

**Emotionally Smart Makes You More Motivated:**

*Associations between Emotional Intelligence, Motivation, and  
Work Outcomes in Police Source Handlers*

**Karene Saad**

Thesis submitted to the  
Faculty of Graduate and Postdoctoral Studies  
In partial fulfillment of the requirements  
For the PhD degree in Psychology

School of Psychology  
Faculty of Social Sciences  
University of Ottawa

© Karene Saad, Ottawa, Canada, 2011

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This paper is dedicated to my parents, *Samir and Angele Saad*. Their unconditional love, words of wisdom, and strong emphasis on education and high achievement has guided me throughout my life and has served as the foundation of my academic and professional career.

I would like to extend my deepest gratitude to the following people:

*Dr. Isabelle Green-Demers*: for her expert guidance, unending support and encouragement throughout this journey. I feel very fortunate and honoured to have worked with such an extraordinary, esteemed, and graceful supervisor. I will forever be grateful for the mentorship she provided me personally and academically.

*Dr. Céline Blanchard, Dr. Stephane Bouchard, Dr. Alain Desrochers, and Dr. Mireille Joussemet*: for their valuable feedback and insightful contributions which have enriched this study.

*Dr. Catherine Bielajew, Mireille Côté, and members of the School of Psychology*: for their support and assistance throughout the course of my PhD studies.

*To the Police Officers*: for taking part in this study and for their timeless efforts in protecting citizens and our institutions.

*Dalene, Dorene, Marco, Billy, Joshua, Noah, and Ava*: for their constant regard, relentless support, and love throughout my life.

Finally, I would like to acknowledge the three loves of my life: my loving, encouraging, and patient husband *Greg* for his faithful support and enthusiasm over the years; and our son *Jacob* and daughter *Maya* who give me the vitality to continue looking towards the future. And last but not least, *Toby*, our little Yorkie, for never leaving my side during many hours of researching and writing.

## ABSTRACT

Emotional intelligence and self-determined motivation have been independently identified as important personal variables that are liable to foster optimal work functioning. However, the relationship between these two variables has never been assessed. Furthermore, research has also provided evidence that supervisor support, a social variable, is considered to be a significant source of influence on self-determined behaviour regulation. Thus the primary objective of the project was to jointly assess emotional intelligence and supervisor support as antecedents of self-determined work motivation; secondly, to assess the associations of self-determined work motivation on work outcome variables and psychological welfare; and thirdly, to examine the association between emotional intelligence and psychological well-being on 512 police source handlers. Specifically, it was proposed that emotional intelligence would be positively associated to self-determined work motivation and would display a unique association with work motivation, once the variance from supervisor support has been controlled for. It was further proposed that self-determined work motivation would, in turn, be positively associated with positive work outcomes; specifically, job satisfaction, job performance, future work intentions, and psychological well-being. Lastly, it was hypothesized that emotional intelligence would be positively associated to psychological well-being. Data was analyzed using structural equations modeling. Results revealed that emotional intelligence and supervisor support were both uniquely associated with work motivation. Together, these two variables explained a high proportion of the variance of work motivation. Work motivation, in turn, was positively associated with job satisfaction, job performance, future work intention, and psychological well-being. Emotional intelligence and psychological well-being were also positively associated. Overall, the findings of this thesis provide a basis for future research aimed at determining the causal relationship between emotional intelligence and self-determined motivation. It is further suggested that findings gleaned from this study can provide a better understanding of how certain interpersonal behaviours can impact specific work outcomes, which can provide researchers and practitioners with information to improve individual and organizational outcomes of interest.

