsible.¹¹¹

Social work practice is extensive and varied and as mentioned previously has many sub-specialties. Until very recently, however, professional schools of social work have exhibited only minor interest in working with criminal offenders. "There is considerable question as to whether the caseworker as presently equipped could operate effectively in an atmosphere of high authoritativeness and 'toughness'."¹¹²

Simon and others note that the practice of consultation is highly developed and approved by administration in agencies staffed by social workers. "Often, however, agencies have operational requirements, set by law, tradition, policy, or public pressures, which depart from professional standards. This is particularly true of public agencies operating within a legal framework, a situation which sets the stage for role conflict."¹¹³

¹¹¹Wilensky and LeBeau, op. cit., p. 290.

¹¹²Wilensky and LeBeau, op. cit., p. 319.

¹¹³Herbert A. Simon, Donald W. Smithberg, and Victor A. Thompson, Public Administration (New York: Harper Row, 1950). (Found in Wilensky and LeBeau p. 319).

The discrepancy between professional and agency norms stems from a basic conflict in principles of organization which appears in all bureaucratic systems--in factories, in universities, in hospitals, etc. In all of these organizations different professional groups are arranged in a hierarchy. Thus, the colleague principle is in conflict with the hierarchial principle of the bureaucracy.¹¹⁴

To further emphasize the relationship of the social worker to the agency, Wilensky comments that "in essence, the caseworkers complain that the policy-minded lose sight of the psychological understandings necessary to help the case while the policy-minded complain that the caseworkers lose sight of the community structure that creates the case in the first place and fail to use their case-history information to shape the size and character of welfare service. The argument between the apolitical technician and the policy-minded "program professional" is an old one and is carried on wherever staff experts who have knowledge work in large organizations under other people who have power."¹¹⁵

¹¹⁴Wilensky and LeBeau, op. cit., p. 320.

¹¹⁵Harold L. Wilensky, "Intellectuals in Labor Unions: Organizational Pressures on Professional Roles," Free Press (Glencoe, Illinois: 1956). (Found in Wilensky and LeBeau p. 333).

Several studies have concluded that professionals tend to assume a "cosmopolitan" orientation, manifesting itself in a lack of loyalty to particular organizations and a willingness to move from one employer to another, whereas only those less committed to professional skills are usually "locals" with strong feelings of loyalty to their organization.¹¹⁶ Social workers would easily fit into the Cosmopolite classification.

Although there has been comparatively little research relating to the social workers' organizational and occupational milieu,¹¹⁷ there have been several reports relating to the personal characteristics of those persons who choose a social work career.

Popular stereotypes of the social worker--whether as motherly healer, cold snoopers, or Lady Bountiful--are almost exclusively feminine. In popular literature, the model of the social worker is a flat-heeled female: even in the daily press, personal items about social workers will likely appear on the Woman's Page. The major historical figures that leap to mind--Jane Adams, Mary Richmond--are women.¹¹⁸

¹¹⁶ Alvin W. Gouldner, "Cosmopolitians and Locals," Administrative Science Quarterly, 2 (1957-1958), pp. 281-306.

¹¹⁷ Wilensky and LeBeau, op. cit., p. 323.

¹¹⁸ Ibid., p. 373.

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Pins' and Ginsberg's work follows a parallel in terms of the results reported in relation to the selection of a social work career.¹¹⁹ In Pins' study over a third of 2,771 participants said that social work was their second choice. Other professions had been tried first. Pins also found that there were more Jewish and Negro social workers than in the general population. Ginsberg substantiates these findings.¹²⁰

Kadushin comments that there is a pattern that applies to social work and that certain types of persons are likely to be attracted to it. A profile of such a person would be

a female of above average intelligence, of professional or middle class parents, living in a northern city, whose occupational values and interests revolve around a desire to work with people in an effort to help them through the use of verbal skills.¹²¹

¹¹⁹ Arnulf M. Pins, Who Chooses Social Work, When and Why? An Exploratory Study of Factors Influencing Career Choices in Social Work (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1963).

¹²⁰ Eli Ginsberg, et al., Occupational Choice (New York: Columbia University Press, 1951).

¹²¹ Alfred Kadushin, "Determinants of Career Choice and Their Implication for Social Work," Social Work Education, April, 1958.

Pins' study does not agree with Kadushin's in that he says that social work is attractive to

people in their early twenties, coming from lower-middle class homes in large eastern cities, who in college majored in the social sciences and achieved average academic records, had previous experience in social work and who value and enjoy helping people.¹²²

Gockel states that

social workers place high value on jobs or careers which give them an opportunity to be of service; they are relatively uninterested in jobs which contain an intellectual component; and they are relatively uninterested in monetary rewards and the opportunity to operate independently on the job.¹²³

He further states that

the underrepresentation of men in social work is for an intellectual reason. Perhaps the field attracts men who are limited in their rates of enrollment in high quality schools not for financial reasons but for intellectual reasons.¹²⁴

In summary he says that

rates of recruitment into social work are relatively low among students who endorse the following values; freedom from supervision, a chance to exercise leadership, opportunities

¹²² Pins, op. cit.

¹²³ Gockel, op. cit., p. 24.

¹²⁴ Ibid., p. 27.

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to be original and creative, living and working in the world of ideas and making a lot of money.¹²⁵

Furthermore,

Those students who are politically liberal are more likely to remain loyal to social work than those with a conservative orientation.¹²⁶

Kidneigh in the comparison of social work students with six other professional schools found that social work students were more liberal in their thinking than students attending other professional schools. Their views were not as anti-democratic, ethnocentric, and conservative in their political-economic philosophy.¹²⁷

In a later study, McCornock and Kidneigh sent the Strong Vocational Interest Blanks to 700 men and 700 women randomly selected from the 1952 Membership Directory of the American Association of Social Workers. Approximately 87% of the total sample returned the questionnaires. All subjects were full members of the A.C.S.W. and had at least three years of full-time experience. Results of

¹²⁵ Ibid., p. 61.

¹²⁶ Ibid., p. 106.

¹²⁷ John Kidneigh and H. W. Lundberg, "Are Social Work Students Different?," Social Work, vol. 3, no. 3 (May, 1958), pp. 57-61.

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the study indicated that both male and female social workers had a strong liking for activities involving people, a strong liking for verbal activities and tended to dislike "conservative" people. The men also showed a dislike for the physical sciences and athletic men and the women a dislike for athletic women as well as of scientific, selling, and clerical activities.¹²⁸

Roe used the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory and found that social work students were likely to score higher on the effeminate scale. Because she also found out that they gave a more disturbed personality inventory she felt that unfavorable parental relationships had motivated the person choosing social work to find more satisfying personal relationships.¹²⁹

Roe also cites three additional studies by Lewis, Piotrowski, Harrower and Cox. She reported that Lewis compared 50 women social workers with the norm groups on

¹²⁸E. F. Koepp, "Authoritarianism and Social Workers: A Psychological Study," Social Work, vol. 8, no. 1 (January, 1963), pp. 37-43.

¹²⁹Ann Roe, Psychology of Occupations (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1956).

the MMPI and found them to be significantly lower on masculinity, hypochondriasis, and schizophrenia. Roe suggests that the low scores on these scales may reflect the social worker's unusual sophistication in Psychology.¹³⁰

Piotrowski, who used 18 social work students of superior intelligence in a comparative study of the Rorschach found that those who were studying social work because they wished to, rather than for other reasons (e.g., outside pressures, etc.) showed particularly greater interest in persons. However, contrary results were reported by Harrower and Cox who found social workers to be low in human movement responses, an assumed index of interest in other people.¹³¹ To substantiate this a recent study of low income families by the New York Times "was strongly critical of the condescension and contempt of many social workers toward the poor."¹³²

As was the case with the policeman, the social workers occupational system, his "working personality,"

¹³⁰ Ibid.

¹³¹ Roe, loc. cit.

¹³² New York Times, February 20, 1966, p. 42.

and his working milieu as reflected by the present literature were discussed.

Even though there is more scientific substantiation for commonly held conceptions of social workers there are, nevertheless, many contradictions and unexplored areas.

The previous discussion and description of the social work profession will not only be of assistance in providing background information but will assist the reader in understanding the rationale for the assumptions and hypotheses of this study.

Summary

In the discussion thus far, the central concepts of social role, social systems, and the occupation as a social system have been utilized as the framework for examining the police and social work professions.

Subsequently the occupational milieus, systems, and the "working personalities" of persons in the two professions were delineated. Studies of the two professions were then discussed and summarized.

The outstanding conclusion that can be drawn from the previous discussion is that there is a paucity of objective and scientific information about the two professions. Furthermore, attempts to study the two professions have many times been retrospective, contradictory, and inconsistent in their findings.

The writer has chosen to study these two professions not only because of the above mentioned factors but also because in this era of social change these two professions have been forced into the political and social "limelight."

Hopefully this study will contribute to an increased understanding of the two professions and the people who occupy them.

CHAPTER III

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY AND THE HYPOTHESES

Origin of the Study

There are probably not two other professions that have been "typed" or "stereotyped" more than the police and social work professions. Adjectives like "authoritarian" personality and "do-gooder" are commonly heard when reference is made to the two professions. Some degree of consensus about the two professions obtained via scientific procedures would be helpful in objectively assessing and designating the norms and values of the two mentioned professions.

The writer has worked in settings where social workers and the police are in frequent contact with one another. Often, hostility toward one another's profession is blatant and this hinders the process of cooperatively working together to combat the social ills of society.

Clark states that

members of both the police department and other social agencies were asked to indicate the

frequency with which they failed to interact with the other agencies on official matters because the personnel of the other agencies not being "what they should be." Failure to interact was operationally defined to mean (1) avoiding or ignoring a situation which might result in the need for interaction, or (2) turning to somebody else for assistance, or (3) handling the matter themselves without the assistance of others.

A significant portion of the police and other agency personnel manage to curtail indicated interaction in official matters and therefore, mutually isolate each other within the social control system. This phenomenon is particularly noticeable between the police and social workers which may reflect the presence of conflicting operating ideologies, lack of professional respect and ignorance of the others' operations.¹³³

Since the writer has college degrees in both Police Administration (B.S.) and Social Work (M.S.W.) he not only has witnessed this animosity but in fact feels that he has a fairly good knowledge of "both sides of the story." One aspect has remained extremely clear, a great deal of the criticism--both ways--is highly subjective and much of the information is of the "hearsay" nature.

Not all of the observations and accompanying adjectives of the Police and Social Work professions however

¹³³ John P. Clark, Isolation of the Police: A Comparison of the British and American Situations, op. cit., p. 313.

are unfounded and unwarranted, because in fact the behavior patterns and attitudes of social workers as compared to policemen appear to be in many cases different. Furthermore, different behavior patterns and attitudes appear to exist within the two professions depending on the area of specialization and also rank order in the particular organization.

These observations prompted the writer to make the assumption that when social workers are compared with policemen their occupational systems will be different. A further assumption is that there will also be varying behavioral styles within the two professions in accordance with the particular area of specialization and rank order in the organization.

If then, police and social workers have distinguishable occupational systems it could be hypothesized that these systems would be reflected (1) when the two mentioned professions are compared, (2) within the professional sub-specialties, and (3) in the organizational rank of the particular professional.

Hypotheses of the Study

I. Hypothesis I

Different kinds of work and work situations demand different types of orientations and behavioral styles of persons who operate them. Since policemen and social workers operate in different work situations there should be different and distinguishable behavioral styles when the two professions are compared.

A. Assumptions.

1. Because professions are unique social systems they have specific values, norms, and attitudes.
2. Professions can be distinguished by the preferences, interests, and values of their members.
3. Extensive research by Walther, McCune, and Petersen¹³⁴ has illustrated that the relation

¹³⁴Regis H. Walther, Shirley D. McCune, and Peter B. Petersen, "The Shaping of Professional Subcultures: A Study of Student Groups from Five Professions," an unpublished paper. (Some of the ideas for the assumptions have come from the above paper.)

between the personal characteristics of the individual and his occupation is a reciprocal one. As they have stated, the individual both selects and is selected; molds and is molded.

- a. There are occupational requirements that are unique for each profession. These requirements attract some persons and repel others. Applicants for a particular profession are different from their counterparts in other professions.
- b. Each profession has a common conception as to the characteristics of the ideal person for the profession. Because of this there are both formal and informal selection standards that influence either selection or non-selection for the profession.
- c. After being selected for the particular profession the individual has an opportunity to test himself against the behavioral requirements, satisfactions, and value potential of his profession. There

is a distinct difference between persons of different professions and between those persons who remain in the profession and those who resign or are terminated.

- d. After a person commits himself to a profession both formal and informal pressures tend to alter or change some of his personal characteristics; namely certain attitudes and behaviors.
4. Both the occupational expectations and the occupational milieu are different for different professions. Some differences in the police and social work professions are:
- a. The police encounter many more dangerous situations and often must make a "life or death" decision.
 - b. In police work there is a greater need for physical agility and endurance because of the unique types of problem situations.

- c. The use of controls is an inherent aspect of police work.
- d. Police organizations are para-military in nature and are organized according to the classical hierarchical structure.
- e. Educational requirements are different with a bachelors degree being the minimum requirement for entrance into the social work profession. A high school diploma is usually the requirement for entrance into the police profession.
- f. Physical requirements are different; policemen must meet minimum physical standards (height, weight, etc.).

II. Hypothesis II

There will be a differentiation of behavioral styles within the profession of social work depending on the rank of the person in the organization.

A. Assumptions

1. Persons who are promoted in the organization are different from those who are not promoted because they have been tested against performance standards enforced by the recognized authorities within the profession.
2. Functions and duties will differ between consultants, supervisors, and caseworkers.
3. Responsibilities and organizational perspectives will differ between the above mentioned organizational levels.

III. Hypothesis III

There will be a differentiation of behavioral styles within the police profession depending on the rank of the person in the organization.

A. Assumptions

1. Persons who are promoted in the organization are different from those who are not promoted

because they have been tested against performance standards enforced by the recognized authorities within the profession.

2. Functions and duties will differ between troopers and command officers.
3. Responsibilities and organizational perspectives will differ between the above mentioned organizational levels.

IV. Hypothesis IV

There will be a differentiation of behavioral styles within the profession of social work depending on the area of specialization (sub-specialty).

A. Assumptions

1. Important sub-specialties exist within every profession.

The breadth and flexibility of most professions permit different types of individuals to succeed for different reasons. Sub-specialties can thus be expected to develop within the larger professional

culture based on different settings and varied interpretation of goals. There are significant differences among persons following different sub-specialties within a profession but these differences are significantly less than the differences between professions.¹³⁵

2. The service emphasis and clientel served will differ depending on the particular social work sub-specialty.
3. Unique skills, attitudes, and abilities are required for each of the various social work sub-specialties.

V. Hypothesis V

There will be a differentiation of behavioral styles within the police profession depending on the area of specialization (sub-specialty).

A. Assumptions

1. Important sub-specialties exist within every profession.

¹³⁵Ibid.

The breadth and flexibility of most professions permit different types of individuals to succeed for different reasons. Sub-specialties can thus be expected to develop within the larger professional culture based on different tasks performed in different settings and varied interpretation of goals. There are significant differences among persons following different sub-specialties within a profession but these differences are significantly less than the differences between professions.¹³⁶

2. The service emphasis and clientel served will differ depending on the particular police specialty.
3. Unique skills, attitudes, and abilities are required for each of the various police sub-specialties.

Operational Definitions of the Study

The following list will interpret the meanings of terms that will be used throughout the study.

¹³⁶Ibid.

1. Behavioral Styles--Those characteristics which are relevant to job functioning. They refer to the consistent ways an individual organizes his physical, emotional, and energy resources. These include personality styles, work preferences, and values. The operational definition of the term is based upon the measurements on the scales of the Job Analysis and Interest Measurement (JAIM). A description of the JAİM will be given in Chapter Four.
2. Social Work System--This includes both the individuals who have positions within the organization and the activities needed to fulfill the positional requirements. The system also includes the occupational milieu and the "working personality." Consult Chapter Two for an elaboration of this concept.
3. Police System--This includes both the individuals who have positions within the organization and the activities needed to fulfill the positional requirements. The system also includes the occupational

milieu and the "working personality." Consult Chapter Two for an elaboration of this concept.

4. Organizational Rank--The position that an individual occupies in the organizational hierarchy. In the case of the police this would be either trooper or command officer. A command officer is a person with the rank of corporal or above. In the case of social work this refers to case-workers, supervisors, and consultants (Staff and not line positions).
5. Area of Specialization--This refers to the occupational specialization (sub-specialty). In the case of the police, it refers to four divisions within the department; training, crime laboratory, juvenile, and patrol. In the case of social work, it refers to one of the following fields of specialization; mental health, social service, school social work, and private agencies.

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CHAPTER IV

DATA COLLECTION

Selection of the "Sample" Studied

The Police "Sample"*

There is a wide diversity of police departments in Michigan and there are great numbers of policemen. The police officers for the study were selected from one agency mainly because of the problems of access. The writer had access to the Michigan State Police Department. The Michigan State Police engage and specialize in all of the functions that are considered an integral part of police work. For example, they are actively engaged in juvenile work, training, crime laboratory work, and patrol.

It is felt that this will help eliminate local biases and contribute to state-wide representation.

*The police sample should more appropriately be termed a purposive sample. The major reason for choosing the Michigan State Police was because the writer had access to the organization.

In terms of practical considerations it was extremely convenient to use the State Police because of the location of their Headquarters Post (East Lansing). In addition the writer had the advantage of having personal acquaintances with command officers at the headquarters post. It was with their approval and cooperation that this research was made possible.

Questionnaires were distributed to officers at the Bay City and East Lansing district posts. In addition questionnaires were distributed to all members of the training division and the crime lab division at the Headquarters Post and all of the juvenile officers in the State Police organization. A total of 100 questionnaires were distributed.

Because there was total response and total representation from the two district posts, the training division, the crime lab division, and the juvenile division the officers were felt to be representative of the patrol, training, crime lab, and juvenile divisions of the Michigan State Police. The number of responses from patrol personnel are much greater because of the fact that patrol

is the major function of the Michigan State Police. Hence the patrol division is by far the largest unit of that organization.

In addition to the answer sheets being coded by particular specialty (training, juvenile, crime laboratory, and patrol) they were also coded by rank. The respondents were classified into two categories, trooper or command officer. A command officer was considered to be any officer with the rank of corporal or above. With the rank of corporal, the officer assumes command responsibilities.

CHART 1

Rank Position in the Organization of Policemen

Rank	Number of Policemen
Command	29
Trooper	71
TOTAL	100

*The term "chart" is used throughout this study in its conventional sense. The term "table" could have also been used.

CHART 2

Sub-Specialties of Policemen in the Study

Sub-Specialty	Number of Policemen
Juvenile	8
Patrol	72
Training	9
Crime Lab	11
TOTAL	100

All respondents have at least one year of service and since the greatest "quit" rate of the Michigan State Police is within the first year, it was felt that the respondents would reflect the behavioral styles of the police officer who is committed to the profession.

The Social Work "Sample"

In terms of the social work sample, it was felt that representation of the various social work sub-specialties would be necessary so as to give the study

balance and total representation of the social work field. Unlike police agencies which are all basically the same and have a variety of functions within each agency, social work agencies are usually a part of a larger departmental structure which has a unique and specialized area of emphasis. The particular specialty of the social worker usually coincides with the superordinate department. In other words, social workers in a psychiatric setting are members of the Mental Health Department and likewise social workers who specialize in public assistance and other like functions are members of the Social Service Department. In the case of school social workers, they are members of the Department of Education. Private agencies, although they are not necessarily a subsidiary of a larger superordinate department, nevertheless usually reflect a different philosophy and program emphasis than the other above mentioned departments.

A case could probably be made for the fact that each mentioned department has tangential or secondary services that are related to the other departments (such as services to children). Even so, it was felt that the general organizational philosophy of the superordinate department would pervade.

For reasons just mentioned, then, it was not felt to be appropriate to merely select one department (Mental Health, for example). Instead it was felt that selection of a city which provided services that covered the entire scope of social work practice would be most appropriate. Lansing was considered to be such a city because services were provided by the Mental Health, Social Service, and Education Departments. In addition services were also provided by private agencies. As was the case with the police, social workers were also coded by rank, case-workers, consultants, and supervisors.

CHART 3

Rank Position in the Organization of Social Workers

Rank	Number of Social Workers
Consultants	19
Supervisors	28
Caseworkers	53
TOTAL	100

CHART 4

Sub-Specialties of Social Workers in the Study

Sub-Specialty	Number of Social Workers
Mental Health	24
Social Service	44
Private Agency	18
School Social Workers	14
TOTAL	100

There are approximately 110 persons with master's degrees in social work in the Greater Lansing area as reflected by the membership list of the local social work organization. Each of these persons was contacted and hence instead of having a sample there was a population. A total of 100 answer sheets were received.

Although educational background was not a factor with policemen it was felt to be important with social workers--thus the reason for selecting only persons with master's degrees in social work.

Persons with masters degrees are considered to be the professional or trained social workers and it is this category that is most often "typed." Furthermore, persons with M.S.W.'s make most of the policy decisions. The commitment of persons to the field of social work was felt to be stronger among those persons who had attained the masters degree.

Age of the respondents was not felt to be an important variable in the study because the major emphasis of the study is to determine if the police and social work professions as a whole can be "typed." Correlations between age and behavioral style will be computed, however, with there being an analysis in terms of ten-year intervals starting with the age of twenty and ending with the age of sixty. Even though age could have an effect and the study will compute it, it is for informational purposes only. It has not been controlled for.

Sex is also considered to be a minor factor in the study because all of the police respondents are male. A differentiation between sex and behavioral style will be computed for social workers however.

CHART 5

Sex Distribution of Policemen and Social Workers
in the Study

Sex	Number of Policemen	Number of Social Workers
Male	100	51
Female		49
TOTALS	100	100

CHART 6

Age Distribution of Policemen and Social Workers
in the Study

Age	Number of Policemen	Number of Social Workers
20 - 29	42	30
30 - 39	35	38
40 - 49	23	23
50 - 59		9
TOTALS	100	100

Measurement Instrument¹³⁷

The research instrument used in the research herein reported, the Job Analysis and Interest Measurement (JAIM),¹³⁸ has evolved over a ten-year period through a series of studies of mature workers in over forty occupations and professions, including business executives, juvenile court judges, ambassadors, physicists, social workers, policemen, army officers, engineers, lawyers, and secretaries. The beginning point for the development of the JAİM was the discovery that certain self-description items answered by the U.S. State Department personnel when they entered the Department were useful in discriminating among employees assigned to different jobs, and in predicting both staying power and performance ratings within these jobs. These results led to the conclusion that the achievement of a satisfactory level of

¹³⁷Pages 96 to 113 were taken from the JAİM Manual and also from "The Shaping of Professional Sub-Cultures: A Study of Student Groups from Five Professions," by Regis H. Walther, Shirley D. McCune, Peter B. Petersen, an unpublished paper, 1968.

¹³⁸Distributed for research purposes by the Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey. Studies using the JAİM are reported in Walther (1964, 1965), Walther and McCune (1965), Petersen and Lippitt (1968).

job satisfaction and performance requires an adequate psychological match between the job and the individual and that self-reported beliefs, typical behaviors, preferences, and values provide useful information for judging the adequacy of the match.

The notion that the study of the internal frame of reference of the individual is a useful approach for understanding behavior is consistent with the views of many personality theorists (Rogers, 1961; Combs and Snygg, 1959; Kelly, 1955; Rokeach, 1960). Kelly, for example, in proposing his psychology of personal constructs states that man creates his own ways of seeing the world in which he lives; the world does not create them for him. Thus, if we examine a person's philosophy closely, we find ourselves examining the individual himself. To understand how a person behaves, we need to know the manner in which he represents his circumstances to himself.¹³⁹

The research leading to the development of the JAIM found persuasive support for Kelly's point of view regarding the importance of personal constructs and for

¹³⁹ Ibid.

the predictive power of self-descriptive statements. It also led to the conclusion that a useful way to sub-divide personality variables for role or occupational analysis purposes is into behavioral styles, activity preferences, and values. In general, as mentioned previously, behavioral styles are the consistent ways in which individuals organize and direct their mental, physical, and energy resources to accomplish goals. Activity preferences and values refer to attitudes and norms. (Because this research utilizes a self-report instrument there is always the possibility that the self-reported behavior and the actual behavior may not be the same.) These variables influence the degree of occupational match as follows:

- Different roles or jobs have different behavioral requirements and provide varying opportunity for personal satisfaction and feeling of value;
- Individuals bring to their roles or jobs behavioral styles, activity preferences, and values; and
- It is the degree of match between the role or job and the individual in these dimensions, which significantly influences how well the individual will either perform in the job; be satisfied with the role or job, or both.

The measurement of behavioral styles, work preferences and values through self-descriptive statements raises two issues of theoretical concern--how accurately can an individual report on his own personality and how truthful will he be when he makes such reports? The first issue relates to the differing effects of unconscious and conscious motives and the second to the problem of response sets.

In the approach used with the JAIM, the crucial question is the relationship between beliefs and behavior. To deal adequately with his task environment, the individual needs (a) to know what he wants and what he does not want, (b) to obtain pertinent and reliable information about his environment, and (c) to make productive choices among the alternatives available to him. In making these decisions, he will be guided by his beliefs about the intentions of other people, his beliefs about his own ability to influence the outcomes of events, and his strategies--which are his notions about what will work for him. These beliefs can be reported by means of self-descriptive statements and can be used to predict behavior. Unconscious forces are assumed to be represented reliably but not necessarily accurately by these beliefs.

The amount of intentional distortion of responses is reduced in this study by administering the JAIM to cooperative subjects under non-threatening circumstances. The effect of response set is kept to a minimum through use of a "forced choice" format. Self-report methods are not fool-proof, however. Consult the JAIM manual for a further discussion of this subject.

The three clusters of personality variables (behavioral styles, activity preferences, and values) and the JAIM scales that measure them are discussed in the following sections. One scale, Academic Achievement, does not fit into any category and is defined in the Appendix as are the other JAIM scales.

Behavioral Styles

Each of us functions in a world too complex for continuous, consciously determined response. Man can deal with a very limited amount of information at one time, yet there is an almost limitless amount of information which could be noticed, and an almost infinite number of decisions to be made and physical actions to be completed at the physiological, psychological, and

sociological levels for the individual to function adequately in the world. Almost all determinations as to what to notice, what it means, what to do about it, and the actual physical manipulation of both the individual's internal and external environment are performed "automatically" through complex patterns of behavior which are available to the individual with a minimum of conscious effort.

We necessarily develop standard ways for dealing with recurring situations and reserve conscious information processing and decision-making for more significant occasions. This organization gives rise to behavioral styles--characteristic types of performance, conscious and unconscious, in various life situations. An individual's behavioral styles are determined, in part, by his innate characteristics; his experience with what works and what does not work for him; and the social values he has acquired. Behavioral styles are very difficult to change because their elements work together as part of a functioning system. Experience sometimes results in slow change, but planned change requires the use of a good deal of conscious effort, frequently more than the individual is able or willing to spare.

It is impossible for an individual to have behavioral styles which will enable him to be equally effective in all types of situations. Behavioral organizations which lead to effective performance in one type of situation frequently lead to inefficient performance in other situations. An habitual response of one type can be expected to make other types of response more difficult.

The behavioral styles measured by the JAIM and a description of each scale of the instrument will follow.

The JAIM is organized into six categories of scales. The categories and the scales listed in each are:¹⁴⁰

A. Personal Orientations

1. Optimism--measures the degree to which the individual assumes that the intentions of other people are benevolent and that satisfactions can be expected in the natural course of events.

¹⁴⁰ For a description of the scales of the JAIM and a summary of use of these scales, see Appendix B. A copy of the JAIM may be found in Appendix A. The scales were summarized from Walther, McCune, Petersen, "The Shaping of Professional Subcultures: A Study of Student Groups from Five Professions, op. cit.

2. Self-Confidence--measures the degree to which the individual believes that he can, by his own action, influence future events.
3. Perseverance--measures the degree to which the individual keeps at something even when he is not particularly interested in it.
4. Orderliness--measures the degree to which the individual has internal standards which he follows.
5. Plan Ahead--measures the degree to which the individual is a self-starter and directs his own activity toward goal achievement.
6. Moral Absolutes--measures the degree to which the individual believes in moral absolutes.
7. Slow Change--measures the degree to which the individual believes that change should proceed at a slow pace.

B. Interpersonal Influence

8. Persuasive Leadership--measures the degree to which the individual exerts leadership in interpersonal situations.

9. Self-Assertiveness--measures the degree to which the individual tends to pursue his own goals when they are in competition with the goals of others.

C. Reaction to Aggression

10. Move Toward the Aggressor--measures the degree to which the individual tries to "pour oil on troubled waters" when someone acts toward him in a belligerent or aggressive manner.
11. Move Away from Aggressor--measures the degree to which the individual withdraws when someone acts toward him in a belligerent or aggressive manner.
12. Move Against Aggressor--measures the degree to which the individual counterattacks when someone acts toward him in a belligerent or aggressive manner.

D. Relationship to Authority

13. Prefer Routines--measures the degree to which the individual likes to have definite procedures available which he can follow.

14. Identifies with Authority--measures the degree to which the individual identifies with his superior and tries to please him.
15. Independence--measures the degree to which the individual likes to act on his own.

E. Leadership Styles and Strategies

16. Directive Leadership--measures the degree to which the individual believes that an executive gets the best results by making decisions himself.
17. Participative Leadership--measures the degree to which the individual believes that executives get best results by having the work group participate in decision-making.
18. Delegative Leadership--measures the degree to which the individual believes that the executive gets best results by delegating decision-making authority as much as possible to individual workers.

19. Motivates by Knowledge of Results--measures the degree to which the individual believes that people are motivated best by knowledge of results (intrinsic motivation).

20. External Controls--measures the degree to which the individual believes that most people require external controls.

F. Information Processing Style

21. Systematical-methodical--measures the degree to which the individual uses systematic-methodical methods for processing information and reaching decisions.

G. Work Preferences

22. Problem Analysis--measures the degree to which the individual likes to analyze situations and develop ingenious solutions to problems.

23. Social Interaction--measures the degree to which the individual likes work involving interactions with people.

24. Mechanical Activities--measures the degree to which the individual likes mechanical activities.
 25. Supervisory Activities--measures the degree to which the individual likes to plan and supervise the work of other people.
 26. Activity-Frequent Change--measures the degree to which the individual likes to be actively engaged in work providing a lot of excitement, and a great deal of variety.
 27. Group Participation--measures the degree to which the individual identifies himself with a highly valued group.
- H. Values
28. Status Attainment--measures the degree to which the individual values himself by his achievement of the status symbols established by the culture.
 29. Social Service--measures the degree to which the individual values himself by contributing to social improvement.

30. Approval from Others--measures the degree to which the individual values himself by obtaining the approval of others.
 31. Intellectual Achievement--measures the degree to which the individual values himself through his intellectual attainments.
 32. Maintain Societal Standards--measures the degree to which the individual values himself by helping to maintain standards established by the society of which he is a part.
 33. Role Conformity--measures the degree to which the individual values himself according to how successfully he can conform to the role requirements of the society.
- I. Other
34. Academic Achievement--measures the degree to which the individual does well in academic situations.

Stability of JAIM Scales

An important problem which concerns the users of a self-report inventory is the stability of the scales when used for different samples from the same population. The JAIM Manual reports a study of Junior Foreign Service officers showing that there was no significant difference between different classes of newly appointed officers who completed the JAIM shortly after entering on duty. In a study by Walter in 1966¹⁴¹ a comparison was made between forty-five first year students from the 1964-65 class and fifty-four first year students from the 1965-66 class at one of the schools of social work. Over 90% of the two classes completed the JAIM shortly after the first semester started. The average t value for the difference between the means was .75 with the difference between means for only two of the thirty-four scales being significant at the .05 level. The slight differences which were found might be accounted for by minor differences in

¹⁴¹Regis H. Walther, "Personality Variables and Career Decisions," an unpublished paper, George Washington University, Washington, D.C., February, 1966.

selection standards or in the characteristics of the students who applied for admission during the two years.

Correlation of JAIM Scales
with Performance Criteria

In the JAIM Manual, studies are reported showing significant correlations between JAIM scales and rate of promotion, supervisory ratings, turnover in jobs, promotion panel ratings and oral selection panel ratings. In another study reported in the JAIM, scales were correlated with school grades, field work ratings, and scores on ability tests for the social work student sample. "School grades" means the grade received by the social work student at the end of the academic year during which he completed the JAIM. The field work rating was the rating given him by his supervisor during his field service at hospitals, clinics, welfare agencies, etc., as part of his social work educational program. Both of these criteria can be expected to be unreliable, with the field work ratings being the least reliable. Factors which can be expected to contribute to unreliability were that the subjects attended schools with different standards and were

judged by many raters. Under these circumstances, any significant correlations can be considered encouraging.

The Miller Analogies Test and the Graduate Record Examination were taken prior to completing the JAIM as part of the admission procedure. The highest correlations were with the Verbal Sub-Test of the Graduate Record Examination with seventeen from the thirty-four correlations being statistically significant.

Interpretation of Scores

The score reports for the JAIM are based on a normative group of 4,361 applicants who took the U.S. Department of State Foreign Service officers examination in September, 1963, and who turned in JAIM answer sheets.

The higher the score on a particular scale, the more often the subject has chosen the options for this scale as being descriptive of himself in preference to the options for other scales and has avoided options which are negatively scored for the scale. The lower the score on a particular scale, the less often the subject has chosen the options for this scale as being descriptive of himself in preference to the options for the other scales and the more

often he has selected options which are negatively scored for the scale.

The logical relationship to the underlying hypothesis for each scale is the ability of the item to distinguish between occupants of a job requiring the characteristic being measured from occupants of a job not requiring the characteristic.

Scoring

Scoring keys for the JAIM are not available. Arrangements for scoring must be made through the Office of Special Tests, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, or through Dr. Regis Walther, author of the JAIM. The scoring of the instrument utilizes a digital computer program for this purpose. Items keyed to a scale can have either positive or negative values. Weights of more than one are used only for options representing points along a scale.

The reliability and validity of JAIM scores using the test-retest procedure and the split half methods of determining reliability are reported in the manual of the JAIM.

The JAIM as It Relates to
the Present Study

The previous discussion and description of the JAIM instrument has illustrated how the concept of behavioral styles is related to the thirty-four measurement scales of the instrument. The hypotheses of this study have been predicated on the concept of behavioral styles and their implicit relationship to the thirty-four scales of the instrument which was developed to test and discriminate between behavioral styles of different professions.

Even though the hypotheses of this study are general in nature, specific scales of the instrument can be correlated with the previous research undertaken in the police and social work fields. The particular scales that will be most relevant for this study will be designated and substantiated by pertinent literature in the field. First, however, the data preparation and processing techniques used in the study will be discussed.

The .05 level of significance will be the criteria for the acceptance or rejection of a relationship. Because there is an extensive number of scales in the

instrument--thirty-four to be exact--this means that two of the thirty-four scales can be significant at the .05 level by chance alone. Therefore, in order for a hypothesis to be accepted, three or more scales will have to be significant at the .05 level. The greater the number of scales past two that are significant at the .05 level the greater the support and substantiation for the particular hypothesis. For example, a hypothesis that has ten scales that are significant at the .05 level of significance is much more impressive and provides greater substantiation for that hypothesis than does a hypothesis that has only four scales at the .05 level of significance. An important point, then, to be aware of is that the number of scales that are significant for a particular hypothesis is probably more important than whether or not the particular hypothesis has been accepted or rejected.

It is recognized that there are alternative statistical procedures that could be considered for this study. For example, the study could make the assumption that each scale of the instrument measures independent events and that scores are independent of each other. The method of binomial expansion could be utilized to

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show the probability of the occurrence of a particular sequence of events. In addition the use of discriminate function could be initiated.

The fact remains however that the scales of the JAIM are not independent of one another and are, in fact, intercorrelated. Hence the first method described is most appropriate for the present study.

In terms of the data gathering process and the statistical tests used in the study, the machine scored answer sheets were coded after they were received from the respondents. They were then sent to George Washington University where they were placed in an optical scanner and then into the computer.

The statistical tests that were deemed appropriate and subsequently used were the following:

1. Analysis of variance which provides a method of testing for significant differences between means among and between groups.
2. T-tests of the means.
3. Chi-square.

The correlations and comparisons that were made by the use of the above mentioned tests were the following:

1. A comparison of the behavioral styles of the police profession vs. the social work profession.
2. A comparison of the behavioral styles of the organizational rank levels within the profession of social work. This means a comparison of:
 - a. supervisors to consultants
 - b. supervisors to caseworkers
 - c. consultants to caseworkers
3. A comparison of the behavioral styles of the organizational rank levels within the police profession. This means a comparison of command officers to troopers.
4. A comparison of the behavioral styles of the sub-specialties within the police profession. This means a comparison of:

- a. juvenile to patrol
 - b. juvenile to training
 - c. juvenile to crime laboratory
 - d. patrol to training
 - e. patrol to crime laboratory
 - f. training to crime laboratory
6. A comparison of the behavioral styles of the sub-specialties within the social work profession. This means a comparison of:
- a. mental health to social service
 - b. mental health to private
 - c. mental health to school
 - d. social service to private
 - e. social service to school
 - f. private to school
7. A comparison of age groupings and behavioral styles within the police profession. This means a comparison of the following age groupings:

- a. 20-29 to 30-39
 - b. 20-29 to 40-49
 - c. 30-39 to 40-49
8. A comparison of age groupings and behavioral styles within the social work profession. This means a comparison of the following age groupings:
- a. 20-29 to 30-39
 - b. 20-29 to 40-49
 - c. 20-29 to 50-59
 - d. 30-39 to 40-49
 - e. 30-39 to 50-59
 - f. 40-49 to 50-59
9. A comparison of the behavioral styles of the sexes within the profession of social work.

As mentioned earlier in this section, the inter-correlations of the JAIM scales with research undertaken in the police and social work fields will be discussed. First the JAIM scales and the authors of the pertinent research will be discussed as they relate to the police

profession. Next they will be discussed as they relate to the social work profession.

Footnotes will not be provided because the authors' works were previously discussed and cited in Chapter two.

The following JAIM scales, Perseverance, Prefer Routines, Orderliness, and Directive Leadership should correlate with Skolnick, Niederhoffer, and Walther's comments about the policeman's strict adherence to rules and regulations. Clark's discussion about the strict enforcement of laws being an integral function of police work should also support the findings of the above scales and in addition have implications for the External Controls scale. Reddin's thesis about the policeman's moralistic attitudes not only relates to the above discussion but should be reflected in the Moral Absolutes scale. The Role Conformity scale should measure the degree to which the policeman values himself according to how successfully he conforms to the role requirements of society.

North and Hatts discussion of the low prestige of the police profession should have implications for the Self-Confidence scale.

The Move Against Aggressor, Persuasive Leadership, and Self-Assertiveness scales relate to comments made by Skolnick, Sheldon, Turman, and Mills. For example Skolnick believes that danger and authority in an occupation are incompatible because danger undermines the judicious use of authority and yields self-defensive conduct. Because of the many danger situations, persuasive leadership is not expedient and self-assertiveness becomes commonplace. Also in relation to self-assertiveness, Sheldon has said that the police fit perfectly into the mesomorph classification. Mesomorphy is highly correlated with the temperament of Somatotonia. This temperament is characterized by assertiveness, dominance, and competitive aggressiveness. Skolnick supports this when he says that the policeman needs to be "tough and have physical agility."

Niederhoffer mentions that there is a great feeling of "esprit de corp" in the police profession. Furthermore, both Skolnick and Niederhoffer talk about the policeman's dependence on his colleagues and the need for teamwork. The Participative Leadership and Delegative Leadership scales relate to these concepts.

The Social Interaction scale should reflect Clark's and Skolnick's ideas about police isolation.

The Intellectual Achievement and Academic Achievement scales are related to Giaradin's comments and the results of the New York police survey in which it was learned that most policemen come from the lower portions of their graduating high school classes and generally have not been successful in past academic endeavors.

The Identifies with Authority scale should be significant in terms of statements by Adorno, Niederhoffer, and Wohl in relation to the policeman as an authoritarian personality.

Certain scales of the JAIM should be equally revealing for the social work profession. Pins and Ginsberg mention the profession of social work being the "second choice" of many social workers. The Perseverance scale might be significant in this case.

The Moral Absolutes and External Control scales should reflect the work of Freud, McCormick, Kidneigh, and Glockel. Freud's writing emphasizes how external controls inhibit expression of man's needs and drives. McCormick and Kidneigh talk about the social worker's

dislike for conservative personalities, while Glockel alludes to the social worker's liberalism.

McCormick and Kidneigh also discuss "the social work personality" and their general dislike for athletic people. The Self-Assertiveness scale should measure these feelings. The Move Toward Aggressor scale should be significant for the same reasons as above and should also reflect Roe's research concerning the social worker's distaste for physical activities and their scoring higher on his effeminate scale. The Move Against Aggressor scale should be low for the opposite reasons as those stated for the Move Toward Aggressor scale.

Glockel's research showed how social workers dislike independence and are not leadership oriented. The Independence and Directive Leadership scales should measure these relationships.

The Problem Analysis scale should reflect Glockel's findings about social workers not being interested in original or creative activities. McCormick and Kidneigh's finding that social workers dislike scientific people could also have implications for this scale.

McCormick and Kidneigh, Pins and Glockel all mention that social workers like activities which involve working with people and helping them. Piotrowski also mentions that social workers are interested in people although Harrower and Cox found the opposite to be true. The Social Interaction, Social Service, and Group Participation scales should measure these concepts.

Niederhoffer and others have discussed the social worker's need to be nice, friendly, and helpful. If this is the case, social workers should score high on the Approval From Others scale.

The Status Attainment scale should reflect Glockel's comments about social workers not being interested in monetary rewards and McCormick's and Kidneigh's discussion of social worker's dislike for competitive persons.

There has been much contradictory discussion concerning the intelligence of social workers. Pins states that they are above average intelligence while Glockel mentions that they are below the average in comparison with most college graduates. Glockel further mentions that social workers are uninterested in the intellectual

component of a job. The Intellectual Achievement and Academic Achievement scales are designed to measure these concepts.

The results of this study should help determine the accuracy of the above theorists' findings and concepts.

The following chart will designate the scales that are expected to be significant when policemen and social workers are compared.

CHART 7

JAIM Scales and a Designation as to Expected Results
When Policemen and Social Workers are Compared

JAIM Scales	Expected Results X = Significant at .05 O = Not Significant
Optimism	O
Self-Confidence	X
Perseverance	X
Orderliness	X
Plan Ahead	O
Moral Absolutes	X
Slow Change	O
Persuasive Leadership	X
Self-Assertiveness	X
Move Toward Aggressor	X
Move Away From Aggressor	O
Move Against Aggressor	X
Prefer Routines	X
Authority Identification	X
Independence	X
Directive Leadership	X
Participative Leadership	X
Delegative Leadership	X
Knowledge of Results	O
External Controls	X
Systematical-Methodical	O
Problem Analysis	X
Social Interaction	X
Mechanical Activities	O
Supervisory Activities	O
Activity Frequent Change	O
Group Participation	X
Status Attainment	X
Social Service	X
Approval From Others	X
Intellectual Achievement	O
Maintain Societal Standards	O
Role Conformity	X
Academic Achievement	O

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The purpose of this chapter is to present an analysis of the data as a result of comparing policemen and social workers. The hypotheses will be discussed and relevant data bearing upon each hypothesis will be stated.

Analysis of the Relationships

The hypotheses were evaluated in terms of scores on each of the thirty-four scales of the JAIM as they relate to the two professions.

A total of 200 answer sheets, 100 policemen and 100 social workers, were obtained. Three of the answer sheets, however, were unacceptable because the respondents failed to code them properly. Thus, the total number of answer sheets for analysis was reduced to 197. Two of the sheets eliminated were school caseworkers and the other sheet was a police patrol trooper.

The standard score program was used. The standard scores are based on the average of forty-two occupational groups including foreign service officers, lawyers, secretaries, business executives, ambassadors, engineers, physicists, army officers, and judges. The mean is equated to 0 and the standard deviation to 100.

The higher the score on a particular scale, the more often the subject has chosen the options for this scale as being descriptive of himself in preference to the options for the other scales and has avoided options which are negatively scored for the scale.

The .05 level of confidence is the criteria for the acceptance or rejection of a relationship. Because there is an extensive number of scales in the instrument, thirty-four to be exact, this means that two of the thirty-four scales can be significant at the .05 level of confidence by chance alone. Therefore, in order for a hypothesis to be accepted, three or more scales have to be significant at the .05 level of confidence.

The major thesis of this study is that there will be differences in behavioral styles when policemen and social workers are compared.

Hypothesis I: Different kinds of work and work situations demand different types of orientations and behavioral styles of the persons who operate them. Since policemen and social workers operate in different work situations, there should be different and distinguishable behavioral styles when the two professions are compared.

Chart number eight compares the actual results with the expected results stated in Chapter IV on the thirty-four scales in terms of their significance at (at least) the .05 level of confidence.

It can be seen that nineteen scales are the same in both expected and actual results. Fifteen scales do not match. Some of the implications of Chart number eight will be discussed in Chapter VI.

Chart number nine illustrates the F-ratio results when policemen and social workers were compared on standard scores on the JAIM scales.

CHART 8

Comparisons of the Expected Results with the Actual Results
on the JAIM Scales when Policemen and Social Workers
Were Compared

JAIM Scales	X = Significant at .05 O = Not Significant	
	Expected Results	Actual Results
Optimism	O	O
Self-Confidence	X	X
Perseverance	X	X
Orderliness	X	X
Plan Ahead*	O	X
Moral Absolutes	X	X
Slow Change*	O	X
Persuasive Leadership*	X	O
Self-Assertiveness	X	X
Move Toward Aggressor	X	X
Move Away From Aggressor	O	O
Move Against Aggressor*	X	O
Prefer Routines	X	X
Authority Identification*	X	O
Independence	X	X
Directive Leadership	X	X
Participative Leadership	X	X
Delegative Leadership	X	X
Knowledge of Results*	O	X
External Controls	X	X
Systematical-Methodical*	O	X
Problem Analysis*	X	O
Social Interaction	X	X
Mechanical Activities*	O	X
Supervisory Activities*	O	X
Activity-Frequent Change	O	O
Group Participation*	X	O
Status Attainment*	X	O
Social Service	X	X
Approval From Others	X	X
Intellectual Achievement*	O	X
Maintain Societal Standards*	O	X
Role Conformity	X	X
Academic Achievement*	O	X

*Means expected and actual results were different.

CHART 9*

Comparison of Policemen and Social Workers on Standard
Scores on the JAIM Scales (N = 197)

JAIM Scales	f-Ratio	CL
Police Higher (N = 99)		
Perseverance	23.392	.01
Orderliness	64.923	.01
Moral Absolutes	44.767	.01
Slow Change	18.793	.01
Self-Assertiveness	44.368	.01
Prefer Routines	39.709	.01
Directive Leadership	53.090	.01
External Controls	65.314	.01
Systematic-Methodical	28.166	.01
Mechanical Activities	79.458	.01
Supervisory Activities	9.166	.01
Role Conformity	75.203	.01
Social Work Higher (N = 98)		
Self-Confidence	25.209	.01
Plan Ahead	12.527	.01
Move Toward Aggressor	11.908	.01
Independence	33.760	.01
Participative Leadership	9.168	.01
Delegative Leadership	15.121	.01
Knowledge of Results	6.695	.01
Social Interaction	42.033	.01
Social Service	52.955	.01
Approval from Others	20.045	.01
Intellectual Achievement	12.244	.01
Maintain Societal Standards	7.154	.01
Academic Achievement	24.157	.01

P < .05 with R = 3.84.

P < .01 with R = 6.63.

*The total printout can be found in Appendix C. Only the significant relationships will be discussed in this chapter.

The analysis of variance technique was utilized and the F-ratio in the case of one degree of freedom is the square of the T-value. Any scale over 3.84 is significant at the .05 level of confidence and any scale over 6.63 is significant at the .01 level of confidence.

Twenty-five scales are significant at the .01 level of confidence. A brief, general profile of social workers and policemen will be given as reflected by the outcome of the scales in Chart nine when the two professions were compared.

The Police Profile

The policeman profile suggests that he has a preference for working in a structured setting (Prefer Routines, Orderliness) and prefers the use of the structure for guiding the behavior of others (External Controls).