*TABLE OF CONTENTS*

Acknowledgements.....	ii
Abstract.....	iii
List of Figures, Tables, & Appendix.....	vi
<b>CHAPTER ONE.....</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>Introduction.....</b>	<b>1</b>
Emotional Intelligence.....	4
<i>Emotional Intelligence as Conceptualized by Salovey and Mayer.....</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>Empirical Support.....</i>	<i>10</i>
Self-Determination Theory.....	13
<i>Intrinsic Motivation.....</i>	<i>13</i>
<i>Extrinsic Motivation.....</i>	<i>14</i>
<i>Amotivation.....</i>	<i>15</i>
<i>Empirical Support.....</i>	<i>16</i>
Work Outcome Variables.....	20
Cognitive Evaluation Theory.....	23
Integrating Social and Personal Antecedents of Work Motivation.....	26
<i>Emotional Intelligence and Self-Determined Motivation.....</i>	<i>27</i>
<i>Emotional Intelligence and Supervisor Support.....</i>	<i>27</i>
Controlling for Sensation Seeking.....	28
Goals and Hypotheses of the Present Thesis.....	28
<i>Hypothesis 1.....</i>	<i>29</i>
<i>Hypothesis 2.....</i>	<i>30</i>
<i>Hypothesis 3.....</i>	<i>30</i>
<b>CHAPTER TWO.....</b>	<b>32</b>
<b>Research Method.....</b>	<b>32</b>

Participants.....	32
Procedure.....	34
Measures.....	34
Description of Indicators/Items Used in Structural Equations Models.....	39
Analyses.....	42
<b>CHAPTER THREE.....</b>	<b>44</b>
<b>Results.....</b>	<b>44</b>
Preliminary Analysis.....	44
Descriptive Statistics.....	45
Correlations.....	46
Structural Equations Models.....	46
<b>CHAPTER FOUR.....</b>	<b>56</b>
<b>Discussion.....</b>	<b>56</b>
Hypothesis 1.....	56
Hypothesis 2.....	57
Hypothesis 3.....	57
Summary of Findings.....	57
Conceptual Contributions.....	59
Unexpected Findings.....	64
Comparing Groups 1 and 2 vs. Group 3.....	65
Limitations.....	67
Future Studies.....	69
Applied Implications.....	72
<b>Conclusion.....</b>	<b>74</b>
<b>References.....</b>	<b>75</b>

*LIST of FIGURES, TABLES, & APPENDIX*

<b>Figure 1.</b> Conceptualization of emotional intelligence according to Salovey and Mayer.....	7
<b>Figure 2.</b> Self-Determination Continuum.....	17
<b>Figure 3.</b> The Hypothesized Model.....	31
<b>Figure 4.</b> Model 1: Structural Equations Modeling Results for Groups 1 and 2.....	51
<b>Figure 5.</b> Model 2: Structural Equations Modeling Results for Group 3.....	53
<b>Table 1.</b> Characteristics of Participants.....	33
<b>Table 2.</b> Summary Statistics.....	47
<b>Table 3.</b> Correlation Matrix for Groups 1 and 2.....	48
<b>Table 4.</b> Correlation Matrix for Group 3.....	49
<b>Appendix A.</b> Questionnaire Package.....	102

## CHAPTER ONE

### Introduction

Since their existence, law enforcement organizations have been dependent on information and intelligence for the purposes of providing and maintaining public safety and security. These forms of communication are the lifeblood of operations that target the simplest of offences to the most complex (Billingsley, Nemitz, & Bean, 2001). Although there are many forms of gathering information and intelligence for police, (for example *open sources* such as internet, radio, and various publications, and *covert sources* such as electronic intercepts and imagery intelligence), human intelligence, also known as human sources, has been noted to be the most effective tool in law enforcement today [Federal Bureau of Investigations (FBI), 2005]. As stated by the current Director of the FBI, Robert S. Muller (FBI, 2005):

“Human sources are vitally important to our success against terrorists and criminals. They often give us critical intelligence and information we could not obtain in other ways, opening a window into our adversaries' plans and capabilities. Human sources can mean the difference between the FBI preventing an act of terrorism or crime, or reacting to an incident after the fact.”

Simply defined, a human source is an individual who provides information relating to crime, terrorism or espionage (Buckley, 2006). Not all human sources are the same. Within the Canadian law enforcement context human sources are further defined by two distinctive types: the informant and the agent. An informant is an individual, criminal or non-criminal, who provides information to police relating to crime. This type of human

source would generally not become a witness in a court of law or require protection [Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP), 2009]. On the other hand, an agent is a person, usually criminal, who takes direction from law enforcement investigators to assist in the development of a criminal operation. This type of human source may be used to introduce undercover police officers, act as a courier for control deliveries (i.e., act as a courier for the delivery of illicit substances), or obtain evidence in relation to the crime (RCMP, 2009).