He is guided by internal standards, believes that moral principles come from a power higher than man and that it is important to have faith in something (Moral Absolutes). In reference to leadership styles, he has a preference for a directive approach through the use of external controls (Directive Leadership).

He knows what he wants and is willing to strive to reach some goal that he has established for himself (Perseverance, Supervisory Activities). He pursues goals and performs his duties even though he may not receive the approval of others. He values himself according to how successfully he has conformed to the role requirements and duties of society (Role Conformity). He is cautious concerning abrupt changes and feels that change should be initiated in a conventional manner (Slow Change).

He uses systematic methods for processing information and reaching decisions (Systematical-Methodical).

He likes mechanical and outdoor activities (Mechanical Activities), does better under stress and competition and is proficient in athletic endeavors (Self-Assertiveness).

The Social Worker Profile

The social worker profile suggests that he has a preference for working independently (Independence, Delegative Leadership), directing his own activity toward goal achievement (Plan Ahead) and utilizing groups for decision

making (Participative Leadership). He believes that people are motivated best by intrinsic motivation and knowledge of the results (Knowledge of Results).

He prefers a job that involves interaction with other people (Social Interaction). He wishes to be considered understanding and charitable and prefers work which permits him to be helpful to others (Social Service). He also likes congenial co-workers, desires to be well-liked and to please others through his work (Approval From Others).

He feels he can influence future events by his own action (Self-Confidence) and values himself by his contribution to social improvement (Social Service). He also values himself for his intellectual pursuits (Intellectual Achievement) and he does well in academic situations (Academic Achievement).

The fact that twenty-five scales were significant when policemen and social workers were compared gives credence to the assumption that when policemen and social workers are compared they exhibit different behavioral styles. Therefore, the hypothesis, that different kinds of work and work situations demand different types of orientations of the persons who operate them and since

policemen and social workers operate in different work situations, there should be different and distinguishable behavioral styles when the two professions are compared, is accepted.

Hypothesis II: There will be a differentiation of behavioral styles within the profession of social work depending on the rank of the person in the organization.

The investigation of the differences among sub-specialties and rank levels was undertaken by way of computation of T-tests of the mean difference between the various sub-specialties and rank levels.

First, consultants were compared with supervisors. In this comparison nine JAIM scales significantly differentiated consultants and supervisors.

Consultants scored higher on items that indicated a preference for moral absolutes and a method of reacting to aggression by withdrawing. They prefer routines, conform to the roles requirements of society and more readily identify with authority. Supervisors are more

CHART 10

Comparison of Consultants and Supervisors in Mean
Score on the JAIM Scales (N = 47)

JAIM Scale	t-value	CL
<u>Consultants Higher (N = 19)</u>		
Moral Absolutes	2.30	.05
Move Away from Aggressor	2.33	.05
Prefer Routines	2.17	.05
Authority Identification	2.20	.05
Role Conformity	2.24	.05
<u>Supervisors Higher (N = 28)</u>		
Self-Confidence	-2.07	.05
Plan Ahead	-2.06	.05
Independence	-2.47	.05
Intellectual Achievement	-2.72	.01

$P < .05$ with $t = 2.021$ for $df = 45$.

$P < .01$ with $t = 2.704$ for $df = 45$.

self-confident, prefer to plan ahead, desire independence and use intellectual achievement as a measure of success.

When consultants were compared with caseworkers, four scales were significant.

Consultants again tend to prefer moral absolutes, to identify with authority, and to conform to their expected roles. Caseworkers do better in academic situations.

CHART 11

Comparisons of Consultants and Caseworkers in Mean
Score on the JAIM Scales (N = 70)

JAIM Scale	t-value	CL
<u>Consultants</u> Higher (N = 19)		
Moral Absolutes	2.77	.01
Authority Identification	2.68	.01
Role Conformity	2.22	.05
<u>Caseworkers</u> Higher (N = 51)		
Academic Achievement	-2.37	.05

$P < .05$ with $t = 2.000$ for $df = 68$.

$P < .01$ with $t = 2.660$ for $df = 68$.

Finally, only three scales significantly differentiated supervisors from caseworkers.

Supervisors, quite expectedly, scored higher on the scales reflecting supervisory activities and self-confidence. They also value themselves by their intellectual pursuits. Caseworkers did not score significantly higher on any of the scales.

The preceding discussion indicates that rank level of social workers in the organization does make a difference in their behavioral styles. Therefore, the

CHART 12

Comparison of Supervisors and Caseworkers in Mean
Score on the JAIM Scales (N = 79)

JAIM Scale	t-value	CL
<u>Supervisors</u> Higher (N = 28)		
Self-Confidence	2.04	.05
Supervisory Activities	2.46	.05
Intellectual Activities	2.65	.05
<u>Caseworkers</u> Higher (N = 51)		
None		

$P < .05$ with $t = 2.021$ for $df = 77$.

hypothesis, that there will be a differentiation of behavioral styles within the profession of social work depending on the rank of the person in the organization, is accepted.

Hypothesis III: There will be a differentiation of behavioral styles within the police profession depending on the rank of the person in the organization.

Six scales significantly differentiated troopers from command officers.

CHART 13

Comparison of Command Officers and Troopers in
Mean Score on the JAIM Scales (N = 99)

JAIM Scale	t-value	CL
<u>Command Officers</u> Higher (N = 29)		
Orderliness	2.05	.05
Moral Absolutes	2.43	.05
Move Toward Aggressor	2.88	.01
Directive Leadership	2.19	.05
Supervisory Activities	2.11	.05
<u>Troopers</u> Higher (N = 70)		
Independence	-2.66	.01

$P < .05$ with $t = 2.000$ for $df = 97$.

$P < .01$ with $t = 2.660$ for $df = 97$.

Command officers prefer directive methods of leadership, enjoy supervising others and are generally guided by internal standards and moral principles. They prefer to try to "win the person over" when they are treated in an aggressive manner. Troopers on the other hand score higher on only the Independence scale.

As was the case with social workers, so do policemen in different rank levels have varying behavioral styles. Therefore, the hypothesis that there will be a differentiation of behavioral styles within the police

profession depending on the rank of the person in the organization is accepted.

Hypothesis IV: There will be a differentiation of behavioral styles within the profession of social work depending on the area of specialization (sub-specialty).

Two of the relationships, private agency social workers vs. school social workers and social service social workers vs. school social workers were not significant.

When Mental Health social workers were compared with school social workers, eight scales were significant.

Mental Health workers prefer to be independent and to be judged by their intellectual achievements. School workers are more structured, enjoy mechanical activities, and believe in moral absolutes. They value themselves according to how well they maintain standards established by society and according to how successful they have performed their role requirements.

CHART 14

Comparison of Mental Health and School Social
Workers in Mean Score on the JAIM Scales
(N = 36)

JAIM Scale	t-value	CL
<u>Mental Health Higher (N = 24)</u>		
Independence	2.43	.05
Intellectual Achievement	3.27	.01
<u>School Social Workers Higher (N = 12)</u>		
Orderliness	-2.96	.01
Moral Absolutes	-5.10	.001
Prefer Routines	-2.52	.05
Mechanical Activities	-2.04	.05
Maintain Societal Standards	-2.14	.05
Role Conformity	-2.17	.05

$P < .05$ with $t = 2.042$ for $df = 34$.

$P < .01$ with $t = 2.750$ for $df = 34$.

$P < .001$ with $t = 3.646$ for $df = 34$.

Eight scales significantly differentiated mental health workers from social service workers.

Again mental health workers scored higher on the independence scale and in addition feel that knowledge of results is the most effective means of motivating people. Social service workers present a more conservative profile and prefer a more structured setting. They believe

in moral absolutes and enjoy mechanical and outdoor activities.

CHART 15

Comparison of Mental Health and Social Service
in Mean Score on the JAIM Scales (N = 68)

JAIM Scale	t-value	CL
<u>Mental Health</u> Higher (N = 24)		
Independence	2.91	.01
Knowledge of Results	3.08	.01
<u>Social Service</u> Higher (N = 44)		
Orderliness	-2.99	.01
Moral Absolutes	-4.46	.001
Slow Change	-2.46	.05
Prefer Routines	-3.75	.001
Directive Leadership	-2.55	.05
Mechanical Activites	-2.33	.05

$P < .05$ with $t = 2.000$ for $df = 66$.

$P < .01$ with $t = 2.660$ for $df = 66$.

$P < .001$ with $t = 3.460$ for $df = 66$.

Six scales were significant when mental health social workers were compared with private agency social workers.

As was the case when mental health workers were compared in the previous two scales, they again score

CHART 16

Comparison of Mental Health and Private Agencies
in Mean Score on the JAIM Scales (N = 42)

JAIM Scale	t-value	CL
<u>Mental Health</u> Higher (N = 24)		
Independence	3.68	.001
Problem Analysis	2.05	.05
<u>Private Agencies</u> Higher (N = 18)		
Moral Absolutes	-3.07	.01
Slow Change	-2.36	.05
Prefer Routines	-4.07	.001
Authority Identification	-2.67	.05

P < .05 with t = 2.021 for df = 40.

P < .01 with t = 2.704 for df = 40.

P < .001 with t = 3.551 for df = 40.

higher on the independence scale but in addition when compared with private agency workers prefer to be considered creative and original. Private agency workers prefer a more structured orientation and try to please their superiors.

Six scales significantly differentiated social service workers from private agency workers.

Status attainment and being considered ingenious are important for the social service workers when they

CHART 17

Comparison of Social Service and Private Agencies
in Mean Score on the JAIM Scales (N = 62)

JAIM Scale	t-value	CL
<u>Social Service Higher (N = 44)</u>		
Problem Analysis	2.42	.05
Status Attainment	2.00	.05
<u>Private Agencies Higher (N = 18)</u>		
Delegative Leadership	-2.16	.05
Knowledge of Results	-2.47	.05
Group Participation	-2.04	.05
Academic Achievement	-2.15	.05

$P < .05$ with $t = 2.000$ for $df = 60$.

are compared with private agency workers. Private agency workers feel that group participation, intrinsic motivation, and the delegation of decision-making authority is most desirable. They have also done well in academic situations.

There is extensive substantiation then for the assumption that area of specialization for social workers does make a difference, in their behavioral styles. Therefore, the hypothesis that there will be a differentiation of behavioral styles within the profession of

social work depending on the area of specialization is accepted.

Hypothesis V: There will be a differentiation of behavioral styles within the police profession depending on the area of specialization (sub-specialty).

Not as many sub-specialty relationships were as significant when police sub-specialties were compared. Four of the relationships were not significant. These were:

Police Patrol Division vs. Police Training Division
Police Juvenile Division vs. Police Crime Laboratory
Police Juvenile Division vs. Police Training Division
Police Juvenile Division vs. Police Patrol Division

Only three scales significantly differentiated patrol policemen from crime lab policemen.

Patrol policemen utilize internal standards to a great extent while crime lab policemen use systematic

CHART 18

Comparison of Police Patrol Division and Police
Crime Laboratory Division in Mean Score on the
JAIM Scales (N = 82)

JAIM Scale	t-value	CL
<u>Police Patrol</u> Higher (N = 71)		
Orderliness	2.69	.05
<u>Police Crime Lab</u> Higher (N = 11)		
Systematic-Methodical	-2.98	.05
Academic Achievement	-2.53	.05

$P < .05$ with $t = 2.000$ for $df = 80$.

methods for processing information. They also perform better in academic situations.

When training division officers were compared with crime lab officers, six scales were significant.

Training division officers, like patrol officers when they were compared with crime lab officers, score higher on the Orderliness scale. They also prefer to move against an aggressor when they are treated belligerently. On the other hand, crime lab officers prefer to try to "win the aggressor over" when they are attacked. Again they prefer systematic methods for processing information

CHART 19

Comparison of Police Training Division and
Police Crime Laboratory in Mean Score on
the JAIM Scales (N = 20)

JAIM Scale	t-value	CL
<u>Police Training Higher (N = 9)</u>		
Orderliness	2.56	.05
Move Against Aggressor	2.19	.05
<u>Police Crime Laboratory Higher (N = 11)</u>		
Move Toward Aggressor	-2.49	.05
Systematical-Methodical	-2.16	.05
Mechanical Activities	-2.88	.01
Approval from Others	-2.70	.05

$P < .05$ with $t = 2.101$ for $df = 18$.

$P < .01$ with $t = 2.878$ for $df = 18$.

and making decisions. The crime lab officers enjoy mechanical activities and in addition they consider it important to have congenial co-workers.

Although the evidence for differentiation between police sub-specialties is not as impressive for policemen as it is for social workers; there is nevertheless evidence to support the fact that area of specialization for policemen does effect their behavioral styles. Therefore, the hypothesis that there will be a differentiation of

behavioral styles within the police profession depending on area specialization is accepted.

Even though the variables of sex and age were not incorporated into a hypothesis, the possible relationships between the above mentioned variables and behavioral styles was considered to be worth reporting.

All of the respondents in the police sample were male. Hence, there were no relationships. In the social work sample, there were forty-seven females and fifty-one males. Fourteen scales were significant at (at least) the .05 level of confidence.

Many of the results on this comparison would be expected when males and females are compared regardless of profession. For example, females are more optimistic, have more of an accommodating attitude toward aggression, place higher emphasis on group participation and the approval of others. They are also more proficient in academic endeavors. Males place more emphasis on moral absolutes and believe that leadership styles should be directive. They are more self-assertive and they enjoy supervisory and mechanical activities. They enjoy work which provides excitement and a great deal of variety and they

CHART 20

Comparison of Social Work Females and Social
Work Males in Mean Score on the JAIM
Scales (N = 98)

JAIM Scale	f-Ratio	CL
<u>Social Work Females Higher (N = 47)</u>		
Optimism	5.224	.05
Move Toward Aggressor	5.479	.05
Knowledge of Results	7.474	.01
Group Participation	14.136	.01
Approval from Others	8.554	.01
Academic Achievement	17.887	.01
<u>Social Work Males Higher (N = 51)</u>		
Moral Absolutes	4.702	.05
Self-Assertiveness	27.803	.01
Directive Leadership	8.074	.01
Problem Analysis	8.586	.01
Mechanical Activities	12.639	.01
Activity-Frequent Change	11.211	.01
Status Attainment	7.409	.01
Supervisory Activities	5.317	.05

P < .05 with F = 3.84.

P < .01 with F = 6.63.

like to be considered ingenious. In addition, they value themselves in accordance with the achievement of status symbols established by the culture.

An extensive discussion of the relationships between the age ranges and behavioral styles will not be

given. The age groupings are arbitrary, and the relationships are in most cases minimal. Charts will be provided however to illustrate the significant relationships that do exist. Two relationships on the age charts for social workers were not significant. They were age group 20-29 vs. age group 40-49 and age group 40-49 vs. age group 50-59.

CHART 21

Comparison of Social Work Age Group 20-29 and Social
Work Age Group 30-39 in Mean Score on the JAIM
Scales (N = 66)

JAIM Scale	t-value	CL
<u>Social Work Age Group 20-29 Higher (N = 30)</u>		
External Controls	2.85	.01
Systematical-Methodical	2.58	.05
<u>Social Work Age Group 30-39 Higher (N = 36)</u>		
Supervisory Activities	-2.33	.05

P < .05 with t = 2.000 for df = 64.

P < .01 with t = 2.660 for df = 64.

CHART 22

Comparison of Social Work Age Group 20-29 and
Social Work Age Group 50-59 in Mean Score on
the JAIM Scales (N = 39)

JAIM Scale	t-value	CL
<u>Social Work Age Group 20-29</u> Higher (N = 30)		
Plan Ahead	2.45	.05
Social Interaction	2.22	.05
Activity-Frequent Change	2.38	.05
<u>Social Work Age Group 50-59</u> Higher (N = 9)		
Orderliness	-3.16	.01

P < .05 with t = 2.042 for df = 37.

P < .01 with t = 2.750 for df = 37.

CHART 23

Comparison of Social Work Age Group 30-39 and
Social Work Age Group 40-49 in Mean Score on
the JAIM Scales (N = 59)

JAIM Scale	t-value	CL
<u>Social Work Age Group 30-39</u> Higher (N = 36)		
Self-Confidence	2.35	.05
Move Against Aggressor	2.21	.05
Supervisory Activities	2.86	.01
<u>Social Work Age Group 40-49</u> Higher (N = 23)		
Slow Change	-2.81	.01
Systematical-Methodical	-3.24	.01

P < .05 with t = 2.021 for df = 57.

P < .01 with t = 2.704 for df = 57.

CHART 24

Comparison of Social Work Age Group 30-39 and Social Work Age Group 50-59 in Mean Score on the JAIM Scales (N = 45)

JAIM Scale	t-value	CL
<u>Social Work Age Group 30-39 Higher (N = 36)</u>		
Self-Confidence	2.42	.05
Plan Ahead	2.69	.05
Move Against Aggressor	2.57	.05
Activity-Frequent Change	2.52	.05
Status Attainment	2.55	.05
<u>Social Work Age Group 50-59 Higher (N = 9)</u>		
Orderliness	-3.92	.001

P < .05 with t = 2.021 for df = 43.

P < .01 with t = 2.704 for df = 43.

P < .001 with t = 3.551 for df = 43.

CHART 25

Comparison of Police Age Group 20-29 and Police Age Group 30-39 in Mean Score on the JAIM Scales (N = 76)

JAIM Scale	t-value	CL
<u>Police Age Group 20-29 Higher (N = 41)</u>		
Move Away from Aggressor	2.25	.05
Independence	2.65	.05
External Controls	2.63	.05
<u>Police Age Group 30-39 Higher (N = 35)</u>		
Optimism	-2.90	.01
Perseverance	-3.13	.01
Moral Absolutes	-4.40	.001
Slow Change	-3.24	.01
Mechanical Activities	-3.45	.01
Social Service	-2.10	.05

P < .05 with t = 2.000 for df = 74.

P < .01 with t = 2.660 for df = 74.

P < .001 with t = 3.460 for df = 74.

CHART 26

Comparison of Police Age Group 20-29 and Police Age Group
40-49 in Mean Score on the JAIM Scales (N = 64)

JAIM Scale	t-value	CL
<u>Police Age Group 20-29 Higher (N = 41)</u>		
Move Against Aggressor	3.13	.01
Independence	3.36	.01
Status Attainment	2.16	.05
<u>Police Age Group 40-49 Higher (N = 23)</u>		
Mechanical Activities	-2.05	.05
Approval from Others	-2.08	.05

P < .05 with t = 2.000 for df = 62.

P < .01 with t = 2.660 for df = 62.

CHART 27

Comparison of Police Age Group 30-39 and Police Age Group
40-49 in Mean Score on the JAIM Scales (N = 58)

JAIM Scale	t-value	CL
<u>Police Age Group 30-39 Higher (N = 35)</u>		
Perseverance	2.37	.05
Slow Change	2.37	.05
Persuasive Leadership	2.40	.05
Move Against Aggressor	2.54	.05
<u>Police Age Group 40-49 Higher (N = 23)</u>		
Move Away from Aggressor	-2.34	.05

P < .05 with t = 2.021 for df = 56.

Summary of Chapter V

Many of the findings as a result of the comparison of policemen and social workers were anticipated and hence substantiate the findings of many of the theorists who were discussed in Chapters II and IV.

The general profiles of persons in the two professions and the summary after each sub-specialty and rank comparison do not provide the reader with any major "surprises." Appendix C gives the mean scores on each scale and also provides a rank designation as to the level of significance.

When the two professions were compared all twenty-five scales were significant at the .01 level of confidence. As can be seen from the mean scores in Appendix C none of the nine remaining scales were even close to the minimum .05 level of confidence. In other words, each scale was either extremely significant or else there was very little difference between the two professions.

Not all of the significant twenty-five scales, however, were expected to be significant. Conversely some of the remaining nine scales that were expected to be significant were not.

The rationale for predicting a scale either significant or not significant was related to whether the particular scale had prior empirical substantiation from theorists in the two professions.

Glockel's extensive discussion of the social workers' aversion to being independent was the major reason for predicting that the Plan Ahead scale would not be significant. Contrary to Glockel's findings, the results of this study illustrates that social workers do prefer to "direct their own activity." Furthermore they prefer to be motivated and motivate others by intrinsic methods as reflected by the outcome on the Knowledge of Results scale. The results on this scale are not surprising, however, when one consults the social worker's profile which shows his preference for flexibility and the use of internal controls. The Maintain Societal Standards scale measures the degree of emphasis a person places on maintaining professional standards. The outcome on this scale is understandable when one considers the emphasis that the field of social work places on professionalism. Even though there is some question as to the social workers academic ability when compared to a general college population, the Intellectual and Academic Achievement scales should have been predicted significant

in favor of social workers because of their more extensive academic backgrounds.

The police were higher on the Slow Change, Systematic-Methodical, Mechanical Activities, and Supervisory Activities scales. The results on all four of these scales are not surprising when they are compared to the policeman's profile. The profile suggests that the policeman is a conventional personality, likes masculine activities, is a deliberate planner and has a tendency to "weigh the facts" before he makes a decision. Hence these scales do not deviate from the theoretical and popular conception of the policeman.

Six scales were not significant but were expected to be so. Social Workers were expected to score higher on the Persuasive Leadership and Group Participation scales because of their reliance on persuasion and other passive methods when working with clients. Furthermore they prefer social interaction and enjoy working with people. Apparently policemen do not feel that much differently in these two areas.

The Move Against Aggressor and Authority Identification scales were expected to be significant. Because of the implications of these two scales they will be discussed in Chapter V.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY OF RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This exploratory study of the behavioral styles of social workers versus policemen has served as a vehicle for examining the five hypotheses of this study.

Findings of the Study

The Sample

A total of ninety-eight social workers and ninety-nine policemen comprised the sample. In the social work sample, twenty-four were from Mental Health, forty-four from Social Service, eighteen from private agencies and twelve school workers. Nineteen social workers were consultants, twenty-eight were supervisors, and fifty-one were caseworkers.

In the police sample eight were from the juvenile division, nine from the training division, eleven from the crime lab division, and seventy-one from the patrol division. Twenty-nine policemen were command officers and seventy were troopers.

All of the policemen were males while fifty-one of the social workers were males and forty-seven were females. In terms of age there were forty-one policemen and thirty social workers in the 20-29 age bracket, thirty-five policemen and thirty-six social workers in the 30-39 age bracket, twenty-three policemen and twenty-three social workers in the 40-49 age bracket, and no policemen and nine social workers in the 50-59 age bracket.

Summary of Hypotheses

The five hypotheses were tested by the use of appropriate statistical techniques (see Chapter Four for their description). The results were reported in Chapter V with respect to each of the hypotheses. A summary of the results is as follows:

1. There is a significant difference between the behavioral styles of social workers when compared to policemen. Twenty-five scales were significant at the .01 level of confidence.
2. There was a significant difference at (at least) the .05 level among social workers depending on the rank of the person in the organization.
3. There was a significant difference at (at least) the .05 level among policemen depending on the rank level of the person in the organization.
4. There was a significant difference at (at least) the .05 level among social workers depending on their area of specialization.
5. There was a significant difference at (at least) the .05 level among policemen depending on their area of specialization.

Discussion

The policeman and social worker profiles that were given in Chapter V are generally consistent with many of the theorists whose works were discussed in Chapter II. Furthermore, most of the intra-profession comparisons appear to be accurate and consistent with what one would expect. For example, Chart 12, which compares supervisors to caseworkers, illustrates, as expected, that supervisors score high on the Supervisory Activities and Self-Confidence scales.

In terms of area of specialization, the comparisons also reflected to a great extent the uniqueness of the particular agency setting. School social workers and social service workers present a more structured profile when compared to mental health social workers. The school setting is of course traditionally more structured because of the educational objectives and structured methods that are needed to fulfill these objectives.

The Social Service Department has typically evidenced a more structured approach than the Mental Health Department because of the general nature of their functions. The Social Service Department is charged with

dispensing public assistance and other like programs. Because of this guidelines and regulations have to be established governing the application for and use of state funds by the recipients.

The Mental Health Department does not dispense tangible items to their clients such as money and surplus food. Hence this department does not need an extensive amount of rules and regulations to govern their clients' behavior. Persons seek assistance at Mental Health agencies on a voluntary basis and once they are clients structured rules and regulations are minimal.

The results of the comparisons between the police sub-specialties were not as impressive as the social work sub-specialties. It should be remembered however that the police sub-specialties were intra-departmental comparisons while the social work sub-specialty comparisons were inter-departmental. The pervading philosophy of the particular department would be expected and in fact did appear to make a difference.

As a result of this study, there could be much speculation as to why certain groups, when compared, score a particular way. For example, in Chart 13, which compares

troopers to command officers, command officers score significantly higher on the Move Toward Aggressor scale. It could be speculated that when an officer becomes a commander and is removed from "on the line duties," he deals with aggressive situations differently because he is not directly involved in the altercations.

One could also speculate on the results illustrated in Chart 15 which compares social service workers to mental health workers. It is interesting to note that the social service workers' profile when compared to the mental health social workers is almost identical with the policeman's profile when he is compared to a social worker.

In retrospect the writer wonders what the results would have been if only social service department social workers or only male social workers were compared to policemen. Would the behavioral style differences between the two groups have been less?

Thus, as can be seen from the previous discussion, the speculation could be unlimited. The results were discussed in Chapter V, so in lieu of exhausting all speculative possibilities the writer will discuss the results of two specific scales, The Move Against Aggressor and Identifies with Authority scales.

Even though, as Chart 8 illustrates, many of the actual results are the same as the expected results, there are some differences.

Two of the scales had particularly interesting results when policemen and social workers were compared. There was no significant difference between the two groups on the Move Against Aggressor and Identifies with Authority scales. Furthermore, the Identifies With Authority scale showed the least amount of difference of any of the thirty-four scales. These scales are mentioned not only because they were expected to be significant but because these are two of the areas where policemen receive much criticism.

In relation to authoritarianism, Niederhoffer states that when the authoritarian concept is discussed, the collection of traits and combination of these traits becomes astronomical with many variations depending on the particular theorist.

To complicate the matter some of the qualities which are blended together in authoritarian persons cancel each other out. For example aggression and submission are both responses consistent with authoritarianism. The concept shares some of the mystery common to such well known personality dimensions delineated in

psychoanalytical doctrine such as the unconscious, the id, the super ego, the libido, the oedipus complex, sadomasochism, etc. Behavior that seems to indicate one tendency may on Freud's authority signify its exact opposite. For example, the Freudian may classify a philanderer as a latent homosexual. Equally ambitious is the connection between an occupational role and the person who fills it. Does the occupational authoritarian necessarily possess an authoritarian personality? The confusion in definitions and boundaries is implicit in the discussion of police authoritarianism.¹⁴¹

The supposed and subjective source of police authoritarianism is a persistent question. Many theorists, Niederhoffer in particular, take the position that authoritarianism develops as a result of socialization and experience in the police system.¹⁴² Others feel that those with authoritarian personalities seek police work so as to satisfy their domineering needs. The former theorists feel the police system fosters authoritarianism while the latter theorists attribute it to pre-police system personality traits.

There have been few definitive studies related to police authoritarianism and evidence for the existence of

¹⁴¹ Niederhoffer, Behind the Shield, op. cit., p. 105.

¹⁴² Ibid., p. 70.

the concept has too many times relied on broad and vague psychological and sociological ill-defined characteristics. Most of the studies of police authoritarianism have been after the fact studies by psychoanalytically oriented psychiatrists.

Ginsberg has illustrated that there is a relationship between occupational choice and personality needs and that working class teenagers who intended to become policemen indicated that the job security aspect was the primary reason for choosing police work. It has never been scientifically substantiated that men are drawn to police work because of a need to dominate the public, demonstrate their authority, and utilize the glamour of the uniform. If scientific studies could determine this then it could possibly be concluded that police work attracts authoritarians. As Ginsberg's research illustrates and as Niederhoffer states, the fact that security is the most frequent reason for the choice of police work seems to dispel much of the conjecture about police authoritarianism.

The writer does not propose that the results on the authority scale in the present study gives definite substantiation to the fact that previous research on police

¹⁴³Ibid., p. 140.

authoritarianism is unacceptable and inaccurate. It should be remembered that this is a comparative study between social workers and policemen exclusively. Hence, the scores on the scales for policemen and social workers have not been computed with norm scores of other occupations.

The salient point to be made, then, is not that policemen or social workers are or are not authoritarians because they scored the same on the Authority scale but that one of the professions that has been most critical of policemen in this area scored almost identically on the above mentioned scale.

It would also be expected that policemen would score higher than social workers on the Move Against Aggressor scale, which measures the degree to which the individual counter-attacks when someone acts toward him in a belligerent manner. Recent confrontations of demonstrators with policemen and the resultant reactions of the police has lead many to criticize the police for counter-attacking too quickly and too indiscriminately. Again because there is no significant difference between social workers and policemen on this scale does not mean that this criticism is unwarranted or false. It only means that again a

profession that has been one of the critics of the police has scored the same when compared with the police.

If this study does nothing more, the writer hopes that it points out that indiscriminate labeling can have negative consequences. It helps perpetuate inter-agency conflicts and diverts much of the agencies' energy which could be used to help solve the social ills of society.

6) The entire concept of behavioral styles has many implications and raises many questions. Knowing that different professions have different requirements and expectations, do we necessarily want policemen and social workers to have the same styles of behavior? For example, the policeman's profile reflects a tendency for him to want to preserve the status quo. This is not unusual when you consider that policemen are charged with and evaluated by their ability to enforce and uphold laws as they presently stand. Likewise, it is not surprising that social workers score low on the Moral Absolutes scale, for it is their profession that is many times, either implicitly or explicitly, charged with evaluating and helping to change present outmoded laws which constrict the liberties of some disadvantaged groups. This raises questions both in

relation to the expectations of society for particular professions and in relation to the training of professions so that they may more effectively operate in our ever changing world. This study is not equipped to comprehensively evaluate and answer the above stated questions.

✱ It has often been said of the police (Skolnick) that they will be no better than the political context in which they operate. Furthermore to change a police style or a social work style one must first understand the extent to which that style is subjected to the decision-making processes of the community.

In relation to training Jerome Skolnick has advocated a new system of training policemen and social workers together in one institution so as to give police and social workers insight and sensitivity into the other's profession. Thus they would be better equipped to deal with present social ills and much of the ever present contest and inter-profession antagonism would be eliminated. He further believes that the commendable crusade for police professionalism has been too narrowly conceived. It has focused on improving efficiency of police performance through advanced technology and training but has neglected

the human dimension of police work. He feels that true police professionalism would be sensitive to the social problems of the people they deal with and would cease to regard social agency activities as outside of their domain. He feels that because police are already performing social agency activities the creation of joint education programs for training policemen would be logical.¹⁴⁴ It might be added that the true test of social work professionalism may be how readily they accept others, many times less-educated, into their domain of dispensing of the social services.

X In short then, it would be helpful for the police to absorb from social workers some of the general theories and concepts which would help them in understanding social problems and the people who are inflicted. On the other hand, it would be helpful if social workers would absorb some of the policeman's "reality therapy" and appreciate some of the problems he encounters in his "face to face" confrontation with social deviants. In addition, technical

¹⁴⁴Jerome Skolnick, "Social Training for Police Recommended," The Los Angeles Times, Oct. 3, 1968.

assistance programs could be initiated by experts who understand both occupational systems.

Limitations of the Study

This study may be criticized because the police sample was taken from only one organization, the Michigan State Police. This organization is commonly acknowledged to have high professional standards and a courteous approach. The fact remains however that when policemen are stereotyped, the stereotyper does not usually make a distinction between police agencies. Hence, the general concept of "the police personality" is usually meant to incorporate all persons who are engaged in police work. This study should help either substantiate or dispel some of the common conceptions of policemen regardless of the fact that only one police organization was utilized.

Another limitation of the study is that self-report inventories cannot prevent respondents from "faking" if it is to their advantage to do so. Many times the probability of endorsement of a statement which is positively correlated with the social desirability of the

particular item is great. Preiss and Ehrlich comment on self-report instruments and say that "there is always the potential for inconsistency between a person's reported role perception and his actual behavior."¹⁴⁵ Furthermore, it is believed that persons who have attained a higher educational level are more likely to be "test wise" and "fake" their answers. Social workers, of course, have much more education than policemen. Hopefully, faking was kept to a minimum because the respondents answered the questions in a non-threatening situation and, in addition, they did not have to identify themselves.

This was a comparative study between the police and social work professions and the results have to be interpreted with this mind.

The research is limited in that it did not discriminate between behavioral styles that were due to pre-socialization personality factors and those which were the result of the socialization process. Furthermore, the study did not examine the cumulative process of commitment to a profession.

¹⁴⁵J. J. Preiss and H. J. Ehrlich, An Examination of Role Theory, op. cit., p. 93.

Further studies could research the above mentioned limitations of this study and design research that would show the precise differences between the effects of choice by the individual, selection procedures by the institution, and the effects of the ensuing socialization process.

The JAIM instrument could be helpful to administrators when selecting personnel for sub-specialties on the basis of the person's interests and an analysis of his behavioral styles. It should be cautioned, however, that the JAIM instrument should not be the sole criteria for either acceptance or rejection of a candidate for a particular position. It should be used only as a supplemental resource.

There are many limitations to self-report instruments. They have a tendency to force a respondent to make a choice even when no choices are particularly desirable. The alternatives are many times very limited and cannot be answered with merely a "Yes" or "No" answer. They suggest that situations are more clear-cut than they actually are.

Research that utilizes a self-report instrument can be very beneficial but its limitations have to be kept in mind.

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APPENDIX A

SOCIAL RESEARCH GROUP
The George Washington University

Form 864

DO NOT WRITE IN THIS BOOKLET

JOB ANALYSIS AND INTEREST MEASUREMENT (JAIM)
FORM 864

Distributed for Research Purposes
Educational Testing Service
Princeton, N.J.

This booklet contains a number of questions about your background, interests, and work preferences. There are no "right" or "wrong" answers to any of the questions. The JAIM was designed as a method for examining the "behavioral styles" of different occupational and professional groups. To date, it has been used for studying more than thirty occupational groups including engineers, lawyers, Foreign Service officers, ambassadors, judges, social workers, policemen, physicists, and secretaries. It has been found to be highly effective in differentiating among occupational groups.

Directions

You will find an answer sheet enclosed in the questionnaire booklet. Please read the following instructions before answering the questions:

1. Fill in the identifying information at the top of the answer sheet.
2. Read each question carefully, select your answer, and enter it on the answer sheet by completely filling in the space between the dotted lines. For example, if you select option "D" as the best answer to question #1, you should fill in the space between the parallel lines below "1 D." Use a pencil and make your marks heavy and dark. Erase completely any answers you wish to change.
3. Only one response should be made to questions #1-110. For questions #111-125 you should check as many of the options as you think are appropriate.
4. When you have finished, you should check over the answer sheet to be sure you have answered every question.

BOTH THE QUESTIONNAIRE AND THE ANSWER SHEET
SHOULD BE RETURNED.

Appendix A (Cont.)

JOB ANALYSIS AND INTEREST MEASUREMENT (JAIM)*

Mark the one option in each of the following questions which best applies to you. Mark only one in each question. Answer EVERY QUESTION.

1. While in school how often were you an elected officer in an organization?
 - a. President or vice president of some organization almost every year.
 - b. Often an officer but not usually president.
 - c. An officer a few times.
 - d. Never an officer of an organization.
 2. How often do you write personal letters?
 - a. Frequently because you enjoy exchanging letters.
 - b. Frequently but as a matter of obligation.
 - c. Sometimes.
 - d. Seldom.
 - e. Almost never.
 3. How often do you attend parties or social gatherings?
 - a. Several times a week.
 - b. About once a week.
 - c. About once or twice a month.
 - d. Several times a year.
 - e. Almost never.
 4. Which one of the following school or college subjects did you enjoy most?
 - a. Social Sciences and/or English.
 - b. Shop
 - c. Mathematics, chemistry, and/or physics.
 - d. Biology and/or botany.
 - e. None of the above.
-

*The author of the instrument Dr. Regis Walther wishes to keep the items used to construct the scales confidential. Information about the instrument can be obtained from the author, who is director of Social Research, George Washington University. Therefore, specific options that create the scales and the scoring of from High to Low are not available.

Appendix A (Cont.)

5. Which of the following best describes your mathematical skill?
 - a. You can add and subtract.
 - b. You can add, subtract, multiply, and divide whole numbers.
 - c. You can do arithmetic involving fractions, decimals, and percentages.
 - d. You can do ordinary algebraic and geometric problems.
 - e. You can do advanced mathematics, such as the differential and integral calculus.
6. How were your grades in high school?
 - a. Excellent.
 - b. Good.
 - c. Fair.
 - d. Failing.
 - e. Did not attend high school.
7. If you went to college, what was your academic standing?
 - a. An honor student and awarded commendation.
 - b. Above the average of your class.
 - c. About the average of your class.
 - d. Below the average of your class.
 - e. Did not go to college or have just started.
8. When in school were you
 - a. A member of many clubs and organizations?
 - b. A member of few clubs and organizations?
 - c. Seldom or never a member of any clubs or organizations?
9. Which of the following do you like best in a job?
 - a. Analyzing situations.
 - b. Working with other people.
 - c. Using skill with tools to make something.

Appendix A (Cont.)

10. Which one of the following conditions of a job do you dislike most?
 - a. Working apart from other people.
 - b. A great deal of pressure on you.
 - c. A poor supervisor.
 - d. Detailed and specific instructions.
11. Which one of the following conditions of a job do you dislike least?
 - a. Working apart from other people.
 - b. A great deal of pressure on you.
 - c. A poor supervisor.
 - d. Detailed and specific instructions.
12. The thing you like best in playing cards or similar competitive games is
 - a. The competition.
 - b. The sociability.
 - c. The opportunity to play well.
 - d. You do not like competitive games.
13. Are you at your best during a written examination?
 - a. Yes.
 - b. No.
 - c. Don't know.
14. As an adolescent you were mostly
 - a. Obedient toward your parents or guardians.
 - b. Trying to please your parents or guardians.
 - c. Independent.
 - d. Rebellious.
 - e. Resentful.
15. How many friends do you have?
 - a. One or two friends.
 - b. A few friends, but these are really close friends.
 - c. No very close friends, but many casual friends.
 - d. Many friends.
 - e. No friends.

Appendix A (Cont.)

16. It is most important for a supervisor to
 - a. Organize and direct the work so that he gets the most out of each employee.
 - b. Give the work group a sense of direction and purpose so that the whole group is motivated.
 - c. Make it possible for each individual worker to do his job well.
17. Which of the following is most important to you in a job?
 - a. Steadiness and permanence of work.
 - b. Congenial co-workers.
 - c. Promotion opportunities.
 - d. Competent co-workers.
18. Which of the following is least important to you in a job?
 - a. Steadiness and permanence of work.
 - b. Congenial co-workers.
 - c. Promotion opportunities.
 - d. Competent co-workers.
19. When people try to take advantage of you, are you most likely to
 - a. Have nothing further to do with them, at least temporarily?
 - b. Insist that they stop.
 - c. Try to understand them and get them to be reasonable?
20. It is most important for you to be
 - a. Independent.
 - b. Successful.
 - c. Well-liked.
 - d. Socially useful.

Appendix A (Cont.)

21. How lucky do you feel you have been?
 - a. Almost always lucky.
 - b. Usually lucky.
 - c. Neither lucky nor unlucky.
 - d. Somewhat unlucky.
 - e. Very unlucky.
22. You prefer to be considered
 - a. Successful
 - b. Ingenious
 - c. Unselfish
 - d. Well-liked
 - e. Reliable
23. You get along best when you
 - a. Respect the rights of others.
 - b. Respect the feelings of others.
 - c. Do what has to be done even if it doesn't please everyone.
24. It would compliment you most to be called
 - a. Brilliant
 - b. Helpful
 - c. Industrious
 - d. Gracious
 - e. Powerful
25. You get along best when you
 - a. Know what you want and work to get it.
 - b. Do what seems to be appropriate in each situation.
 - c. Follow established principles and standards.
26. Which of the following do you like best in a job?
 - a. To work closely with a superior doing important and interesting work.
 - b. To get results on your own.
 - c. To be a member of a group with high morale and high performance standards.

Appendix A (Cont.)

- d. To organize and direct the carrying out of an important task.
 - e. None of the above.
27. When you have something to do that doesn't interest you, you
- a. Nearly always do it without delay.
 - b. Do the things that interest you first.
 - c. Do it after considerable procrastination.
 - d. Do it after pressure is put on you.
 - e. Seldom get around to doing it.
28. If you were asked to be an officer of an organization, you would prefer
- a. To be president.
 - b. To be vice-president.
 - c. To be secretary.
 - d. To be treasurer.
 - e. To hold no office.
29. You have been double crossed by people
- a. Often.
 - b. Sometimes.
 - c. Almost never.
30. It is most important for a supervisor to
- a. Praise employees for the work they do well.
 - b. Prod employees for greater effort to get them to work up to capacity.
 - c. Let employees know the results of their work.
31. People are most likely to be influenced by
- a. The fear of punishment.
 - b. The possibility of rewards.
 - c. The chance to accomplish something.

Appendix A (Cont.)

32. In your personal habits you consider yourself
- a. Unusually orderly.
 - b. More orderly than average.
 - c. About average in orderliness.
 - d. Somewhat below average in orderliness.
 - e. Considerably below average in orderliness.
33. When you have an appointment or have to be somewhere you are
- a. Almost always there ahead of time.
 - b. Almost always on time.
 - c. Sometimes a little late.
 - d. Frequently late.
 - e. Almost always late.
34. It is most important that a supervisor
- a. Make definite assignments and insist that deadlines be met.
 - b. Develop a strong sense of responsibility in the work group as a whole.
 - c. Encourage each subordinate to do as much as he can on his own and give him help when he needs it.
35. Which type of supervisor do you prefer?
- a. One who makes use of your ability.
 - b. One who tells you clearly what is expected of you.
 - c. One who expects and permits you to work on your own.
36. As a child the discipline you received was
- a. Very strict
 - b. Strict but not harsh
 - c. Lenient
 - d. Lax
 - e. Strict from one parent and lenient from the other.

Appendix A (Cont.)

37. Which of the following statements best describes how you spend your spare time?
- a. Frequently have trouble finding something to do.
 - b. Sometimes have trouble finding something to do.
 - c. Almost always have something to do, but don't always enjoy it.
 - d. Almost always have something to do that you enjoy.
38. In your work you like to
- a. Be guided by professional standards and practices.
 - b. Have definite procedures and written instructions which you can follow.
 - c. Help your supervisor with whatever needs to be done.
 - d. Decide for yourself what to do and how to do it.
39. You enjoy taking part in a good fight for a good cause
- a. Frequently.
 - b. Sometimes.
 - c. Almost never.
40. Your associates consider you
- a. Too concerned with details.
 - b. Very careful about details.
 - c. Somewhat careless about details.
 - d. Very careless about details.
41. Have your supervisors or teachers praised you and given you credit for work done well?
- a. Almost always.
 - b. Usually.
 - c. Seldom.

Appendix A (Cont.)

42. As an adolescent, you openly disagreed with one or both of your parents or your guardian on political, religious, social, or other issues
- a. Frequently.
 - b. Occasionally.
 - c. Rarely or never although you sometimes disagreed with them.
 - d. Rarely or never because you almost always agreed with them.
43. Which of the following aspects of a job do you find most desirable?
- a. Using persuasion to get things done.
 - b. Helping others deal more successfully with a problem.
 - c. Making things through use of tools.
 - d. Having a job or position which is recognized to be important or desirable.
 - e. None of the above.
44. Which of the following do you like best?
- a. To work as a member of a group engaged in some useful activity.
 - b. To develop new ideas and approaches to problems and situations.
 - c. To direct and coordinate the efforts of other people.
 - d. To get results by overcoming obstacles and resistance.
 - e. None of the above.
45. A supervisor gets the best results from his work group when he
- a. Requires a little bit more work than his employees think they can do.
 - b. Rewards loyalty and good performance.
 - c. Shows employees the importance of their work.

Appendix A (Cont.)

46. When engaged in athletics or physical activities what effect does competition or stress have on your performance?
- a. You do better under competition or stress.
 - b. You do better when there is no competition or stress.
 - c. Competition or stress does not affect your performance.
47. Which do you like best in a job?
- a. To solve difficult problems on your own through use of ingenuity.
 - b. To supervise the carrying out of a difficult assignment.
 - c. To use tools to make something.
 - d. To work with other people.
 - e. None of the above.
48. During your working career your jobs have
- a. Almost always been interesting.
 - b. Usually been interesting.
 - c. Seldom been interesting.
49. Your supervisors for the most part have
- a. Shown a lack of sympathy and understanding in dealing with you as an employee.
 - b. Been for the most part indifferent.
 - c. Been friendly but not particularly helpful.
 - d. Usually been helpful and understanding.
 - e. Almost always been helpful and understanding.
50. Do you complain to the waiter when you are served inferior or poorly prepared food?
- a. Whenever complaint is justified.
 - b. Sometimes when complaint is justified.
 - c. Almost never.

Appendix A (Cont.)

51. You find you get along best when you
- a. Establish long range plans and goals and follow them as much as you can.
 - b. Adapt yourself to the current situation and avoid unrealistic, "ivory tower" plans.
 - c. Do what is expected and required of you.
52. When working in your spare time on a hobby or something that interests you, do you
- a. Concentrate for long periods of time and complete each project you start.
 - b. Work on a number of things at the same time and complete most of them but not necessarily in the order in which you started them.
 - c. Finish those things that continue to interest you and forget about the others.
 - d. Start many things but finish only a few.
 - e. Seldom finish anything you start in your spare time.
53. An effective supervisor
- a. Assigns each subordinate a specific job to do and sees that he does it the way it is supposed to be done.
 - b. To the extent practicable permits members of the work group to decide among themselves how things should be done.
 - c. To the extent practicable permits each subordinate to do the work the way he finds works best for him.
54. Do you entertain groups at home?
- a. Frequently.
 - b. Occasionally.
 - c. Almost never.

Appendix A (Cont.)

55. How do people feel about you?
- a. Almost all of them like you.
 - b. Most of them like you.
 - c. A few of them like you.
 - d. Almost none of them likes you.
56. Your political, religious, and social views are
- a. Almost identical with those of your parents.
 - b. Similar to those of your parents.
 - c. Different in some important respect from those of your parents.
 - d. Very substantially different from those of your parents.
 - e. Different in almost every important respect from those of your parents.
57. An effective supervisor
- a. Takes every opportunity to praise employees on their performance.
 - b. Only praises employees occasionally or for unusually good work since employees usually know when they are doing well.
 - c. Praises employees occasionally but also keeps a careful watch for deficient performance to discipline those who fall below standard.
58. How much energy do you have?
- a. Do not tire easily and can work long and steadily.
 - b. Have spurts of energy particularly when working on something interesting.
 - c. Work hard for long periods of time but then sometimes suddenly feel great fatigue.
 - d. Have about the average amount of energy.
 - e. Tire more easily than the average person.
59. When you feel troubled do you
- a. Talk it over with someone?
 - b. Get away by yourself?
 - c. Get busy and active?

Appendix A (Cont.)

60. Do you feel that laws and social conventions are useless and hamper an individual's personal freedom?
- a. Frequently.
 - b. Sometimes.
 - c. Seldom.
 - d. Never.
61. When a friend or relative makes an obvious grammatical mistake do you
- a. Correct the mistake so that he will know what is right.
 - b. Correct the mistake if it has been made a number of times.
 - c. Correct the mistake only if you know that he wants to be corrected.
 - d. Correct the mistake if it can be done without embarrassing him.
 - e. Never correct the mistake.
62. You prefer to be considered
- a. Intelligent
 - b. Conscientious
 - c. Considerate
 - d. Influential
 - e. Attractive
63. Which do you like best?
- a. Working closely with and being of assistance to a supervisor doing important and interesting work.
 - b. Working as a member of a group doing important and interesting work.
 - c. Working by yourself doing important and interesting work.
64. When dealing with other people it is most important to
- a. Avoid hurting the feelings of others.
 - b. Avoid being diverted from doing what is right in order to please someone.
 - c. Avoid unpleasant controversial situations.

Appendix A (Cont.)