In most cases, human sources are handled by police investigators, otherwise known as “handlers”. Handlers are trained to target, research, approach, recruit, and manage individuals who are believed to be capable of providing information about a criminal activity (RCMP, 2008).

Traditionally, the use of human sources and the relationship between human sources and handlers has been kept out of the public eye. However, over the past few decades the subject has garnered interest in the legal, sociological and psychological fields. The small existing body of research on this topic examined motivational factors of human sources (Billingsley, 2001; Dunnighan, 1992; Reese, 1980), differences in human sources (Greer, 1995), the relationship between human sources and handlers (Billingsley, 2001), and the management of human sources (i.e., techniques provided to the handler for recruiting/handling human sources; Buckley, 2006; Morris, 1983).

Although, to our knowledge, no research exists on the police handler, a small amount of research does exist on undercover police officers. Through these studies we have indirect information on handlers. For example, research has examined health and psychological difficulties of the undercover officer (e.g., Girodo, 1984; 1991a; 1991b;

Marx, 1988), and social, ethical, and legal dilemmas of undercover operations (e.g., Bernstein, 1990; Girodo, 1991a; Marx, 1988). These previous studies provide examples of the strain, pressures, and difficulties undercover police officers often face when working in a secretive role. Similarly, police source handlers may face these comparable conditions when working within their reserved settings.

Although human sources are the key to obtaining information and intelligence for law enforcement, police source handlers are responsible for recruiting and developing human sources and extracting information. Police handlers have a specialized and unique role within the law enforcement field. They are required to interact and manage a human source, who is most likely a criminal, on a day-to-day basis. This type of interaction requires special skills and the ability to adapt to unusual demands. Yet, there is a dearth of information on the personal factors that are liable to foster optimal work functioning in handlers. The main goal of the present thesis is thus to address this lacuna by providing an initial exploration of the determinants of positive work outcomes in police handlers. It can be surmised that handling human sources requires the aptitude to read and manage other people's emotions skillfully, while self-regulating one's own emotions effectively. Also, because of the challenges and difficulties involved in handling, it is likely to call for a high degree of motivation self-regulation. It is therefore proposed here that emotional intelligence and self-determined work motivation are key personal variables for police source handlers. The upcoming sections review the extant scientific literature on emotional intelligence, work motivation, and work outcome variables studied herein. The detailed goals and hypotheses of the present project are summarized thereafter.

## Emotional Intelligence

The work of police source handlers represents both a highly stressful and unique set of activities. The need to balance contradictory roles while maintaining a high degree of interpersonal sensitivity is a key trait for police handlers. It can therefore be suggested that the unique nature of the job requires a look at emotional strengths.

In the last two decades, the concept of emotional intelligence exploded largely due to the 1995 bestseller publication *Emotional Intelligence* by Daniel Goleman. Since then, there has been significant development in the theoretical and empirical emotional intelligence literature. However, contrary to media belief, emotional intelligence and related concepts are not new.

Cognitive intelligence research dates back to the early 1900's when Charles Spearman described a concept he referred to as general intelligence. Spearman (1904) believed that intelligent behavior is generated by a single unitary quality within the human mind or brain, thereby emphasizing cognitive ability. However, unlike Spearman and other advocates of general intelligence, E.L Thorndike (1920) believed in a non-cognitive aspect of intelligence, called social intelligence. In his view, social intelligence is a person's ability to understand and manage other people and to engage in adaptive social interactions (Kihlstrom & Cantor, 2000). From there, the study of intelligence focused mainly on social cognitive elements (e.g., Kelly, 1955; Piaget, 1972; Mischel, 1968; 1973).

Interest in alternative forms of intelligence was rekindled in 1983 when Gardner introduced his theory of multiple intelligences. Gardner proposed that there are seven different kinds of intelligence, each hypothetically dissociable from the others and each

hypothetically associated with a different brain system. The seven intelligences include: linguistic intelligence, logical-mathematical intelligence, musical intelligence, bodily-kinesthetic intelligence, spatial intelligence, interpersonal intelligence and intrapersonal intelligence. The latter two types of intelligences Gardner referred to as personal intelligences are of particular interest. Intrapersonal intelligence is defined as a person's ability to understand their own emotions, goals, and motivations. Interpersonal intelligence is referred to as a person's ability to understand the intentions, motivations, and desires of other people (Gardner, 1983).