65. If someone crowds ahead of you in a line do you usually
- a. Pay no attention.
 - b. Say nothing, but give him an angry look.
 - c. Make a comment to someone else which the offender can hear.
 - d. Ask him if he knows he has pushed ahead.
 - e. Insist that he go to the proper place in line.
66. Which of these do you prefer?
- a. To be where there is something going on.
 - b. To get away sometimes by yourself and have time for your own thoughts.
 - c. Usually to get away by yourself.
67. Do you feel that you are left out of things, perhaps intentionally, in group activities?
- a. Never.
 - b. Seldom.
 - c. Sometimes.
 - d. Frequently.
 - e. Almost always.
68. Which one of the following outside interests appeals to you most?
- a. Plays, concerts, or art exhibits.
 - b. Competitive games.
 - c. Working with your hands.
 - d. Social activities.
 - e. None of the above.
69. Which of these best describes you?
- a. You work best under a great deal of pressure and tight deadlines.
 - b. You prefer to work at an even pace, but you are able to work well under pressure.
 - c. You prefer not to work under pressure, but you are able to meet most reasonable deadlines.
 - d. You do your worst work if unreasonable pressure is put on you.

Appendix A (Cont.)

70. Which do you like best?
- a. Work through which you can influence others.
 - b. Work resulting in social improvement.
 - c. Work involving the analysis of data.
 - d. Steady work without frequent interruptions.
 - e. Work through which you can please others.
71. You prefer to be considered
- a. Imaginative.
 - b. Ambitious.
 - c. Understanding.
 - d. Dependable.
 - e. Popular.
72. Do you consider your memory for names and faces to be
- a. Above average.
 - b. Average.
 - c. Below average.
73. Parents get the best results with their children if they
- a. Praise and encourage them.
 - b. Praise them sometimes but also maintain strict discipline.
 - c. Give them freedom and opportunity to learn from their own experiences.
74. People are most likely to be influenced by
- a. Requests from people they like.
 - b. Orders from someone in authority.
 - c. Opinions of qualified experts.
75. Which of these is most characteristic of you?
- a. You budget your income carefully and follow the budget closely.
 - b. You budget your income and follow the budget within reason.

Appendix A (Cont.)

- c. You keep records of personal expenses and check them roughly against what you plan to spend.
 - d. You keep no records, but have a rough plan for personal expenditures.
76. Which of the following aspects of a job do you consider most important?
- a. Opportunity to work with a group with high morale and performance standards.
 - b. Opportunity for personal accomplishment
 - c. Steady permanent work.
 - d. Social usefulness of the work.
 - e. None of the above.
77. When you have a difficult decision to make and feel that you have enough facts do you find it
- a. Best to come to a quick decision.
 - b. Best to spend considerable time reviewing all the possible interpretations of the facts before making a decision.
78. Which do you like best in a job?
- a. To work closely with and be of help to a supervisor doing important and interesting work.
 - b. To have clear-cut written guidelines or manuals which tell you exactly what you are supposed to do.
 - c. To have a supervisor who tells you clearly what he expects you to do.
 - d. To have a supervisor who expects and permits you to work on your own.
79. Which of the following describes you best?
- a. You get up at about the same time each morning and do not like to stay in bed later than your getting up time.
 - b. You usually get off to a slow start in the morning.
 - c. You have no fixed pattern and sometimes get up early and sometimes sleep late.

Appendix A (Cont.)

80. Which of the following is most important to you?
- a. Opportunity to understand just how your supervisor expects work to be done.
 - b. Freedom in working out your own methods of doing the work.
 - c. Opportunity to apply professional standards and skills.
81. When an unpleasant controversy or fight is beginning, you are most likely to
- a. Try to "pour oil on troubled waters" and head off the difficulty.
 - b. Keep from getting involved if you can.
 - c. Stop the controversy or fight before it gets out of hand.
82. Which of the following types of supervisors do you like best?
- a. A supervisor who insists on high performance standards for himself and his subordinates.
 - b. A supervisor who give you clear-cut instructions and is always available for advice.
 - c. A supervisor who is considerate and understanding.
83. When procedural changes need to be made, an effective supervisor
- a. Makes a definite decision himself as to what is to be done and how it is to be done.
 - b. Tells each subordinate the purpose and to the extent practicable lets each one work out his own methods.
 - c. Consults with the work group and encourages them to decide what changes should be made and how they should be put into effect.

Appendix A (Cont.)

84. If a person behaves toward you in a dictatorial or domineering fashion, you
- Keep away from him if you can.
 - Seek an occasion to have it out with him.
 - Try to understand him and slowly win him over.
85. What responsibility do you think each person has for social improvement?
- Each individual should devote some time and effort to improving social conditions.
 - Each individual should take care of his own responsibilities and avoid "do good" activities.
86. How fast do you drive a car?
- Faster than average.
 - Slower than average.
 - About average.
 - You do not drive.
87. Have you found that people break promises which they have made to you?
- Frequently.
 - Sometimes.
 - Seldom.
 - Never.
88. When watching sports or other competitive activities you usually
- Support the champion or skillful performer.
 - Support the "underdog" or the one who is losing.
 - Do neither, or each about equally.
89. It is most important to
- Have faith in something.
 - Be intelligent and resourceful.
 - Be kind and considerate.

Appendix A (Cont.)

90. Do you prefer to be considered
- Compassionate.
 - Trustworthy.
 - Effective.
 - Pleasant.
 - Resourceful.
91. Do you take the initiative in planning a party?
- Frequently.
 - Sometimes.
 - Almost never.
92. Which of these describes your experience with athletic games?
- Have received formal recognition of your skill at athletic games.
 - Enjoy and are or at one time were reasonably good at athletic games.
 - Enjoy but have never had any particular skill at athletic games.
 - Do not particularly enjoy athletic games.
 - Do not like and generally avoid athletic games.
93. What is your ability to fix things around the house?
- A reasonably skilled craftsman and enjoy fixing things.
 - Able to make minor repairs.
 - Try to fix things only in an emergency.
 - Almost never try to fix anything.
94. How well do you keep track of your possessions?
- Everything is almost always in its place.
 - Most everything is in its place.
 - Sometimes things get misplaced.
 - Frequently things get misplaced.
 - You have great difficulty keeping track of things.

Appendix A (Cont.)

95. How effective are you at finding lost objects?
- a. Other people seldom find something after you have tried and given up.
 - b. You are usually able to find things.
 - c. You sometimes have difficulty finding things.
 - d. You frequently have to ask for help or else let it go.
96. Do you enjoy trying to solve mathematical or logical puzzles?
- a. Yes.
 - b. No.
 - c. Sometimes.
97. In what way do you find that you can put your point across best?
- a. In writing.
 - b. Orally.
 - c. Don't know or it doesn't make much difference.
98. How difficult do you find it to give a speech or to recite before a large group?
- a. You have no difficulty.
 - b. You are a little nervous at first but have no difficulty after getting started.
 - c. You do not enjoy it but are able to do it adequately when required.
 - d. You avoid public speaking or reciting whenever possible.
99. Does it bother you to have to give orders to other people?
- a. Very much.
 - b. A little.
 - c. Not at all.

Appendix A (Cont.)

100. How often do you find yourself taking a position of leadership in a group you are with?
- a. Often.
 - b. Occasionally.
 - c. Almost never.
101. Which of the following describes you the best?
- a. Happy.
 - b. Ambitious.
 - c. Cautious.
102. Does it bother you to leave a task unfinished?
- a. Almost always.
 - b. Usually.
 - c. Seldom.
 - d. Only if it is very important.
103. The ideal job for you would
- a. Enable you to look forward to a stable, secure future.
 - b. Permit you to be creative and original.
 - c. Give you an opportunity to be helpful to others.
 - d. Show that you were a success and had achieved high status and prestige.
 - e. Provide you with excitement and variety.

Mark the one statement in each of the following pairs which best applies to you. Mark only one in each pair. Answer EVERY question.

104. a. You prefer a great deal of activity and the opportunity to make frequent decisions.
- b. You prefer the opportunity for careful consideration of all aspects of a problem or situation.

Appendix A (Cont.)

- 105. a. You like to work steadily and be busy all the time.
b. You like to work hard when necessary including putting in overtime.
 - 106. a. You like to finish one task before starting another.
b. You like to work on several things at once.
 - 107. a. You like clear-cut guidelines or instructions so you know exactly what is expected of you.
b. You like to decide for yourself how the work should be done.
 - 108. a. You like to be given interesting assignments which you can do yourself.
b. You like to accomplish results through supervising others.
 - 109. a. You believe most people are more inclined to help others.
b. You believe most people are more inclined to look out for themselves.
 - 110. a. You would describe yourself as self-confident.
b. You would describe yourself as cautious.
- Mark as many of the following statements as apply. You do NOT need to limit yourself to one response.
- 111. Which of the following statements apply to you?
 - a. You usually carry through your plans in spite of opposition.
 - b. You have no difficulty in turning down unreasonable requests.
 - c. Most people have confidence in your ability.
 - d. You have no difficulty in maintaining your opinion when other people disagree with you.
 - e. None of the above applies to you.

Appendix A (Cont.)

112. Which of the following statements apply to you?
- a. You believe it is seldom wise to change your plans in the midst of an undertaking.
 - b. You try to follow a way of life based on duty.
 - c. You have a work and study schedule which you follow carefully.
 - d. You are always careful about your manner of dress.
 - e. None of the above applies to you.
113. With which of the following statements do you agree?
- a. It is usually best to do things in a conventional way.
 - b. It is usually best to change things slowly.
 - c. You would rather be a steady and dependable worker than a brilliant but unstable one.
 - d. When things are going smoothly it is best not to make changes which will disrupt things.
 - e. You do not agree with any of the above.
114. Which of the following statements apply to you?
- a. You have found that people who make quick decisions frequently make poor ones.
 - b. You frequently see so many different aspects of a problem or situation that you find it difficult to make a decision.
 - c. When you have an important problem to consider, you prefer to think it through alone.
 - d. You frequently become so absorbed in what you are doing that you find it difficult to turn your attention to something else.
 - e. None of the above applies to you.
115. With which of the following statements do you agree?
- a. Spare the rod and spoil the child.
 - b. There are certain types of behavior which are always right, moral, and good.
 - c. Moral principles come from an outside power higher than man.

Appendix A (Cont.)

- d. Obedience and respect for authority are among the most important virtues children should learn.
- e. You do not agree with any of the above.

116. Which of the following statements apply to you?

- a. You like to keep going until you have finished a job.
- b. You are thorough in any work you undertake.
- c. You have a reputation for keeping at something after other people have lost interest.
- d. You are generally striving to reach some goal you have established for yourself.
- e. None of the above applies to you.

117. Which of the following apply to you?

- a. When things are dull you frequently like to stir up some excitement.
- b. You frequently like to take a chance rather than play it safe.
- c. You sometimes enjoy a dangerous situation.
- d. You enjoy a race or a game better when you bet on it.
- e. None of the above applies to you.

118. With which of the following statements do you agree?

- a. The best defense is a good offense.
- b. It is more important to be respected than to be liked.
- c. People are more competitive than they are cooperative.
- d. No matter what a superior officer says he should always be obeyed.
- e. You do not agree with any of the above.

119. Which of the following statements apply to you?

- a. You can deal more effectively with words than you can with numbers.
- b. You often depend on overall impressions more than on systematic analysis.

Appendix A (Cont.)

- c. You frequently find it is better to act now rather than to take the extra time needed to plan and think things through carefully.
- d. You believe that moral principles are not absolute and unchanging but depend upon circumstances.
- e. None of the above applies to you.

120. Which of the following statements apply to you?

- a. Your ideas are often considered unusual and imaginative.
- b. It does not disturb you to be different from other people and to do things which are not customary.
- c. You often contribute new ideas to your work.
- d. You often become enthusiastic over new things or new plans.
- e. None of the above applies to you.

121. Which of the following activities do you enjoy a great deal?

- a. Reading non-fiction or serious novels.
- b. Hunting or fishing.
- c. Playing cards.
- d. Making things by using tools.
- e. You do not particularly enjoy any of the above activities.

122. Which of the following sayings have you found frequently to be true?

- a. "It is often necessary to be cruel in order to be kind."
- b. "Give someone an inch and he will take a mile."
- c. "Familiarity breeds contempt."
- d. "Good fences make good neighbors."
- e. You have not found any of the above to be frequently true.

Appendix A (Cont.)

123. Which of the following leisure-time activities interested you in high school?
- a. Doing scientific experiments.
 - b. Using tools to build, improve, and repair things.
 - c. Playing on a school athletic team.
 - d. Participating in social affairs.
 - e. None of the above.
124. Which of the following statements describe the attitudes of most people toward their work?
- a. Most people shirk their duties whenever they think they can get away with it.
 - b. Most people prefer a supervisor who tells them clearly what to do.
 - c. Most people take very little interest in their work.
 - d. Most people prefer an easy uninteresting job to a hard interesting one.
 - e. None of the above applies to most people.
125. Which of the following statements apply to you?
- a. You frequently like to get away by yourself with your own thoughts.
 - b. When you are walking somewhere you are more likely to concentrate on your own thoughts than to notice things around you.
 - c. You are more a theorist than a practical person.
 - d. You often find it necessary to stand up for your principles or standards.
 - e. None of the above applies to you.

Look over your answer sheet and make sure you have answered every question. There should be only one option checked for questions 1-110. As many options as apply should be checked for questions 111-125.

APPENDIX B

DEFINITIONS OF THE SCALES OF THE JOB ANALYSIS AND INTEREST MEASUREMENT

A. Personal Orientations

1. Optimism

This scale measures the degree to which the individual assumes that the intentions of other people are benevolent and that satisfactions can be expected in the natural course of events. Persons scoring high consider themselves lucky; never or seldom left out of things in group activities; and almost always have had supervisors who praised them and gave them credit for work well done.

It was found to correlate positively with the Q-Sort based on comparison between rating with ideal rating (.56) and the Edwards Affiliation scale (.42), and negatively with the MMPI Social Isolation (-.55) and Depression (-.54) scales. Foreign Service secretaries, Peace Corps volunteers and social workers scored high on it and patients committed to a mental institution for criminal acts scored very low.

2. Self-Confidence

This scale measures the degree to which the individual believes that he can, by his own action, influence future events. Persons scoring high on this scale report that they often become enthusiastic over new things or new plans; that their ideas are often considered unusual and imaginative; and that they work well under stress. Individuals scoring low report they get away by themselves when they are troubled; and that they do not perform well under stress.

Appendix B (Cont.)

It should be noted that the Optimism and the Self-Confidence scales do not always correlate. Some individuals score about the same on both. Other individuals, however, score high on one and average or low on the other. Self-Confidence was found to correlate positively with a Q-sort based on a comparison between self-ratings and ideal ratings (.50), and negatively with the Edwards Abasement (-.59) and the MMPI Social Isolation (-.48) scales. Presidents of business corporations scored highest among all the occupations studied and police patrolmen scored lowest.

3. Perseverance

This scale measures the degree to which the individual keeps at something even when he is not particularly interested in it. Persons scoring high say that when working on a hobby, they concentrate for long periods of time and complete each project they start; that they do not tire easily and can work long and steadily; and that other people seldom find something after they have tried and given up. Individuals scoring low say that when they have something to do that doesn't interest them, they either do it after considerable pressure is put upon them or they seldom get around to doing it.

In the one study in which this scale was used, police patrolmen were found to score significantly higher than welfare workers.

4. Orderliness

This scale measures the degree to which the individual has internal standards which he follows. Persons scoring high say that they like work which requires them to be extremely accurate; that they are usually orderly; and that they get up about the same time each morning and do not like to stay in bed later than their getting up time.

Appendix B (Cont.)

It was found to correlate positively with the Study Habits scale (.44). Engineers scored high on it and social workers scored low.

5. Plan Ahead

This scale measures the degree to which the individual is a self-starter and directs his own activity toward goal achievement. Persons scoring high say that they get best results when they establish long-range goals and follow them as much as they can; and that they are generally striving to reach some goal they have established for themselves.

No data is available regarding the correlations between this scale and scales from other instruments or how different occupations or professions score on it.

6. Moral Absolutes

This scale measures the degree to which the individual believes in moral absolutes. Persons scoring high believe that moral principles come from an outside power higher than man; and that it is most important to have faith in something. Individual scoring low believe that moral principles are not absolute and unchanging but depend upon circumstances.

Juvenile court judges and police youth officers scored significantly higher than social workers and Foreign Service officers.

7. Slow Change

This scale measures the degree to which the individual believes that change should be slow. Persons scoring high say that it is usually best to do things in a conventional way; and that when things are going smoothly it is best not to make changes which will disrupt things. No data is yet available about how this scale correlates with scales from other instruments or how different occupations or professions score on it.

Appendix B (Cont.)

B. Interpersonal Influence8. Persuasive Leadership

This scale measures the degree to which the individual exerts leadership in interpersonal situations. Persons scoring high report that they have no difficulty giving a speech or reciting before a large group; that they often take the leadership in groups; and that they like best in a job the opportunity to get results through persuasion or negotiation.

It correlated positively with the Edwards Dominance (.59) and the MMPI Hypomania (.44) scales and negatively with the MMPI Social Isolation (-.43) and the Edwards Abasement (-.42) scales. Presidents of business corporations, juvenile court judges, and Foreign Service officers scored high on this scale and Foreign Service code clerks and police patrolmen scored low.

9. Self-Assertiveness

This scale measures the degree to which the individual tends to pursue his own goals when they are in competition with the goals of others. Persons scoring high say that it is important to avoid being diverted from doing what is right in order to please someone; that they do better under competition or stress; and that they are proficient in athletic games.

It correlated positively with the Kuder Outdoors (.41) and the MMPI Hypomania (.37) scales, and negatively with MMPI Masculine-Feminine scale (-.47). Presidents of business corporations were very high on this scale.

Appendix B (Cont.)

C. Reaction to Aggression10. Move Toward Aggressor

This scale measures the degree to which the individual tries to "pour oil on troubled waters" when someone acts toward him in a belligerent or aggressive manner. Persons scoring high say that when a person behaves toward them in a dictatorial or domineering fashion, they try to win him over.

It did not correlate significantly with scales from other instruments which were studied. Juvenile court judges and welfare workers scored high and patients committed to a mental institution for criminal acts scored low.

11. Move Away from Aggressor

This scale measures the degree to which the individual withdraws when someone acts toward him in a belligerent or aggressive manner. Persons scoring high say that when a person acts toward them in a dictatorial or domineering fashion, they keep away from him if they can.

It correlated positively with the Edwards Abasement (.45) and the MMPI Social Isolation (.37) scales, and negatively with the Edwards Dominance (-.46) and Aggression (-.43) scales and the MMPI Hypomania scale (-.41). Foreign Service Code clerks scored high on this scale and business executives low.

12. Move Against Aggressor

This scale measures the degree to which the individual counter-attacks when someone acts toward him in a belligerent or aggressive manner. Persons scoring high say that when someone crowds ahead of them in line, they do something about it; and if someone acts toward them in a dictatorial or domineering fashion, they seek an occasion to have it out with him.

Appendix B (Cont.)

It correlated positively with the Edwards Aggression scale (.52), and negatively with MMPI Lie (-.44) and the Edwards Abasement (-.42) scales. Business executives and police patrolmen scored high on this scale and Foreign Service secretaries and code clerks scored low.

D. Relationship to Authority

13. Prefers Routines

This scale measures the degree to which the individual likes to have definite procedures available which he can follow. Persons scoring high say they like to have a clear-cut written guide line or manual which tells them clearly what they are supposed to do.

It correlated positively with the Edwards Deference scale (.51) and negatively with the Edwards Autonomy (-.45) and the Otis Test of Mental Ability (-.42) scales. Foreign Service code clerks and police patrolmen scored high on this scale and Foreign Service officers and Episcopal ministers scored low.

14. Identifies with Authority

This scale measures the degree to which the individual identifies with his superior and tries to please him. Persons scoring high say that they like to work closely with, and be of help to, a superior doing important and interesting work; that their supervisors, for the most part, have always been helpful and understanding; that they received high grades while in high school, and that they were either obedient toward or tried to please their parents as an adolescent.

It correlated positively with the Edwards Deference (.44) and Study Habits (.44) scales, and negatively with the Edwards Autonomy (-.51) and MMPI Psychopathic Deviate (-.34) scales. Foreign Service secretaries

Appendix B (Cont.)

consistently score high on this scale and in several studies it has been found to be the best predictor of performance for this occupational group. On the other hand, patients committed to a mental hospital for criminal acts scored low.

15. Indpendence

This scale measures the degree to which the individual likes to act on his own. Persons scoring high say they were independent toward their parents during adolescence; that they have no fixed pattern for getting up in the morning and sometimes get up early and sometimes sleep late; and that it is most important to teach children to be self-reliant.

It correlated negatively with the Q-sort based on a comparison between self-ratings and ideal ratings (-.41). Foreign Service officers scored high on this scale and policemen scored low.

E. Leadership Styles and Strategies

16. Directive Leadership

This scale measures the degree to which the individual believes that an executive gets the best results by making decisions himself. Persons scoring high say that an effective supervisor assigns each subordinate a specific job to do and sees that he does it the way it is supposed to be done.

It correlated negatively with the Kuder Literary Scale (-.41). Business executives and police patrolmen scored high on this scale and social workers scored low.

Appendix B (Cont.)

17. Participative Leadership

This scale measures the degree to which the individual believes that executives get best results by having the work group participate in decision-making. Persons who score high say that it is most important that a supervisor develop a strong sense of responsibility in the work group as a whole.

In one study it was found that social workers scored high on this scale and police patrolmen scored low.

18. Delegative Leadership

This scale measures the degree to which the individual believes that the executive gets best results by delegating decision-making authority as much as possible to individual workers. Persons scoring high say that to the extent practical, an effective supervisor permits each subordinate to do the work the way he finds works best for him.

Foreign Service officers and social workers scored high on this scale while policemen scored low.

19. Knowledge of Results

This scale measures the degree to which the individual believes that people are motivated best by knowledge of results (intrinsic motivation). Persons scoring high say that a supervisor gets the best results from his work group when he shows the employees the importance of their work. Persons scoring low say a supervisor gets the best results through rewards or punishment (extrinsic motivation).

On one study it was found that social workers scored highest on this scale and juvenile court judges scored low.

Appendix B (Cont.)

20. External Controls

This scale measures the degree to which the individual believes that most people require external controls. Individuals scoring high say that most people prefer a supervisor who tells them clearly what to do; and believes that parents get the best results when they maintain strict discipline.

It correlated positively with the MMPI Hypomania scale (-.33). Business executives and police patrolmen scored high on this scale and social workers scored low.

F. Information Processing Style21. Systematic-Methodical

This scale measures the degree to which the individual uses systematic-methodical methods for processing information and reaching decisions. Persons scoring high believe that when they have a difficult decision to make and feel that they have enough facts that it is best to spend considerable time reviewing all possible interpretations of the facts before making a decision; they prefer the opportunity for careful consideration of all aspects of the problem and when they have an important problem to consider, they prefer to think it through alone.

It correlated positively with the Edwards Abasement (.51) and the Mathematics part of the co-operative General Culture Test (.50), and negatively with the Edwards Dominance (-.57) and the Q-sort based on a comparison between self-ratings and ideal ratings (-.49). Engineers and fiscal officers scored high on this scale and personnel officers scored low.

Appendix B (Cont.)

G. Work Preferences22. Problem Analysis

This scale measures the degree to which the individual likes to analyze situations and develop ingenious solutions to problems. Persons scoring high prefer to be considered ingenious; like to develop new ideas and approaches to problems and situations; and like a job which permits them to be creative and original.

It correlates positively with the Edwards Autonomy Scale (.54) and with the Reading Comprehension part of the Ohio State University Psychological Examination (.51). Management interns with the U.S. Government scored high on this scale and police patrolmen low.

23. Social Interaction

This scale measures the degree to which the individual likes work involving interactions with people. Persons scoring high attend parties or social gatherings once a week or oftener; do not like to work apart from other people; frequently entertain groups at home; and enjoyed participation in social affairs while in high school.

It correlated positively with the Edwards Affiliation scale (.61) and negatively with the MMPI Sound Isolation scale (.52). Personnel officers scored high on this scale and engineers low.

24. Mechanical Activities

This scale measures the degree to which the individual likes mechanical activities. Persons scoring high on this scale say they are reasonably skilled craftsmen and enjoy fixing things; like making things with tools; and like hunting and fishing.

Appendix B (Cont.)

It correlated positively with the Kuder Mechanical Scale (.70) and negatively with the MMPI Masculine-Feminine Scale (-.58). Engineers scored high on this scale and Foreign Service secretaries low.

25. Supervisory Activities

This scale measures the degree to which the individual likes to plan and supervise the work of other people. Persons scoring high on this scale find that they get along best when they know what they want and work for it; they are generally striving to reach some goal they have established for themselves and like to supervise others in the carrying out of difficult assignments.

Business executives scored high on this scale and Foreign Service officers low.

26. Activity-Frequent Change

This scale measures the degree to which the individual likes to be actively engaged in work providing a lot of excitement, and a great deal of variety. Persons scoring high on this scale say they frequently enjoy taking part in a fight for good causes, sometimes enjoy dangerous situations; work best under a great deal of pressure and tight deadlines; and prefer a job in which there is a great deal of activity and opportunity to make frequent decisions. Persons scoring low like to finish one task before starting another.

It correlated positively with the MMPI Hypomania (.43) and the Edwards Dominance (.42) scales, and negatively with the Edwards Abasement (-.52), Interspection (-.49), and the MMPI Social Isolation (-.35) scales. The presidents of business corporations scored high on this scale and the Foreign Service code clerks low.

Appendix B (Cont.)

27. Group Participation

This scale measures the degree to which the individual identifies himself with a highly valued group. Persons scoring high say they like best to work as a member of a group and do not like to work apart from other people.

Social workers were found to score significantly higher than lawyers.

H. Values28. Status Attainment

This scale measures the degree to which the individual values himself by his achievement of the status symbols established by his culture. Persons scoring high on this scale prefer to be considered ambitious and successful; like to have a job which is recognized to be important or desirable; and think that the ideal job is one which shows they were a success and had achieved high status and prestige.

It correlated negatively with the Edwards Nurturance scale ($-.51$). Presidents of business corporations scored high on this scale and Peach Corps volunteers scored low.

29. Social Service

This scale measures the degree to which the individual values himself by contributing to social improvement. Persons scoring high like to be considered understanding and charitable; consider the social usefulness of the work to be important, and like work which permits them to be helpful to others.

It correlated positively with the Edwards Nurturance ($.40$) and Kuder Social Service ($.33$) scales. Social workers and juvenile court judges scored high and business executives low.

Appendix B (Cont.)

30. Approval from Others

This scale measures the degree to which the individual values himself by obtaining the approval of others. Persons scoring high consider it most important to have congenial co-workers; to be well-liked; and like to please others through their work; and like to be considered gracious, attractive, and pleasant.

It correlated positively with the Edwards Affiliation scale (.54) and the Kuder Clerical (.46) and Social Service (.43) scales, and negatively with the Kuder Outdoor (-.50), Scientific (-.44), and Mechanical (-.43) scales, and the Edwards Achievement scale (-.44). High school counselors and social workers scored high on this scale and engineers scored low.

31. Intellectual Achievement

This scale measures the degree to which the individual values himself through his intellectual attainments. Persons scoring high like work which permits them to be creative and original; like to be considered ingenious, imaginative, intelligent, and brilliant; and believe that it is important to be intelligent and resourceful as opposed to having faith in something, or being kind and considerate.

It correlated positively with the Edwards Dominance scale (.42) and the Co-operative General Culture Test (.40) and negatively with the Kuder Clerical scale (-.42). Foreign Service officers and management interns scored high on this scale and code clerks and policemen scored low.

32. Maintain Societal Standards

This scale measures the degree to which the individual values himself by helping to maintain standards established by the society of which he is part; persons scoring high say that it is important in their work to have the opportunity to apply professional standards; that when someone makes a grammatical mistake, he should

Appendix B (Cont.)

be corrected so that he knows what is right; and that competent co-workers are important to them in a job.

No data is available regarding the correlations between this scale and scales from other instruments. Nurses and social workers scored high on it and Foreign Service officers scored low.

33. Role Conformity

This scale measures the degree to which the individual values himself according to how successfully he has conformed to the role requirements of the society. Persons scoring high say that they prefer to be considered reliable, dependable, trustworthy, and industrious.

No data is available regarding the correlations between this scale and scales from other instruments. Policemen scored high on this scale.

I. Other

34. Academic Achievement

This scale measures the degree to which the individual does well in academic situations. Persons scoring high on this scale received excellent grades in high school and were honor students in college; and report that they are at their best during a written examination.

It correlated positively with the General Ability sub-test of the Foreign Service officers Examination (.49), the Science sub-test of the cooperative General Culture Test (.60) and Reading Comprehension sub-test of the Ohio State University Psychological Examination (.54). Research engineers, management interns, and Foreign Service officers scored highest and policemen scored lowest.

APPENDIX C

These are the mean scores and as stated in the body of the paper, because there is an extensive number of scales, two of the scales could be significant by chance alone. Therefore three or more scales had to be significant at (at least) the .05 level of confidence in order for the particular hypothesis to be accepted or rejected. For purpose in the appendix, however, all significant relationships will be starred. One star signifies the .05 level of confidence, two stars the .01 level, and three stars the .001 level of confidence.

STANDARD SCORES ON JAIM SCALES MICHIGAN STATE DATA

JAIM SCALE	POLICE N= 99	SOCWORKS N= 98	TOTAL N= 197	F PATIEN
01 OPTIMISM	-18	3	-7	2.495
02 SELF CONFIDENCE **	-57	19	-19	25.203
03 PERSEVERANCE **	45	-21	12	23.392
04 ORDERLINESS **	42	-53	-5	64.923
05 PLAN AHEAD **	-59	-6	-34	12.527
06 MORAL ABSOLUTES **	69	-20	20	44.767
07 SLOW CHANGE **	50	-5	23	18.793
08 PERSUASIVE LEADERSHIP	14	-7	3	2.542
09 SELF ASSERTIVENESS **	71	-31	20	44.369
10 MOVE TOWARD AGGRESSOR **	-32	17	-7	11.903
11 MOVE AWAY FROM AGGRESSOR	-11	-26	-16	1.407
12 MOVE AGAINST AGGRESSOR	2	26	14	2.583
13 PREFER ROUTINES **	46	-32	6	20.709
14 AUTHORITY IDENTIFICATION	-23	-17	-20	0.294
15 INDEPENDENCE **	-42	32	-5	23.760
16 DIRECTIVE LEADERSHIP **	44	-56	-5	53.090
17 PARTICIPATIVE LEADERSHIP **	-26	13	-6	9.169
18 DELEGATIVE LEADERSHIP **	-9	45	18	15.121
19 KNOWLEDGE OF RESULTS **	-34	3	-15	6.695
20 EXTERNAL CONTROLS **	70	-46	11	65.314
21 SYSTEMATICAL-METHODICAL **	8	-64	-28	28.166
22 PROBLEM ANALYSIS	0	-18	-8	2.338
23 SOCIAL INTERACTION **	-36	37	0	42.033
24 MECHANICAL ACTIVITIES **	93	-25	34	79.459
25 SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES **	24	-14	4	9.166
26 ACTIVITY-FREQUENT CHANGE	0	-16	-7	1.215
27 GROUP PARTICIPATION	31	43	37	0.762
28 STATUS ATTAINMENT	-21	-48	-34	2.934
29 SOCIAL SERVICE **	-22	87	32	52.955
30 APPROVAL FROM OTHERS **	-55	2	-26	20.045
31 INTELLECTUAL ACHIEVEMENT **	-56	-11	-34	12.244
32 MAINTAIN SOCIETAL STANDARDS **	8	47	28	7.154
33 ROLE CONFORMITY **	101	-12	44	75.203
34 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT **	-81	-10	-46	24.157
POLICE		SOCIAL WORKERS		

1

JAIM SCALE COMPARISONS BETWEEN INDEPENDENT GROUPS
Mental Health *Private Agencies*
 1 CC 2 2 CC 2
 N= 24 N= 18

SCALE	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.	T-RATIO	F1	F2
01 OPTIMISM	21.50	2.90	23.11	2.89	-1.78	1.01	0.99
02 SELF CONFIDENCE	22.17	1.81	22.44	1.50	-0.53	1.45	0.69
03 PERSEVERANCE	19.79	3.28	21.00	2.28	-1.34	2.08	0.48
04 ORDERLINESS	17.25	2.80	18.33	2.87	-1.23	0.95	1.05
05 PLAN AHEAD	21.54	1.53	21.89	2.03	-0.63	0.57	1.75
06 MORAL ABSOLUTES *	18.71	1.71	20.39	1.82	-3.07	0.88	1.14
07 SLOW CHANGE *	20.17	1.49	21.17	1.15	-2.36	1.69	0.59
08 PERSUASIVE LEADERSHIP	21.58	2.32	20.56	1.76	1.57	1.75	0.57
09 SELF ASSERTIVENESS	20.12	2.72	19.94	2.67	0.21	1.04	0.96
10 MOVE TOWARD AGGRESSOR	22.50	2.09	22.67	1.64	-0.28	1.61	0.67
11 MOVE AWAY FROM AGGRESSOR	19.33	1.97	19.67	1.88	-0.55	1.10	0.81
12 MOVE AGAINST AGGRESSOR	21.17	2.24	20.17	1.82	1.55	1.51	0.66
13 PREFER ROUTINES *	16.00	2.75	19.17	2.09	-4.07	1.73	0.58
14 AUTHORITY IDENTIFICATION *	18.17	1.71	20.00	2.72	-2.67	0.39	2.53
15 INDEPENDENCE *	25.21	2.52	22.50	2.12	3.68	1.41	0.71
16 DIRECTIVE LEADERSHIP	19.25	1.36	19.56	1.82	-0.62	0.56	1.80
17 PARTICIPATIVE LEADERSHIP	22.25	1.22	21.61	1.24	1.66	0.97	1.03
18 DELEGATIVE LEADERSHIP	21.58	1.56	21.94	1.30	-0.80	1.43	0.70
19 KNOWLEDGE OF RESULTS	21.58	3.05	21.28	2.89	0.33	1.12	0.90
20 EXTERNAL CONTROLS	19.87	3.14	19.83	2.75	0.04	1.30	0.77
21 SYSTEMATIC-METHODICAL	18.88	2.40	19.89	1.84	-1.49	1.70	0.59
22 PROBLEM ANALYSIS *	21.17	1.90	20.00	1.71	2.05	1.23	0.81
23 SOCIAL INTERACTION	23.58	2.28	23.72	2.61	-0.18	0.77	1.31
24 MECHANICAL ACTIVITIES	19.96	1.49	20.06	1.21	-0.23	1.51	0.66
25 SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES	20.38	2.06	20.72	1.84	-0.57	1.25	0.80
26 ACTIVITY-FREQUENT CHANGE	23.29	1.71	22.83	2.55	0.70	0.45	2.23
27 GROUP PARTICIPATION	20.50	2.40	21.39	2.17	-1.24	1.22	0.82
28 STATUS ATTAINMENT	21.67	2.06	20.67	1.61	1.71	1.64	0.61
29 SOCIAL SERVICE	24.17	2.30	25.00	2.03	-1.22	1.28	0.78
30 APPROVAL FROM OTHERS	20.33	2.22	21.06	2.51	-0.99	0.78	1.28
31 INTELLECTUAL ACHIEVEMENT	22.25	2.25	21.28	2.27	1.38	0.98	1.02
32 MAINTAIN SOCIETAL STANDARDS	20.96	0.91	21.11	1.94	-0.34	0.22	4.55
33 ROLE CONFORMITY	20.96	1.55	21.83	1.47	-0.88	1.18	0.85
34 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT	20.08	1.74	20.28	1.67	-0.36	1.08	0.92

JAIM SCALE COMPARISONS BETWEEN INDEPENDENT GROUPS

Mental Health ICC 2
N = 24

2 CC 2 Social Service
N = 44

SCALE	MEAN	S.D.	MFAN	S.D.	T-RATIO	F1	F2
01 OPTIMISM	21.50	2.90	22.50	2.50	-1.49	1.35	0.74
02 SELF CONFIDENCE	22.17	1.81	21.93	1.96	0.49	0.85	1.17
03 PERSEVERANCE	19.79	3.28	20.27	3.04	-0.61	1.17	0.86
04 ORDERLINESS	17.25	2.80	19.02	2.05	-2.99	1.86	0.54
05 PLAN AHEAD	21.54	1.53	21.57	1.77	-0.06	0.75	1.34
06 MORAL ABSOLUTES	18.71	1.71	21.77	3.12	-4.46	0.30	3.34
07 SLOW CHANGE	20.17	1.49	21.05	1.36	-2.46	1.20	0.83
08 PERSUASIVE LEADERSHIP	21.58	2.32	21.32	2.03	0.49	1.30	0.77
09 SELF ASSERTIVENESS	20.12	2.72	21.16	2.97	-1.41	0.84	1.19
10 MOVE TOWARD AGGRESSOR	22.50	2.09	22.11	2.20	0.70	0.90	1.11
11 MOVE AWAY FROM AGGRESSOR	19.33	1.97	19.91	2.39	-1.01	0.68	1.47
12 MOVE AGAINST AGGRESSOR	21.17	2.24	20.80	1.94	0.71	1.34	0.75
13 PREFER ROUTINES	16.00	2.75	18.64	2.78	-3.75	0.98	1.02
14 AUTHORITY IDENTIFICATION	18.17	1.71	18.91	2.29	-1.39	0.56	1.79
15 INDEPENDENCE	25.21	2.52	23.11	3.00	2.91	0.71	1.42
16 DIRECTIVE LEADERSHIP	19.25	1.36	20.20	1.53	-2.55	0.79	1.27
17 PARTICIPATIVE LEADERSHIP	22.25	1.22	22.02	1.39	0.67	0.78	1.29
18 DELEGATIVE LEADERSHIP	21.58	1.56	21.07	1.50	1.33	1.08	0.93
19 KNOWLEDGE OF RESULTS	21.58	3.05	19.45	2.54	3.08	1.44	0.69
20 EXTERNAL CONTROLS	19.87	3.14	19.36	2.78	0.69	1.28	0.78
21 SYSTEMATICAL-METHODOICAL	18.88	2.40	19.93	2.74	-1.59	0.77	1.30
22 PROBLEM ANALYSIS	21.17	1.90	21.34	2.08	-0.34	0.84	1.19
23 SOCIAL INTERACTION	23.58	2.28	23.00	2.27	1.01	1.01	0.99
24 MECHANICAL ACTIVITIES	19.96	1.49	20.95	1.78	-2.33	0.70	1.43
25 SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES	20.38	2.06	21.05	1.45	-1.57	2.03	0.49
26 ACTIVITY-FREQUENT CHANGE	23.29	1.71	23.45	2.62	-0.27	0.42	2.36
27 GROUP PARTICIPATION	20.50	2.40	20.11	2.25	0.66	1.13	0.89
28 STATUS ATTAINMENT	21.67	2.06	21.80	2.15	-0.24	0.91	1.09
29 SOCIAL SERVICE	24.17	2.30	24.75	2.73	-0.89	0.71	1.41
30 APPROVAL FROM OTHERS	20.33	2.22	20.34	2.28	-0.01	0.95	1.06
31 INTELLECTUAL ACHIEVEMENT	22.25	2.25	21.32	2.46	1.54	0.84	1.19
32 MAINTAIN SOCIETAL STANDARDS	20.96	0.91	20.82	1.48	0.42	0.37	2.67
33 ROLE CONFORMITY	20.96	1.55	21.70	1.84	-1.69	0.71	1.41
34 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT	20.08	1.74	19.25	1.73	1.90	1.02	0.98

JAIM SCALE COMPARISONS BETWEEN INDEPENDENT GROUPS
Montel Health *School Social Workers*
 1 CC 2 4 CC 2
 N= 24 N= 12

SCALE	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.	T-RATIO	F1	F2
01 OPTIMISM	21.50	2.90	23.17	3.24	-1.56	0.80	1.25
02 SELF CONFIDENCE	22.17	1.81	22.42	1.98	-0.38	0.84	1.19
03 PERSEVERANCE	19.79	3.28	21.25	2.01	-1.41	2.68	0.37
04 ORDERLINESS	17.25	2.80	20.00	2.22	-2.96	1.60	0.63
05 PLAN AHEAD	21.54	1.53	21.08	1.88	0.78	0.66	1.51
06 MORAL ABSOLUTES	18.71	1.71	22.25	2.42	-5.10	0.50	2.01
07 SLOW CHANGE	20.17	1.49	21.08	1.38	-1.78	1.17	0.85
08 PERSUASIVE LEADERSHIP	21.58	2.32	21.17	2.41	0.50	0.93	1.08
09 SELF ASSERTIVENESS	20.12	2.72	20.75	3.10	-0.61	0.73	1.38
10 MOVE TOWARD AGGRESSOR	22.50	2.09	22.17	2.04	0.46	1.05	0.95
11 MOVE AWAY FROM AGGRESSOR	19.33	1.97	19.33	2.42	0.0	0.66	1.51
12 MOVE AGAINST AGGRESSOR	21.17	2.24	21.33	2.31	-0.21	0.94	1.06
13 PREFER ROUTINES	16.00	2.75	18.58	3.20	-2.52	0.74	1.36
14 AUTHORITY IDENTIFICATION	18.17	1.71	18.42	2.31	-0.37	0.55	1.83
15 INDEPENDENCE	25.21	2.52	22.92	2.97	2.43	0.72	1.39
16 DIRECTIVE LEADERSHIP	19.25	1.36	19.33	1.15	-0.18	1.39	0.72
17 PARTICIPATIVE LEADERSHIP	22.25	1.22	21.83	1.70	0.84	0.52	1.92
18 DELEGATIVE LEADERSHIP	21.58	1.56	21.50	1.38	0.16	1.27	0.79
19 KNOWLEDGE OF RESULTS	21.58	3.05	19.75	2.70	1.76	1.27	0.78
20 EXTERNAL CONTROLS	19.87	3.14	19.33	3.70	0.46	0.72	1.39
21 SYSTEMATIC-METHODICAL	18.88	2.40	20.25	2.73	-1.55	0.77	1.30
22 PROBLEM ANALYSIS	21.17	1.90	21.08	1.31	0.14	2.11	0.47
23 SOCIAL INTERACTION	23.58	2.28	24.25	2.63	-0.79	0.75	1.33
24 MECHANICAL ACTIVITIES	19.96	1.49	21.00	1.35	-2.04	1.22	0.82
25 SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES	20.38	2.06	20.67	1.07	-0.46	3.69	0.27
26 ACTIVITY-FREQUENT CHANGE	23.29	1.71	22.83	3.04	0.58	0.31	3.17
27 GROUP PARTICIPATION	20.50	2.40	21.00	2.30	-0.60	1.09	0.92
28 STATUS ATTAINMENT	21.67	2.06	20.75	1.54	1.36	1.77	0.56
29 SOCIAL SERVICE	24.17	2.30	24.83	2.17	-0.84	1.12	0.89
30 APPROVAL FROM OTHERS	20.33	2.22	22.08	2.64	-2.00	0.57	1.75
31 INTELLECTUAL ACHIEVEMENT	22.25	2.25	20.00	1.04	3.27	4.64	0.22
32 MAINTAIN SOCIETAL STANDARDS	20.96	0.91	21.75	1.29	-2.14	0.50	2.01
33 ROLE CONFORMITY	20.96	1.55	22.17	1.64	-2.17	0.89	1.13
34 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT	20.08	1.74	19.58	1.24	0.89	1.97	0.51

JAIM SCALE COMPARISONS BETWEEN INDEPENDENT GROUPS

Social Justice *Private Agencies*

2 CC 2 3 CC 2

N = 44 N = 18

SCALE	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.	T-RATIO	F1	F2
01 OPTIMISM	22.50	2.50	23.11	2.89	-0.83	0.75	1.33
02 SELF CONFIDENCE	21.93	1.96	22.44	1.50	-1.00	1.69	0.59
03 PERSEVERANCE	20.27	3.04	21.00	2.28	-0.91	1.78	0.56
04 ORDERLINESS	19.02	2.05	18.33	2.87	1.07	0.51	1.96
05 PLAN AHEAD	21.57	1.77	21.89	2.03	-0.62	0.76	1.31
06 MORAL ABSOLUTES	21.77	3.12	20.39	1.82	1.76	2.93	0.34
07 SLOW CHANGE	21.05	1.36	21.17	1.15	-0.33	1.40	0.71
08 PERSUASIVE LEADERSHIP	21.32	2.03	20.56	1.76	1.39	1.34	0.75
09 SELF ASSERTIVENESS	21.16	2.97	19.94	2.67	1.50	1.74	0.81
10 MOVE TOWARD AGGRESSOR	22.11	2.20	22.67	1.64	-0.96	1.79	0.56
11 MOVE AWAY FROM AGGRESSOR	19.91	2.39	19.67	1.88	0.38	1.62	0.62
12 MOVE AGAINST AGGRESSOR	20.80	1.94	20.17	1.82	1.18	1.13	0.89
13 PREFER ROUTINES	18.64	2.78	19.17	2.09	-0.73	1.76	0.57
14 AUTHORITY IDENTIFICATION	18.91	2.29	20.00	2.72	-1.61	0.71	1.41
15 INDEPENDENCE	23.11	3.00	22.50	2.12	0.79	2.00	0.50
16 DIRECTIVE LEADERSHIP	20.20	1.53	19.56	1.82	1.43	0.71	1.41
17 PARTICIPATIVE LEADERSHIP	22.02	1.39	21.61	1.24	1.09	1.25	0.80
18 DELEGATIVE LEADERSHIP*	21.07	1.50	21.94	1.30	-2.16	1.32	0.76
19 KNOWLEDGE OF RESULTS*	19.45	2.54	21.28	2.89	-2.47	0.77	1.29
20 EXTERNAL CONTROLS	19.36	2.78	19.83	2.75	-0.61	1.02	0.98
21 SYSTEMATICAL-METHODOICAL	19.93	2.74	19.89	1.84	0.06	2.21	0.45
22 PROBLEM ANALYSIS*	21.34	2.08	20.00	1.71	2.42	1.47	0.68
23 SOCIAL INTERACTION	23.00	2.27	23.72	2.61	-1.09	0.76	1.32
24 MECHANICAL ACTIVITIES	20.95	1.78	20.06	1.21	1.96	2.15	0.46
25 SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES	21.05	1.45	20.72	1.84	0.74	0.62	1.62
26 ACTIVITY-FREQUENT CHANGE	23.45	2.62	22.83	2.55	0.85	1.06	0.95
27 GROUP PARTICIPATION*	20.11	2.25	21.39	2.17	-2.04	1.08	0.93
28 STATUS ATTAINMENT*	21.80	2.15	20.67	1.61	2.00	1.79	0.56
29 SOCIAL SERVICE	24.75	2.73	25.00	2.03	-0.35	1.81	0.55
30 APPROVAL FROM OTHERS	20.34	2.28	21.06	2.51	-1.09	0.83	1.21
31 INTELLECTUAL ACHIEVEMENT	21.32	2.46	21.28	2.27	0.06	1.17	0.85
32 MAINTAIN SOCIETAL STANDARDS	20.82	1.48	21.11	1.94	-0.64	0.59	1.71
33 ROLE CONFORMITY	21.70	1.84	21.83	1.42	-0.27	1.66	0.60
34 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT*	19.25	1.73	20.28	1.67	-2.15	1.06	0.94