In 1990, inspired by Gardner's conceptualization of personal intelligences, Salovey and Mayer (1990; Salovey, Hsee, & Mayer, 1993) introduced the first emotional intelligence theory to have a significant impact on scientific literature. Although the term emotional intelligence had been previously used by various authors (e.g., Greenspan, 1989; Leuner, 1966; Payne, 1986), it was not until Salovey and Mayer developed their multidimensional theory that emotional intelligence became a prolific research topic (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000a).

### **Emotional Intelligence as Conceptualized by Salovey and Mayer (1990)**

Defined as a subset of social intelligences and Gardner's personal intelligences; emotional intelligence "involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p.189). Salovey and Mayer (1990; Salovey et al., 1993) put forth a model consisting of three categories of affective abilities: appraisal and

expression of emotion, regulation of emotion, and utilization of emotion. These three categories are depicted in Figure 1.

**Appraisal and expression of emotion.** The first category, appraisal and expression of emotion, is divided into self and other. Self is further divided into verbal and non-verbal. In essence, this component emphasizes the need to identify and understand one's own feelings and to communicate those feelings through verbal expressions and non-verbal cues, such as facial expressions and body language. Other is divided into non-verbal perception and empathy. This component focuses on the ability to recognize and understand others' emotions through non-verbal perception such as facial expressions and body language. In addition, empathy represents one's ability to understand others' emotions and experiences and to relate to them (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Salovey et al., 1993).

**Regulation of emotion.** The second category, regulation of emotion, is divided into regulation of emotion in self and regulation of emotion in other. The regulation of emotion of self specifically focuses on the ability to monitor, evaluate and regulate (or change) one's mood. It thus entails using internal or external stimuli, as well as various self-management strategies, to alter one's emotional state in a desired direction. Regulation of emotion in others involves the ability to change the feelings of others. It is believed that some individuals are skilled in creating emotions in others to serve their own purposes or to make others feel good (Salovey et al., 1993).

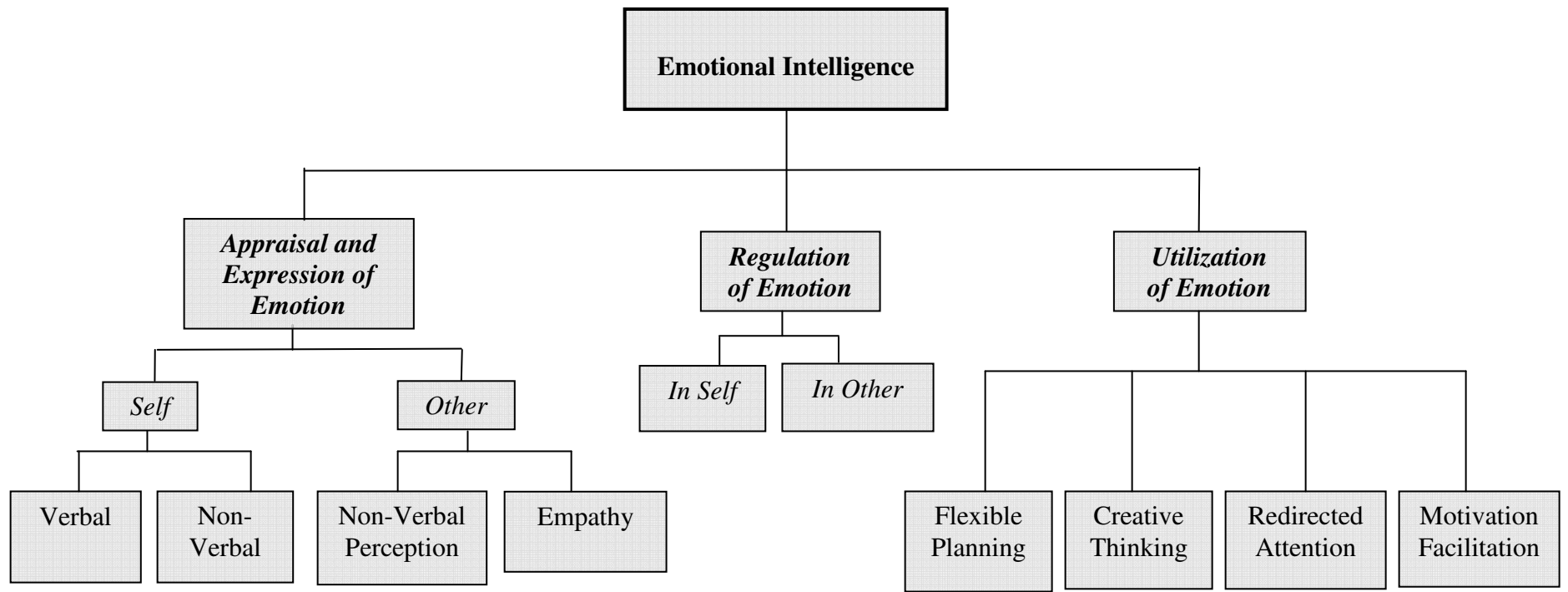


Figure 1. Conceptualization of emotional intelligence according to Salovey and Mayer. Adapted from “Emotional Intelligence,” by P. Salovey and J. Mayer, 1990, *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, 9, p.191. Copyright 1990 by Baywood Publishing Co., Inc.

**Utilization of emotion.** The third category, known as utilization of emotion, depicts the use of moods and emotions in problem solving. This category is divided into four components: flexible planning, creative thinking, redirected attention, and motivation facilitation. The focal point of this dimension consists of the use of internal emotional experiences to solve problems. For instance, individuals who are flexible and creative are likely to integrate their feelings into the problem solving process thereby leading to behaviours that are motivating and productive (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Salovey et al., 1993).

**Further conceptual developments.** After further review, in 1997 and 2000, Mayer and Salovey revised their model by including a fourth category and refining their definition of emotional intelligence through a mental ability approach. According to this revised formulation, emotional intelligence involves the ability to evaluate and express emotions, to access and generate emotions to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to regulate emotions to encourage emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000b). Mayer and Salovey also proposed a new model of emotional intelligence that comprises four dimensions: perceiving emotions, facilitating thought, understanding emotions, and regulating/managing emotions.

Concisely, the first dimension, *perception, appraisal, and expression of emotion*, consists of the ability to accurately perceive emotions in oneself and others, as well as in objects, arts, stories, music, and other stimuli. The second dimension, *emotional facilitation of thinking*, is the ability to generate, use, and feel emotion as necessary to communicate feelings or guide the cognitive system and promote thinking. The third

dimension, *understanding emotions*, is related to the ability to decipher emotional information, to understand how emotions combine and progress through relationship transitions, and to appreciate emotional meanings in daily interactions. The fourth dimension, *emotional regulation*, refers to the ability to stay open to feelings, in order to monitor and regulate them in oneself and others, thereby promoting understanding and personal growth.

These four dimensions are based on a hierarchy such that perceiving emotions is the most basic level and managing emotions is at the highest and most complex level therefore the ability to regulate one's and others' emotions is built on the basis of the competencies of the other three dimensions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). According to Mayer and Salovey (1997), the revised model conceptualizes emotional intelligence in terms of emotional and intellectual growth.

However, it can be argued that the four dimensions of Mayer and Salovey's (1997) revised model comprise the same concepts as the original model. In fact, dimensions two and three of the revised model is a split of category three of the original model. Even though the revised model is conceptually more sophisticated, the initial model is more parsimonious. Moreover, the empirical support for both models is largely equivalent. For instance, satisfactory factor models comprised of three and four factor solutions were reported in the literature (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002; Schutte et al., 1998). Thereafter, because both models possess appealing qualities and share important similarities, they are both of contemporary scientific interest and are often used interchangeably in emotional intelligence research. In the current study, for pragmatic reasons (i.e., the availability of a free measurement instrument), the initial model by

Salovey and Mayer (1990; Salovey et al., 1993) was retained as the main conceptual framework for emotional intelligence.