JAIM SCALE COMPARISONS BETWEEN INDEPENDENT GROUPS

2 CC 2 *2 CC 2* *4 CC 2*

N= 44 *N= 12*

SCALE	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.	T-RATIO	F1	F2
01 OPTIMISM	22.50	2.50	23.17	3.24	-0.77	0.59	1.68
02 SELF CONFIDENCE	21.93	1.96	22.42	1.98	-0.76	0.98	1.02
03 PERSEVERANCE	20.27	3.04	21.25	2.01	-1.05	2.29	0.44
04 ORDERLINESS	19.02	2.05	20.00	2.22	-1.44	0.86	1.17
05 PLAN AHEAD	21.57	1.77	21.08	1.88	0.83	0.89	1.13
06 MORAL ABSOLUTES	21.77	3.12	22.25	2.42	-0.49	1.66	0.60
07 SLOW CHANGE	21.05	1.36	21.08	1.38	-0.09	0.98	1.02
08 PERSUASIVE LEADERSHIP	21.32	2.03	21.17	2.41	0.22	0.71	1.40
09 SELF ASSERTIVENESS	21.16	2.97	20.75	3.19	0.42	0.87	1.16
10 MOVE TOWARD AGGRESSOR	22.11	2.20	22.17	2.04	-0.08	1.17	0.86
11 MOVE AWAY FROM AGGRESSOR	19.91	2.39	19.33	2.42	0.74	0.97	1.03
12 MOVE AGAINST AGGRESSOR	20.80	1.94	21.33	2.31	-0.82	0.70	1.42
13 PREFER ROUTINES	18.64	2.78	18.58	3.20	0.06	0.75	1.33
14 AUTHORITY IDENTIFICATION	18.91	2.29	18.42	2.31	0.66	0.98	1.02
15 INDEPENDENCE	23.11	3.00	22.92	2.97	0.20	1.02	0.98
16 DIRECTIVE LEADERSHIP	20.20	1.53	19.33	1.15	1.83	1.76	0.57
17 PARTICIPATIVE LEADERSHIP	22.02	1.39	21.83	1.70	0.40	0.67	1.49
18 DELEGATIVE LEADERSHIP	21.07	1.50	21.50	1.38	-0.90	1.18	0.85
19 KNOWLEDGE OF RESULTS	19.45	2.54	19.75	2.70	-0.35	0.88	1.13
20 EXTERNAL CONTROLS	19.36	2.78	19.33	3.70	0.03	0.56	1.77
21 SYSTEMATIC-METHODICAL	19.93	2.74	20.25	2.73	-0.36	1.00	1.00
22 PROBLEM ANALYSIS	21.34	2.08	21.08	1.31	0.41	2.51	0.40
23 SOCIAL INTERACTION	23.00	2.27	24.25	2.63	-1.63	0.74	1.34
24 MECHANICAL ACTIVITIES	20.95	1.78	21.00	1.35	-0.08	1.74	0.58
25 SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES	21.05	1.45	20.67	1.07	0.84	1.82	0.55
26 ACTIVITY-FREQUENT CHANGE	23.45	2.62	22.83	3.04	0.70	0.74	1.35
27 GROUP PARTICIPATION	20.11	2.25	21.00	2.30	-1.20	0.96	1.04
28 STATUS ATTAINMENT	21.80	2.15	20.75	1.54	1.57	1.94	0.52
29 SOCIAL SERVICE	24.75	2.73	24.83	2.17	-0.10	1.50	0.63
30 APPROVAL FROM OTHERS*	20.34	2.28	22.08	2.94	-2.20	0.60	1.66
31 INTELLECTUAL ACHIEVEMENT	21.32	2.46	20.00	1.04	1.80	5.53	0.18
32 MAINTAIN SOCIETAL STANDARDS	20.82	1.48	21.75	1.29	-1.98	1.33	0.75
33 ROLE CONFORMITY	21.70	1.84	22.17	1.64	-0.79	1.25	0.80
34 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT	19.25	1.73	19.58	1.24	-0.62	1.94	0.52

JAIM SCALE COMPARISONS BETWEEN INDEPENDENT GROUPS

Private Agencies
3 CC 2School Social Workers
4 CC 2

N = 18

N = 12

SCALE	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.	T-RATIO	F1	F2
01 OPTIMISM	23.11	2.89	23.17	3.24	-0.05	0.79	1.26
02 SELF CONFIDENCE	22.44	1.50	22.42	1.98	0.04	0.58	1.73
03 PERSEVERANCE	21.00	2.28	21.25	2.01	-0.31	1.29	0.79
04 ORDERLINESS	18.33	2.87	20.00	2.22	-1.70	1.68	0.60
05 PLAN AHEAD	21.89	2.03	21.08	1.88	1.10	1.16	0.86
06 MORAL ABSOLUTES *	20.39	1.82	22.25	2.42	-2.41	0.57	1.76
07 SLOW CHANGE	21.17	1.15	21.08	1.38	0.18	0.70	1.44
08 PERSUASIVE LEADERSHIP	20.56	1.76	21.17	2.41	-0.81	0.53	1.88
09 SELF ASSERTIVENESS	19.94	2.67	20.75	3.19	-0.75	0.70	1.43
10 MOVE TOWARD AGGRESSOR	22.67	1.64	22.17	2.04	0.74	0.65	1.53
11 MOVE AWAY FROM AGGRESSOR	19.67	1.88	19.33	2.42	0.42	0.60	1.67
12 MOVE AGAINST AGGRESSOR	20.17	1.82	21.33	2.31	-1.54	0.62	1.60
13 PREFER ROUTINES	19.17	2.09	18.58	3.20	0.60	0.43	2.34
14 AUTHORITY IDENTIFICATION	20.00	2.72	18.42	2.31	1.65	1.38	0.72
15 INDEPENDENCE	22.50	2.12	22.92	2.97	-0.45	0.51	1.96
16 DIRECTIVE LEADERSHIP	19.56	1.82	19.33	1.15	0.37	2.49	0.40
17 PARTICIPATIVE LEADERSHIP	21.61	1.24	21.83	1.70	-0.41	0.54	1.86
18 DELEGATIVE LEADERSHIP	21.94	1.30	21.50	1.38	0.89	0.89	1.12
19 KNOWLEDGE OF RESULTS	21.28	2.89	19.75	2.70	1.46	1.14	0.88
20 EXTERNAL CONTROLS	19.83	2.75	19.33	3.70	0.42	0.55	1.81
21 SYSTEMATIC-METHODICAL	19.89	1.84	20.25	2.73	-0.43	0.45	2.20
22 PROBLEM ANALYSIS	20.00	1.71	21.08	1.31	-1.85	1.71	0.58
23 SOCIAL INTERACTION	23.72	2.61	24.25	2.63	-0.54	0.98	1.02
24 MECHANICAL ACTIVITIES	20.06	1.21	21.00	1.35	-2.00	0.81	1.24
25 SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES	20.72	1.84	20.67	1.07	0.09	2.94	0.34
26 ACTIVITY-FREQUENT CHANGE	22.83	2.55	22.83	3.04	0.0	0.70	1.42
27 GROUP PARTICIPATION	21.39	2.17	21.00	2.30	0.47	0.90	1.12
28 STATUS ATTAINMENT	20.67	1.61	20.75	1.54	-0.14	1.08	0.92
29 SOCIAL SERVICE	25.00	2.03	24.83	2.17	0.21	0.88	1.14
30 APPROVAL FROM OTHERS	21.06	2.51	22.08	2.94	-1.03	0.73	1.37
31 INTELLECTUAL ACHIEVEMENT	21.28	2.27	20.00	1.04	1.82	4.72	0.21
32 MAINTAIN SOCIETAL STANDARDS	21.11	1.94	21.75	1.29	-1.00	2.26	0.44
33 ROLE CONFORMITY	21.83	1.42	22.17	1.64	-0.59	0.75	1.33
34 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT	20.28	1.67	19.58	1.24	1.23	1.82	0.55

JAIM SCALE COMPARISONS BETWEEN INDEPENDENT GROUPS
Police Training Division *Police Crime Lab.*
 7 CC 2 7 CC 2
 N = 9 N = 11

SCALE	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.	T-RATIO	F1	F2
01 OPTIMISM	21.44	2.88	22.36	2.20	-0.81	1.71	0.59
02 SELF CONFIDENCE	22.00	1.90	20.45	2.58	1.51	0.40	2.05
03 PERSEVERANCE	23.89	3.22	21.36	2.87	1.85	1.26	0.80
04 ORDERLINESS*	22.11	1.62	19.55	2.62	2.56	0.38	2.63
05 PLAN AHEAD	20.89	2.03	20.82	1.78	0.08	1.30	0.77
06 MORAL ABSOLUTES	24.44	1.42	23.36	2.29	1.23	0.36	2.59
07 SLOW CHANGE	22.33	0.87	21.73	1.56	1.04	0.31	3.22
08 PERSUASIVE LEADERSHIP	22.78	1.39	21.64	1.29	1.90	1.18	0.85
09 SELF ASSERTIVENESS	25.00	2.00	22.09	4.18	1.91	0.23	4.37
10 MOVE TOWARD AGGRESSOR*	20.33	1.73	22.27	1.74	-2.49	0.99	1.01
11 MOVE AWAY FROM AGGRESSOR	19.44	2.24	20.09	1.64	-0.74	1.87	0.54
12 MOVE AGAINST AGGRESSOR*	21.67	2.50	19.64	1.63	2.16	2.35	0.42
13 PREFER ROUTINES	20.56	2.40	21.00	2.57	-0.40	0.88	1.14
14 AUTHORITY IDENTIFICATION	19.44	1.88	18.18	1.78	1.54	1.12	0.50
15 INDEPENDENCE	21.44	1.67	20.45	3.30	0.82	0.26	3.91
16 DIRECTIVE LEADERSHIP	21.22	1.92	21.36	2.06	-0.16	0.87	1.15
17 PARTICIPATIVE LEADERSHIP	21.78	1.86	20.91	1.81	1.05	1.05	0.96
18 DELEGATIVE LEADERSHIP	20.33	0.87	21.18	1.33	-1.65	0.43	2.35
19 KNOWLEDGE OF RESULTS	19.56	2.65	20.45	1.57	-0.94	2.84	0.35
20 EXTERNAL CONTROLS	22.44	3.71	23.36	2.62	-0.65	2.01	0.50
21 SYSTEMATIC-METHODICAL*	20.78	3.15	23.82	3.12	-2.16	1.02	0.98
22 PROBLEM ANALYSIS	21.22	2.17	22.09	1.76	-0.97	1.52	0.66
23 SOCIAL INTERACTION	20.44	2.51	21.55	2.73	-0.93	0.84	1.19
24 MECHANICAL ACTIVITIES**	21.33	1.66	23.55	1.75	-2.88	0.89	1.12
25 SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES	22.22	1.72	20.64	2.01	1.87	0.73	1.33
26 ACTIVITY-FREQUENT CHANGE	24.44	2.88	24.45	3.30	-0.01	0.76	1.31
27 GROUP PARTICIPATION	20.00	3.00	19.55	1.29	0.46	5.38	0.19
28 STATUS ATTAINMENT	23.89	2.80	22.00	2.00	1.78	1.97	0.51
29 SOCIAL SERVICE	21.89	1.54	21.64	1.21	0.41	1.62	0.62
30 APPROVAL FROM OTHERS*	17.33	2.12	19.91	2.12	-2.70	1.00	1.00
31 INTELLECTUAL ACHIEVEMENT	19.73	0.97	21.09	2.70	-1.32	0.13	7.72
32 MAINTAIN SOCIETAL STANDARDS	20.22	1.64	20.55	1.81	-0.41	0.82	1.21
33 ROLE CONFORMITY	24.22	1.48	22.91	1.87	1.71	0.63	1.59
34 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT	18.56	1.88	19.55	1.04	-1.50	3.29	0.20
(15, 11, 11, 18, 34 F2.0)							

JAIM SCALE COMPARISONS BETWEEN INDEPENDENT GROUPS

Police Training Division
5 CC 2
N = 8

Police Patrol Division
6 CC 2
N = 71

SCALE	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.	T-RATIO	F1	F2
01 OPTIMISM	22.87	3.36	21.50	3.43	1.01	0.96	1.04
02 SELF CONFIDENCE	20.50	2.62	20.51	2.33	-0.01	1.26	0.79
03 PERSEVERANCE	22.50	2.78	22.41	3.01	0.08	0.85	1.17
04 ORDERLINESS	21.62	2.20	21.51	2.20	0.14	1.00	1.00
05 PLAN AHEAD	21.37	1.85	20.58	1.59	1.32	1.35	0.74
06 MORAL ABSOLUTES	23.00	3.42	23.08	2.05	-0.10	2.78	0.36
07 SLOW CHANGE	21.62	1.30	21.65	1.43	-0.04	0.84	1.20
08 PERSUASIVE LEADERSHIP	22.25	2.19	21.51	2.08	0.95	1.11	0.90
09 SELF ASSERTIVENESS	23.37	2.50	23.42	2.86	-0.05	0.77	1.30
10 MOVE TOWARD AGGRESSOR	22.13	1.36	21.24	1.95	1.25	0.48	2.07
11 MOVE AWAY FROM AGGRESSOR	19.37	2.26	20.18	2.52	-0.87	0.81	1.24
12 MOVE AGAINST AGGRESSOR	20.75	2.82	20.24	2.21	0.60	1.62	0.62
13 PREFER ROUTINES	19.75	2.71	20.72	2.92	-0.90	0.86	1.16
14 AUTHORITY IDENTIFICATION	18.75	1.28	18.69	1.83	0.00	0.49	2.05
15 INDEPENDENCE	21.75	4.17	21.15	2.64	0.57	2.48	0.40
16 DIRECTIVE LEADERSHIP	20.87	1.36	21.59	1.77	-1.11	0.59	1.70
17 PARTICIPATIVE LEADERSHIP	22.13	1.46	21.23	1.69	1.44	0.74	1.35
18 DELEGATIVE LEADERSHIP	20.00	0.76	20.72	1.14	-1.74	0.44	2.26
19 KNOWLEDGE OF RESULTS	19.25	2.96	19.24	2.12	0.01	1.95	0.51
20 EXTERNAL CONTROLS	22.38	4.47	23.34	3.26	-0.76	1.89	0.53
21 SYSTEMATIC-METHODICAL	20.75	2.12	21.49	2.29	-0.88	0.84	1.16
22 PROBLEM ANALYSIS	22.00	1.51	21.27	1.60	1.23	0.89	1.12
23 SOCIAL INTERACTION	20.87	2.64	21.21	2.54	-0.35	1.08	0.92
24 MECHANICAL ACTIVITIES	22.87	1.64	22.82	1.86	0.08	0.78	1.29
25 SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES	21.50	2.27	21.59	1.79	-0.13	1.60	0.63
26 ACTIVITY-FREQUENT CHANGE	23.88	2.53	23.38	2.74	0.49	0.86	1.17
27 GROUP PARTICIPATION	19.25	2.05	20.52	2.38	-1.45	0.75	1.34
28 STATUS ATTAINMENT	22.25	1.75	21.62	1.82	0.93	0.92	1.09
29 SOCIAL SERVICE	22.62	2.13	22.66	1.76	-0.06	1.46	0.69
30 APPROVAL FROM OTHERS	20.38	1.60	19.06	2.62	1.39	0.37	2.68
31 INTELLECTUAL ACHIEVEMENT	20.12	2.23	20.31	1.75	-0.28	1.64	0.61
32 MAINTAIN SOCIETAL STANDARDS	21.00	1.20	20.44	1.35	1.13	0.78	1.27
33 ROLE CONFORMITY	23.25	2.12	24.06	2.01	-1.07	1.12	0.99
34 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT	19.13	2.03	18.27	1.62	1.38	1.57	0.64

JAIM SCALE COMPARISONS BETWEEN INDEPENDENT GROUPS

Police Quarters Division *Police Training Division*

5 CC 2 7 CC 2

N= 8 N= 9

SCALE	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.	T-RATIO	F1	F2
01 OPTIMISM	22.87	3.36	21.44	2.98	0.95	1.36	0.73
02 SELF CONFIDENCE	20.50	2.62	22.00	1.80	-1.30	2.11	0.47
03 PERSEVERANCE	22.50	2.78	23.85	3.22	-0.95	0.74	1.34
04 ORDERLINESS	21.62	2.20	22.11	1.62	-0.52	1.85	0.54
05 PLAN AHEAD	21.37	1.85	20.87	2.02	0.51	0.83	1.21
06 MORAL ABSOLUTES	23.00	3.42	24.44	1.42	-1.16	5.78	0.17
07 SLOW CHANGE	21.62	1.30	22.33	0.87	-1.34	2.26	0.44
08 PERSUASIVE LEADERSHIP	22.25	2.19	22.78	1.39	-0.60	2.46	0.41
09 SELF ASSERTIVENESS	23.37	2.50	25.00	2.00	-1.49	1.57	0.64
10 MOVE TOWARD AGGRESSOR*	22.13	1.36	20.33	1.73	2.35	0.61	1.63
11 MOVE AWAY FROM AGGRESSOR	19.37	2.26	19.44	2.24	-0.06	1.02	0.98
12 MOVE AGAINST AGGRESSOR	20.75	2.82	21.67	2.50	-0.71	1.27	0.79
13 PREFEX ROUTINES	19.75	2.71	20.56	2.40	-0.65	1.27	0.79
14 AUTHORITY IDENTIFICATION	18.75	1.28	19.44	1.88	-0.88	0.47	2.15
15 INDEPENDENCE	21.75	4.17	21.44	1.67	0.20	6.25	0.16
16 DIRECTIVE LEADERSHIP	20.87	1.36	21.22	1.92	-0.42	0.50	2.01
17 PARTICIPATIVE LEADERSHIP	22.13	1.46	21.78	1.86	0.42	0.62	1.62
18 DELEGATIVE LEADERSHIP	20.00	0.76	20.33	0.87	-0.84	0.76	1.31
19 KNOWLEDGE OF RESULTS	19.25	2.96	19.56	2.65	-0.22	1.25	0.80
20 EXTERNAL CONTROLS	22.38	4.47	22.44	3.71	-0.03	1.45	0.69
21 SYSTEMATIC-METHODICAL	20.75	2.12	20.78	3.15	-0.02	0.45	2.21
22 PROBLEM ANALYSIS	22.00	1.51	21.22	2.17	0.85	0.49	2.05
23 SOCIAL INTERACTION	20.87	2.64	20.44	2.51	0.34	1.11	0.90
24 MECHANICAL ACTIVITIES	22.87	1.64	21.33	1.66	1.92	0.98	1.02
25 SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES	21.50	2.27	22.22	1.72	-0.75	1.75	0.57
26 ACTIVITY-FREQUENT CHANGE	23.88	2.53	24.44	2.88	-0.43	0.77	1.23
27 GROUP PARTICIPATION	19.25	2.05	20.00	3.00	-0.59	0.47	2.14
28 STATUS ATTAINMENT	22.25	1.75	23.89	2.80	-1.42	0.39	2.55
29 SOCIAL SERVICE	22.62	2.12	21.89	1.54	0.82	1.93	0.52
30 APPROVAL FROM OTHERS**	20.38	1.60	17.33	2.12	3.30	0.57	1.75
31 INTELLECTUAL ACHIEVEMENT	20.12	2.23	19.78	0.97	0.42	5.28	0.19
32 MAINTAIN SOCIETAL STANDARDS	21.00	1.20	20.22	1.64	1.10	0.53	1.39
33 ROLE CONFORMITY	23.25	2.12	24.22	1.48	-1.11	2.05	0.49
34 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT	19.13	2.03	18.56	1.86	0.60	1.17	0.86

JAIM SCALE COMPARISONS BETWEEN INDEPENDENT GROUPS
Police Juvenile Division *Police Crime Lab.*
 P CC 2 P CC 2
 N = 8 N = 11

SCALE	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.	T-RATIO	F1	F2
01 OPTIMISM	22.87	3.36	22.36	2.20	0.40	2.32	0.43
02 SELF CONFIDENCE	20.50	2.62	20.45	2.58	0.04	1.02	0.97
03 PERSEVERANCE	22.50	2.78	21.36	2.87	0.86	0.93	1.07
04 ORDERLINESS	21.62	2.20	19.55	2.62	1.92	0.70	1.42
05 PLAN AHEAD	21.37	1.85	20.82	1.78	0.66	1.08	0.93
06 MORAL ABSOLUTES	23.00	3.42	23.36	2.29	-0.28	2.23	0.45
07 SLOW CHANGE	21.62	1.30	21.73	1.56	-0.15	0.70	1.43
08 PERSUASIVE LEADERSHIP	22.25	2.19	21.64	1.20	0.77	2.89	0.35
09 SELF ASSERTIVENESS	23.37	2.50	22.09	4.18	0.77	0.36	2.79
10 MOVE TOWARD AGGRESSOR	22.13	1.36	22.27	1.74	-0.20	0.61	1.64
11 MOVE AWAY FROM AGGRESSOR	19.37	2.26	20.09	1.64	-0.80	1.90	0.53
12 MOVE AGAINST AGGRESSOR	20.75	2.82	19.64	1.63	1.09	2.99	0.33
13 PREFER ROUTINES	19.75	2.71	21.00	2.57	-1.02	1.11	0.90
14 AUTHORITY IDENTIFICATION	18.75	1.28	18.18	1.78	0.77	0.52	1.93
15 INDEPENDENCE	21.75	4.17	20.45	3.30	0.76	1.60	0.63
16 DIRECTIVE LEADERSHIP	20.87	1.36	21.36	2.06	-0.58	0.43	2.31
17 PARTICIPATIVE LEADERSHIP	22.13	1.46	20.91	1.81	1.54	0.65	1.55
18 DELEGATIVE LEADERSHIP*	20.00	0.76	21.18	1.33	-2.25	0.32	3.09
19 KNOWLEDGE OF RESULTS	19.25	2.96	20.45	1.57	-1.15	3.55	0.28
20 EXTERNAL CONTROLS	22.38	4.47	23.36	2.62	-0.61	2.92	0.34
21 SYSTEMATICAL-METHODICAL*	20.75	2.12	23.82	3.12	-2.40	0.46	2.17
22 PROBLEM ANALYSIS	22.00	1.51	22.09	1.76	-0.12	0.74	1.35
23 SOCIAL INTERACTION	20.87	2.64	21.55	2.73	-0.54	0.93	1.07
24 MECHANICAL ACTIVITIES	22.87	1.64	23.55	1.75	-0.84	0.88	1.14
25 SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES	21.50	2.27	20.64	2.01	0.88	1.27	0.79
26 ACTIVITY-FREQUENT CHANGE	23.88	2.53	24.45	3.30	-0.41	0.50	1.70
27 GROUP PARTICIPATION	19.25	2.05	19.55	1.29	-0.39	2.52	0.40
28 STATUS ATTAINMENT	22.25	1.75	22.00	2.00	0.28	0.77	1.30
29 SOCIAL SERVICE	22.62	2.13	21.64	1.21	1.29	3.13	0.32
30 APPROVAL FROM OTHERS	20.38	1.60	19.91	2.12	0.52	0.57	1.76
31 INTELLECTUAL ACHIEVEMENT	20.12	2.23	21.09	2.70	-0.83	0.68	1.46
32 MAINTAIN SOCIETAL STANDARDS	21.00	1.20	20.55	1.81	0.62	0.44	2.29
33 ROLE CONFORMITY	23.25	2.12	22.91	1.87	0.37	1.29	0.78
34 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT	19.13	2.02	19.55	1.04	-0.50	3.85	0.76

JAIM SCALE COMPARISONS BETWEEN INDEPENDENT GROUPS
Police Patrol Division *Police Criminals*
 6 CC 2 6 CC 2
 N = 71 N = 11

SCALE	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.	T-RATIO	F1	F2
01 OPTIMISM	21.59	3.43	22.26	2.20	-0.72	2.42	0.41
02 SELF CONFIDENCE	20.51	2.33	20.45	2.58	0.07	0.81	1.23
03 PERSEVERANCE	22.41	3.01	21.36	2.87	1.08	1.10	0.91
04 ORDERLINESS*	21.51	2.20	19.55	2.62	2.69	0.70	1.42
05 PLAN AHEAD	20.58	1.59	20.92	1.78	-0.46	0.80	1.25
06 MORAL ABSOLUTES	23.08	2.05	23.36	2.29	-0.41	0.80	1.24
07 SLOW CHANGE	21.65	1.43	21.73	1.56	-0.17	0.84	1.19
08 PERSUASIVE LEADERSHIP	21.51	2.08	21.64	1.29	-0.20	2.61	0.38
09 SELF ASSERTIVENESS	23.42	2.86	22.09	4.18	1.35	0.47	2.14
10 MOVE TOWARD AGGRESSOR	21.24	1.95	22.27	1.74	-1.65	1.26	0.79
11 MOVE AWAY FROM AGGRESSOR	20.18	2.52	20.09	1.64	0.12	2.36	0.42
12 MOVE AGAINST AGGRESSOR	20.24	2.21	19.64	1.63	0.87	1.85	0.54
13 PREFER ROUTINES	20.72	2.92	21.00	2.57	-0.30	1.26	0.77
14 AUTHORITY IDENTIFICATION	18.69	1.83	18.18	1.78	0.86	1.06	0.94
15 INDEPENDENCE	21.15	2.64	20.45	3.30	0.79	0.64	1.56
16 DIRECTIVE LEADERSHIP	21.59	1.77	21.36	2.06	0.39	0.74	1.36
17 PARTICIPATIVE LEADERSHIP	21.23	1.69	20.91	1.81	0.57	0.87	1.15
18 DELEGATIVE LEADERSHIP	20.72	1.14	21.18	1.33	-1.23	0.73	1.37
19 KNOWLEDGE OF RESULTS	19.24	2.12	20.45	1.57	-1.82	1.82	0.55
20 EXTERNAL CONTROLS	23.34	3.26	23.36	2.62	-0.02	1.55	0.65
21 SYSTEMATIC-METHODICAL*	21.49	2.29	23.82	3.12	-2.98	0.54	1.87
22 PROBLEM ANALYSIS	21.27	1.60	22.09	1.76	-1.57	0.83	1.20
23 SOCIAL INTERACTION	21.21	2.54	21.55	2.73	-0.40	0.86	1.16
24 MECHANICAL ACTIVITIES	22.82	1.86	23.55	1.75	-1.22	1.13	0.89
25 SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES	21.59	1.79	20.64	2.01	1.62	0.70	1.24
26 ACTIVITY-FREQUENT CHANGE	23.38	2.74	24.45	3.30	-1.18	0.69	1.45
27 GROUP PARTICIPATION	20.52	2.38	19.55	1.29	1.33	3.38	0.30
28 STATUS ATTAINMENT	21.62	1.82	22.00	2.00	-0.64	0.83	1.20
29 SOCIAL SERVICE	22.66	1.76	21.64	1.21	1.86	2.14	0.47
30 APPROVAL FROM OTHERS	19.06	2.62	19.91	2.12	-1.03	1.53	0.66
31 INTELLECTUAL ACHIEVEMENT	20.31	1.75	21.09	2.70	-1.27	0.42	2.39
32 MAINTAIN SOCIETAL STANDARDS	20.44	1.35	20.55	1.81	-0.24	0.56	1.80
33 ROLE CONFORMITY	24.06	2.01	22.91	1.87	1.78	1.15	0.87
34 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT*	18.27	1.62	19.55	1.04	-2.53	2.45	0.41