Since the initial development of Salovey and Mayer's 1990 model, other models of emotional intelligence have been developed and other theoretical approaches have emerged (e.g., mixed models of emotional intelligence developed by Goleman, 1995; and trait based models of emotional intelligence introduced by Bar-On, 1997). However, Salovey and Mayer's (1990) original model and Mayer and Salovey's (1997) revised model have generated the largest number of searches and are considered to be a genuine approach to the study of emotional intelligence (Geher, 2004). Specifically, it has been stated that Salovey and Mayer's conceptual frameworks "are the most cohesive and comprehensive models of emotional intelligence" (Schutte et al., 1998, p.169).

### **Empirical Support**

As in the case of research on traditional cognitive intelligence, the development of measurement instruments is a central component of emotional intelligence research. To date, many such measures have been created and validated [e.g., Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQi; Bar-On, 1997); Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI; Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000); Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT; Mayer et al., 2002); and Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS; Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999)]. The Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) [also known as Schutte Self-Report Inventory (SSRI), the Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT), and Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT)], developed by

Schutte et al. (1998), has also recently become a very popular measure of emotional intelligence.

In addition to the documentation on instrument development, there is a substantial amount of fundamental and applied research that pertains to emotional intelligence in many domains, including education (e.g., Jaeger, 2003; Petrides, Frederickson, & Furnham, 2004), sports (e.g., Jones, 2003; Meyer & Fletcher, 2007), health (e.g., Extremera & Fernandez-Berrocal, 2002; Riley & Schutte, 2003), and business management (e.g., Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2004; Momeni, 2009).

Furthermore, emotional intelligence has been studied within the industrial/organizational domain (e.g., Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005; Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004) and has been associated to psychological well-being. Specifically, theory suggests that individuals who are high in emotional intelligence are likely to experience a higher level of psychological well-being because they are able to maintain positive mental states due to their ability to effectively manage (by recognizing, understanding, generating, regulating and promoting) their emotions (Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Salovey and Mayer, 1990). Studies provide evidence to support this proposition. Schutte and colleagues (2002) found that higher emotional intelligence was characteristically related to positive moods and higher self-esteem in sales employees. Petrides and Furnham (2006) found that trait emotional intelligence had a positive effect on perceived job control among employed adults; they also noted that emotionally intelligent men felt a lower level of job stress. Carmeli, Yitzhak-Halevy and Weisberg (2007) found a positive association between emotional intelligence and psychological

well-being components (specifically, self-esteem, life satisfaction, and self-acceptance) amongst 300 employees from five various organizational settings.

Although numerous empirical studies on emotional intelligence exist in a number of industrial/organizational settings, very little exists within the law enforcement field. In fact, only a handful of studies have assessed police officers' emotional intelligence. For example, Aremu and Tejumola (2008) assessed the emotional intelligence of Nigerian Police Officers. Results showed that emotional intelligence in police officers could not be determined by gender, age, job status or marital status; and neither could it be influenced by work experience. Aremu (2005) examined the association between emotional intelligence and career commitment in young police officers in Nigeria and found that emotional intelligence could influence career commitment. Donna (2003) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout among police officers from the Northeastern United States. Results showed an inverse relationship and provided implications for selection and training. Bellamy and Bellamy (2003) reported significant correlations between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership qualities among police officers and proposed that the orientation of police administrators is salient to leadership processes.

To summarize, emotional intelligence is a key component of functioning within many domains and only a few preliminary studies have examined emotional intelligence in police officers. However, the emotional intelligence of police source handlers has never been examined. Therefore, this variable will constitute one of the main foci of the present study. Police source handlers face unique and unusual challenges; they therefore must learn to monitor their own and others' emotions and feelings, and to use this knowledge to

guide their thinking and actions. Likewise, motivation is believed to be another critical attribute which has been empirically examined in many domains and, in turn, may also be useful when examining police source handlers.

### **Self-Determination Theory**

Self-determination theory (SDT) is one of the most elaborated and well-researched theories of motivation. It postulates that motivation reflects an intention to act and is built on a continuum of six classes of motivation regulation (Deci & Ryan, 1985; 2002; 2008). Specifically, each class defines the degree to which intentions are initiated and regulated based on the relative strength of autonomous versus controlled motivation; thereby having a measurable impact on behavioural and cognitive characteristics. This impact is specifically defined through the importance of intentions from the most to least self-determined behaviour through the following six classes: intrinsic motivation; four forms of extrinsic motivation (i.e., integrated regulation, identified regulation, introjected regulation, external regulation); and amotivation. Figure 2 shows a graphic representation of the various types of regulation and its corresponding motivation along the self-determination continuum proposed by Deci and Ryan (1985; 2002; 2008).

#### **Intrinsic Motivation**

Intrinsic motivation refers to behaviours that are performed out of pure enjoyment and/or interest (Deci & Ryan, 1985; 2002; 2008). Individuals engage in an activity for the pleasure and inherent gratification in the activity; thus, no rewards, promises, or punishments are necessary. Intrinsically motivated behaviour has a perceived internal

locus of causality. For example, a police officer who enjoys the thrill and challenge of interacting with human sources.

### **Extrinsic Motivation**

Extrinsic motivation refers to behaviours that are usually instrumental and that are performed to obtain positive outcomes or to avoid negative consequences. However, according to SDT, extrinsically motivated behaviours can vary in autonomy, depending on the perceived source of regulation. Specifically, Deci and Ryan (1985; 2002; 2008) identified four forms of extrinsic motivation: external, introjected, identified, and integrated.

*External regulation* refers to behaviour that occurs to satisfy an external demand or reward contingency; it represents a simple operant conditioning response. It is the least autonomous form of extrinsic motivation and has a completely external perceived locus of control. Because this behaviour depends on external contingencies it would not be expected to occur until direct external controls are in effect. For example, a police officer who will only complete his/her paperwork when his/her supervisor is in the area potentially watching over him/her.

*Introjected regulation* refers to a behaviour that is socially acceptable and that is performed to avoid negative self-conscious emotions (e.g., guilt and shame) or to attain feelings of contingent self-worth. It represents a partial internalization of pressure and control from external social demands. In other words, although the behaviour is considered to be internal to the person (in the sense that the behaviour no longer requires overtly external prompts), the regulatory process motivating it is still external to the self.

For example, a police officer who takes a required intelligence course so he/she will not feel guilty and fall short of his own standards.

*Identified regulation* refers to the acceptance of behaviour as personally important and valued. More specifically, when an individual identifies with behaviour and its consequences, he/she regards it as his/her own and performs it with a sense of freedom and autonomy. For example, when a police officer takes courses to become a specialized police source handler because he/she feels the activity of handling sources is meaningful and important to police investigations.

Finally, *integrated regulation* refers to a behaviour that is an integral part of the self and that is harmoniously enmeshed within one's goals and values system. However, although integrated regulation behaviours are volitionally performed, they are still considered to be extrinsically motivated (rather than intrinsically motivated) because they are completed to achieve personal goals, rather than for enjoyment or inherent interest. For example, a police source handler who views himself/herself as an agent of the law and therefore believes recruiting human sources to obtain information on crimes is the right thing to do to ensure the safety and security of citizens.

### **Amotivation**

Amotivation refers to the lack of action or intention to act (due to either internal or external forces). That is, individuals are amotivated when they believe they are unable to achieve a desired outcome due to feelings of incompetence, lack of contingency, and/or lack of value in the activity. Amotivated behaviour may include actions of procrastination which are conducted purposefully. For example, a police source handler who will not

recruit or manage sources anymore and may be heard saying “I can’t see the point in obtaining sources anymore”.

To summarize, according to SDT (Deci & Ryan, 1985; 2002; 2008), motivation can be autonomous or controlled. *Autonomous motivation* involves behaving with a full sense of choice; that is, autonomous actions are self-initiated and intrinsically motivated, thereby indicating that the behaviour is undertaken because the activity is interesting or of high personal relevance. On the other hand, *controlled motivation* involves acting with a sense of pressure and demand to engage in activities perceived to be external to the self. Intrinsic motivation, as well as extrinsic motivation by integrated and identified regulation, are autonomous in nature because the person acts freely and proactively. By contrast, extrinsic motivation by introjected and external regulation, as well as amotivation, are controlled because the person is passive and behaviour is coerced by personal or social pressure.