JAIM SCALE COMPARISONS BETWEEN INDEPENDENT GROUPS
Police Patrol Division *Police Training Division*
 6 CC 2 7 CC 2
 N = 71 N = 9

SCALE	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.	T-RATIO	F1	F2
01 OPTIMISM	21.59	3.43	21.44	2.88	0.12	1.42	0.71
02 SELF CONFIDENCE	20.51	2.33	22.00	1.80	-1.85	1.67	0.40
03 PERSEVERANCE	22.41	3.01	23.89	3.22	-1.38	0.87	1.15
04 ORDERLINESS	21.51	2.20	22.11	1.62	-0.80	1.85	0.54
05 PLAN AHEAD	20.58	1.59	20.89	2.03	-0.54	0.62	1.62
06 MORAL ABSOLUTES	23.08	2.05	24.44	1.42	-1.92	2.08	0.48
07 SLOW CHANGE	21.65	1.43	22.33	0.87	-1.41	2.71	0.37
08 PERSUASIVE LEADERSHIP	21.51	2.08	22.78	1.39	-1.78	2.22	0.45
09 SELF ASSERTIVENESS	23.42	2.86	25.00	2.00	-1.60	2.04	0.49
10 MOVE TOWARD AGGRESSOR	21.24	1.95	20.33	1.73	1.33	1.27	0.79
11 MOVE AWAY FROM AGGRESSOR	20.18	2.52	19.44	2.24	0.84	1.26	0.79
12 MOVE AGAINST AGGRESSOR	20.24	2.21	21.67	2.50	-1.80	0.78	1.28
13 PREFER ROUTINES	20.72	2.92	20.56	2.40	0.16	1.47	0.68
14 AUTHORITY IDENTIFICATION	18.69	1.83	19.44	1.88	-1.16	0.95	1.05
15 INDEPENDENCE	21.15	2.64	21.44	1.67	-0.32	2.52	0.40
16 DIRECTIVE LEADERSHIP	21.59	1.77	21.22	1.92	0.58	0.85	1.18
17 PARTICIPATIVE LEADERSHIP	21.23	1.69	21.78	1.86	-0.91	0.83	1.20
18 DELEGATIVE LEADERSHIP	20.72	1.14	20.33	0.87	0.98	1.72	0.58
19 KNOWLEDGE OF RESULTS	19.24	2.12	19.56	2.65	-0.41	0.64	1.56
20 EXTERNAL CONTROLS	23.34	3.26	22.44	3.71	0.76	0.77	1.30
21 SYSTEMATICAL-METHODICAL	21.49	2.29	20.78	3.15	0.85	0.53	1.90
22 PROBLEM ANALYSIS	21.27	1.60	21.22	2.17	0.08	0.55	1.83
23 SOCIAL INTERACTION	21.21	2.54	20.44	2.51	0.85	1.03	0.97
24 MECHANICAL ACTIVITIES*	22.82	1.86	21.33	1.66	2.28	1.26	0.79
25 SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES	21.59	1.79	22.22	1.72	-1.00	1.09	0.92
26 ACTIVITY-FREQUENT CHANGE	23.38	2.74	24.44	2.88	-1.09	0.91	1.10
27 GROUP PARTICIPATION	20.52	2.38	20.00	3.00	0.60	0.63	1.59
28 STATUS ATTAINMENT*	21.62	1.82	23.89	2.80	-3.28	0.42	2.36
29 SOCIAL SERVICE	22.66	1.76	21.89	1.54	1.25	1.32	0.76
30 APPROVAL FROM OTHERS	19.06	2.62	17.33	2.12	1.89	1.52	0.66
31 INTELLECTUAL ACHIEVEMENT	20.31	1.75	19.78	0.97	0.89	3.22	0.31
32 MAINTAIN SOCIETAL STANDARDS	20.44	1.35	20.22	1.64	0.44	0.68	1.48
33 ROLE CONFORMITY	24.06	2.01	24.22	1.48	-0.24	1.83	0.55
34 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT	18.27	1.62	19.56	1.88	-0.49	0.74	1.34

STANDARD SCORES ON JAIM SCALES
MICHIGAN STATE DATA

JAIM SCALE		CONSULT N= 19	SUPERV N= 28	CSWKS N= 51	CMJREF N= 29	TPOONPR N= 70	TOTAL N= 197	F RATIO
01	OPTIMISM	-2	22	-4	-21	-17	-7	0.093
02	SELF CONFIDENCE	-1	52	9	-58	-57	-19	7.276
03	PERSEVERANCE	-26	-6	-27	72	34	12	6.885
04	ORDERLINESS	-37	-56	-58	67	32	-5	17.494
05	PLAN AHEAD	-38	20	-14	-40	-67	-34	4.669
06	MORAL ABSOLUTES	36	-41	-47	102	56	20	15.449
07	SLOW CHANGE	28	-2	-18	78	30	23	6.725
08	PERSUASIVE LEADERSHIP	-33	17	-12	17	13	3	1.492
09	SELF ASSERTIVENESS	-43	-11	-38	59	75	20	11.485
10	MOVE TOWARD AGGRESSOR	-1	34	15	9	-50	-7	5.296
11	MOVE AWAY FROM AGGRESSOR	10	-54	-25	-19	-8	-19	1.855
12	MOVE AGAINST AGGRESSOR	19	42	21	-18	10	14	1.219
13	PREFER ROUTINES	5	-50	-36	65	38	6	11.831
14	AUTHORITY IDENTIFICATION	29	-28	-25	-7	-30	-20	2.951
15	INDEPENDENCE	-11	56	35	-77	-27	-5	12.356
16	DIRECTIVE LEADERSHIP	-41	-47	-66	78	30	-5	15.155
17	PARTICIPATIVE LEADERSHIP	27	25	1	-37	-22	-6	2.844
18	DELEGATIVE LEADERSHIP	34	17	64	-18	-5	18	5.021
19	KNOWLEDGE OF RESULTS	-29	-7	21	-16	-42	-15	3.012
20	EXTERNAL CONTROLS	-61	-68	-29	44	80	11	19.099
21	SYSTEMATIC-METHODICAL	-85	-69	-54	-7	14	-28	7.696
22	PROBLEM ANALYSIS	-39	4	-23	-5	3	-8	1.465
23	SOCIAL INTERACTION	21	21	52	-34	-38	0	11.461
24	MECHANICAL ACTIVITIES	-21	-9	-36	77	88	34	20.489
25	SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES	2	13	-35	54	11	4	5.296
26	ACTIVITY-FREQUENT CHANGE	-10	4	-29	10	-3	-7	0.826
27	GROUP PARTICIPATION	56	27	47	51	23	37	0.876
28	STATUS ATTAINMENT	-71	-23	-53	-28	-19	-34	1.387
29	SOCIAL SERVICE	120	68	85	-6	-28	32	14.200
30	APPROVAL FROM OTHERS	-28	-1	16	-48	-58	-26	5.557
31	INTELLECTUAL ACHIEVEMENT	-52	34	-21	-54	-56	-34	6.419
32	MAINTAIN SOCIETAL STANDARDS	50	66	36	6	9	28	2.178
33	ROLE CONFORMITY	31	-31	-17	120	93	44	21.203
34	ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT	-51	-25	13	-91	-77	-46	7.948

SUPERVISORS

COMMAND OFFICER

CONSULTANTS

CASE WORKER

TROOPERS

JAIM SCALE COMPARISONS BETWEEN INDEPENDENT GROUPS
Commanding Officers *Troopers*
 4 CC 78 5 CC 76
 N= 29 N= 70

SCALE	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.	T-RATIO	F1	F2
01 OPTIMISM	21.69	3.47	21.80	3.17	-0.15	1.19	0.84
02 SELF CONFIDENCE	20.62	2.48	20.64	2.30	-0.04	1.16	0.86
03 PERSEVERANCE	23.24	2.60	22.10	3.11	1.74	0.70	1.43
04 ORDERLINESS *	22.07	1.98	21.06	2.33	2.05	0.72	1.38
05 PLAN AHEAD	21.03	1.74	20.56	1.62	1.30	1.16	0.87
06 MORAL ABSOLUTES *	24.03	1.72	22.90	2.24	2.43	0.58	1.72
07 SLOW CHANGE	22.14	1.09	21.54	1.46	1.97	0.56	1.79
08 PERSUASIVE LEADERSHIP	21.76	2.26	21.67	1.86	0.20	1.47	0.68
09 SELF ASSERTIVENESS	23.10	2.92	23.54	3.00	-0.67	0.95	1.06
10 MOVE TOWARD AGGRESSOR **	22.17	1.69	21.00	1.90	2.68	0.79	1.27
11 MOVE AWAY FROM AGGRESSOR	19.86	2.56	20.11	2.32	-0.48	1.22	0.82
12 MOVE AGAINST AGGRESSOR	19.93	2.28	20.51	2.24	-1.17	1.04	0.96
13 PREFER ROUTINES	21.28	3.18	20.40	2.61	1.42	1.49	0.67
14 AUTHORITY IDENTIFICATION	19.14	1.62	18.53	1.84	1.55	0.78	1.29
15 INDEPENDENCE **	20.03	2.78	21.61	2.64	-2.66	1.11	0.90
16 DIRECTIVE LEADERSHIP *	22.07	1.98	21.23	1.63	2.19	1.47	0.68
17 PARTICIPATIVE LEADERSHIP	21.14	1.79	21.39	1.68	-0.66	1.13	0.88
18 DELEGATIVE LEADERSHIP	20.55	0.95	20.73	1.20	-0.71	0.62	1.61
19 KNOWLEDGE OF RESULTS	19.86	2.13	19.21	2.21	1.34	0.94	1.07
20 EXTERNAL CONTROLS	22.38	3.30	23.51	3.28	-1.56	1.01	0.99
21 SYSTEMATIC-METHODICAL	21.21	2.43	21.80	2.61	-1.05	0.87	1.16
22 PROBLEM ANALYSIS	21.28	1.49	21.47	1.75	-0.53	0.72	1.39
23 SOCIAL INTERACTION	21.24	2.56	21.11	2.55	0.23	1.01	0.99
24 MECHANICAL ACTIVITIES	22.48	1.66	22.89	1.94	-0.89	0.73	1.36
25 SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES *	22.14	2.10	21.29	1.70	2.11	1.52	0.66
26 ACTIVITY-FREQUENT CHANGE	23.86	2.77	23.54	2.81	0.52	0.97	1.03
27 GROUP PARTICIPATION	20.72	2.34	20.07	2.32	1.27	1.02	0.98
28 STATUS ATTAINMENT	21.79	2.09	21.97	2.00	-0.40	1.10	0.91
29 SOCIAL SERVICE	22.79	1.76	22.34	1.73	1.17	1.04	0.96
30 APPROVAL FROM OTHERS	19.31	2.36	19.01	2.61	0.53	0.82	1.22
31 INTELLECTUAL ACHIEVEMENT	20.38	1.74	20.31	1.92	0.16	0.83	1.21
32 MAINTAIN SOCIETAL STANDARDS	20.45	1.45	20.49	1.40	-0.12	1.08	0.93
33 ROLE CONFORMITY	24.28	1.65	23.71	2.09	1.29	0.62	1.61
34 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT	19.34	1.54	18.57	1.71	-0.62	0.84	1.19

JAIN SCALE COMPARISONS BETWEEN INDEPENDENT GROUPS

Consultants
1 CC 76
N = 19

Case History
3 CC 76
N = 51

SCALE	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.	T-RATIO	F1	F2
01 OPTIMISM	22.25	1.97	22.20	2.96	0.09	0.44	2.26
02 SELF CONFIDENCE	21.74	1.97	21.94	1.89	-0.40	1.08	0.92
03 PERSEVERANCE	20.26	3.16	20.22	2.69	0.06	1.38	0.73
04 ORDERLINESS	19.05	2.07	18.45	2.85	0.84	0.53	1.90
05 PLAN AHEAD	21.05	2.04	21.47	1.81	-0.83	1.26	0.79
06 MORAL ABSOLUTES *	22.42	2.65	20.39	2.75	2.77	0.93	1.08
07 SLOW CHANGE	21.37	1.12	20.65	1.44	1.97	0.60	1.65
08 PERSUASIVE LEADERSHIP	20.68	2.21	21.14	2.14	-0.78	1.07	0.93
09 SELF ASSERTIVENESS	20.32	2.93	20.45	2.87	-0.17	1.04	0.96
10 MOVE TOWARD AGGRESSOR	21.95	2.37	22.27	2.05	-0.57	1.33	0.75
11 MOVE AWAY FROM AGGRESSOR	20.58	2.71	19.69	1.96	1.52	1.91	0.52
12 MOVE AGAINST AGGRESSOR	20.68	1.80	20.73	2.15	-0.07	0.70	1.44
13 PREFER ROUTINES	19.32	3.33	17.94	2.97	1.67	1.26	0.79
14 AUTHORITY IDENTIFICATION *	20.16	2.67	18.55	2.05	2.68	1.70	0.59
15 INDEPENDENCE	22.11	3.38	23.59	2.71	-1.90	1.55	0.64
16 DIRECTIVE LEADERSHIP	20.00	1.53	19.57	1.63	1.00	0.88	1.14
17 PARTICIPATIVE LEADERSHIP	22.21	1.27	21.78	1.45	1.13	0.77	1.29
18 DELEGATIVE LEADERSHIP	21.26	1.52	21.67	1.42	-1.04	1.14	0.88
19 KNOWLEDGE OF RESULTS	19.53	2.44	20.80	2.81	-1.75	0.75	1.33
20 EXTERNAL CONTROLS	19.11	2.05	20.12	3.50	-1.18	0.34	2.91
21 SYSTEMATICAL-METHODOICAL	19.16	2.54	19.98	2.42	-1.25	1.10	0.91
22 PROBLEM ANALYSIS	20.58	1.89	20.92	2.00	-0.65	0.90	1.11
23 SOCIAL INTERACTION	22.95	2.20	23.88	2.24	-1.56	0.96	1.04
24 MECHANICAL ACTIVITIES	20.63	1.71	20.35	1.31	0.73	1.70	0.59
25 SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES	21.11	1.29	20.35	1.61	1.83	0.64	1.57
26 ACTIVITY-FREQUENT CHANGE	23.37	2.73	22.90	2.39	0.70	1.31	0.76
27 GROUP PARTICIPATION	20.84	2.19	20.65	2.60	0.29	0.71	1.40
28 STATUS ATTAINMENT	21.00	2.00	21.33	2.20	-0.58	0.83	1.21
29 SOCIAL SERVICE	25.32	2.24	24.63	2.38	1.09	0.88	1.13
30 APPROVAL FROM OTHERS	19.84	2.46	21.06	2.55	-1.79	0.93	1.09
31 INTELLECTUAL ACHIEVEMENT	20.42	2.52	21.14	1.89	-1.29	1.81	0.55
32 MAINTAIN SOCIETAL STANDARDS	21.05	1.72	20.86	1.40	0.47	1.50	0.67
33 ROLE CONFORMITY *	22.47	2.20	21.49	1.41	2.22	2.44	0.41
34 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT *	19.00	1.94	20.09	1.60	-2.37	1.48	0.69

JAIM SCALE COMPARISONS BETWEEN INDEPENDENT GROUPS

Supervisors
N = 28

Any Others
N = 51

SCALE	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.	T-RATIO	F1	F2
01 OPTIMISM	23.04	2.95	27.20	2.96	1.21	0.99	1.01
02 SELF CONFIDENCE *	22.79	1.50	21.94	1.89	2.04	0.63	1.59
03 PERSEVERANCE	20.86	3.05	20.22	2.69	0.97	1.28	0.78
04 ORDERLINESS	18.50	2.30	18.45	2.85	0.08	0.65	1.54
05 PLAN AHEAD	22.07	1.36	21.47	1.81	1.53	0.56	1.78
06 MORAL ABSOLUTES	20.54	2.82	20.39	2.75	0.22	1.05	0.95
07 SLOW CHANGE	20.89	1.45	20.65	1.44	0.72	1.01	0.99
08 PERSUASIVE LEADERSHIP	21.75	1.92	21.14	2.14	1.26	0.81	1.24
09 SELF ASSERTIVENESS	21.18	2.94	20.45	2.87	1.07	1.06	0.95
10 MOVE TOWARD AGGRESSOR	22.64	1.81	22.27	2.05	0.80	0.78	1.28
11 MOVE AWAY FROM AGGRESSOR	18.96	2.03	18.69	1.96	-1.54	1.06	0.94
12 MOVE AGAINST AGGRESSOR	21.14	2.03	20.73	2.15	0.84	0.89	1.13
13 PREFER ROUTINES	17.50	2.40	17.94	2.97	-0.67	0.65	1.54
14 AUTHORITY IDENTIFICATION	18.57	2.25	18.55	2.05	0.04	1.20	0.83
15 INDEPENDENCE	24.25	2.56	23.59	2.71	1.06	0.89	1.12
16 DIRECTIVE LEADERSHIP	19.89	1.42	19.57	1.63	0.88	0.76	1.31
17 PARTICIPATIVE LEADERSHIP	22.18	1.25	21.78	1.45	1.21	0.75	1.34
18 DELEGATIVE LEADERSHIP	21.04	1.53	21.67	1.42	-1.84	1.15	0.87
19 KNOWLEDGE OF RESULTS	20.07	3.21	20.80	2.81	-1.05	1.31	0.77
20 EXTERNAL CONTROLS	18.89	2.13	20.12	3.50	-1.68	0.37	2.70
21 SYSTEMATIC-METHODICAL	19.57	2.71	19.98	2.42	-0.69	1.26	0.80
22 PROBLEM ANALYSIS	21.50	1.80	20.92	2.00	1.27	0.81	1.24
23 SOCIAL INTERACTION	22.93	2.67	23.88	2.24	-1.69	1.41	0.71
24 MECHANICAL ACTIVITIES	20.86	2.03	20.35	1.31	1.34	2.41	0.42
25 SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES *	21.32	1.79	20.35	1.61	2.46	1.23	0.81
26 ACTIVITY-FREQUENT CHANGE	23.71	2.35	22.90	2.39	1.45	0.97	1.03
27 GROUP PARTICIPATION	20.19	1.74	20.65	2.60	-0.85	0.45	2.22
28 STATUS ATTAINMENT	21.89	1.57	21.33	2.20	1.19	0.51	1.95
29 SOCIAL SERVICE	24.29	2.62	24.63	2.38	-0.59	1.21	0.83
30 APPROVAL FROM OTHERS	20.57	2.10	21.06	2.55	-0.86	0.68	1.48
31 INTELLECTUAL ACHIEVEMENT *	22.46	2.52	21.14	1.88	2.65	1.82	0.55
32 MAINTAIN SOCIETAL STANDARDS	21.29	1.36	20.86	1.40	1.30	0.94	1.06
33 RULE CONFORMITY	21.21	1.66	21.49	1.41	-0.78	1.40	0.71
34 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT	19.43	1.57	20.08	1.60	-1.74	0.97	1.03

JAIM SCALE COMPARISONS BETWEEN INDEPENDENT GROUPS
Consultants *Supervisors*
 1 CC 76 2 CC 76
 N= 19 N= 28

SCALE	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.	T-RATIO	F1	F2
01 OPTIMISM	22.26	1.97	23.04	2.95	-1.00	0.44	2.25
02 SELF CONFIDENCE *	21.74	1.57	22.79	1.50	-2.07	1.72	0.58
03 PERSEVERANCE	20.26	3.16	20.86	3.05	-0.65	1.07	0.93
04 ORDERLINESS	19.05	2.07	18.50	2.30	0.84	0.81	1.24
05 PLAN AHEAD *	21.05	2.04	22.07	1.36	-2.06	2.25	0.44
06 MORAL ABSOLUTES *	22.42	2.65	20.54	2.82	2.30	0.88	1.13
07 SLOW CHANGE	21.37	1.12	20.89	1.45	1.21	0.59	1.69
08 PERSUASIVE LEADERSHIP	20.68	2.21	21.75	1.92	-1.76	1.33	0.75
09 SELF ASSERTIVENESS	20.32	2.93	21.18	2.94	-0.99	0.99	1.01
10 MOVE TOWARD AGGRESSOR	21.95	2.37	22.64	1.81	-1.14	1.71	0.58
11 MOVE AWAY FROM AGGRESSOR *	20.58	2.71	18.96	2.03	2.33	1.79	0.56
12 MOVE AGAINST AGGRESSOR	20.68	1.80	21.14	2.03	-0.79	0.78	1.28
13 PREFER ROUTINES *	19.32	3.33	17.50	2.40	2.17	1.94	0.52
14 AUTHORITY IDENTIFICATION *	20.16	2.67	18.57	2.25	2.20	1.41	0.71
15 INDEPENDENCE *	22.11	3.38	24.25	2.56	-2.47	1.74	0.57
16 DIRECTIVE LEADERSHIP	20.00	1.53	19.89	1.42	0.25	1.15	0.87
17 PARTICIPATIVE LEADERSHIP	22.21	1.27	22.18	1.25	0.09	1.04	0.96
18 DELEGATIVE LEADERSHIP	21.26	1.52	21.04	1.53	0.50	0.99	1.01
19 KNOWLEDGE OF RESULTS	19.53	2.44	20.07	3.21	-0.63	0.58	1.74
20 EXTERNAL CONTROLS	19.11	2.05	18.89	2.13	0.34	0.93	1.08
21 SYSTEMATIC-METHODICAL	19.16	2.54	19.57	2.71	-0.53	0.88	1.14
22 PROBLEM ANALYSIS	20.58	1.89	21.50	1.80	-1.69	1.11	0.50
23 SOCIAL INTERACTION	22.95	2.20	22.93	2.67	0.03	0.68	1.47
24 MECHANICAL ACTIVITIES	20.63	1.71	20.86	2.03	-0.40	0.71	1.42
25 SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES	21.11	1.29	21.32	1.79	-0.45	0.52	1.93
26 ACTIVITY-FREQUENT CHANGE	23.37	2.73	23.71	2.35	-0.46	1.35	0.74
27 GROUP PARTICIPATION	20.84	2.19	20.18	1.74	1.15	1.58	0.63
28 STATUS ATTAINMENT	21.00	2.00	21.89	1.57	-1.71	1.62	0.62
29 SOCIAL SERVICE	25.32	2.24	24.29	2.62	1.40	0.73	1.37
30 APPROVAL FROM OTHERS	19.84	2.46	20.57	2.10	-1.09	1.37	0.73
31 INTELLECTUAL ACHIEVEMENT *	20.42	2.52	22.46	2.53	-2.72	0.99	1.01
32 MAINTAIN SOCIETAL STANDARDS	21.05	1.72	21.29	1.36	-0.52	1.60	0.63
33 ROLE CONFORMITY *	22.47	2.20	21.21	1.66	2.24	1.74	0.57
34 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT	19.00	1.94	19.43	1.57	-0.83	1.53	0.66



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