### **Empirical Support**

SDT is one of the most thoroughly researched and elaborated theories on the needs and motives of human beings (Deci & Ryan, 2008); and as such has been validated and studied in various domains, including sports (e.g., Fortier, Sweet, O’Sullivan, & Williams, 2007; Wilson, Mack, & Grattan, 2008), education (e.g., Guay, Ratelle, & Chanal, 2008; Jang, 2008; Roth, Assor, Kanat-Maymon, & Kaplan, 2007), leisure (e.g., Pelletier, Vallerand, Green-Demers, Blais, & Briere, 1996), ecological behaviours (Pelletier & Sharp, 2008; Pelletier, Tuson, Green-Demers, Noels, & Beaton, 1998), health (e.g., Kennedy, Gogin, & Nollen, 2004; Miquelon & Vallerand, 2008); and close

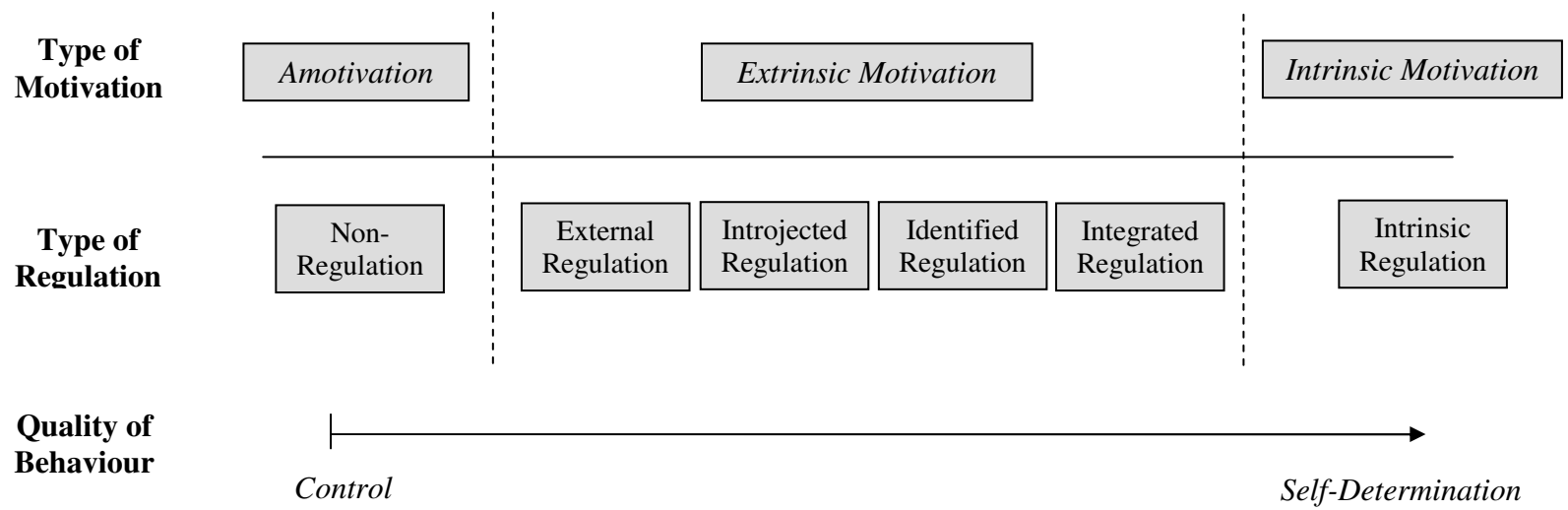


Figure 2. According to SDT, the types of motivation and regulation along the continuum of self-determination. Adapted from *Handbook of Self-Determination Research*, by Deci, E., and Ryan, R., 2002, Rochester, NY:University of Rochester Press.

relationships/parenting (e.g., Joussemet, Landry, & Koestner, 2008; La Guardia & Patrick, 2008).

Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; 2002; 2008) has also proved to be relevant to the work domain. That is, the different types and subtypes of the motivational taxonomy proposed by Deci and Ryan (1985; 2002; 2008) were successfully identified and validated using samples from organizational settings (Blais, Brière, Lachance, Riddle, & Vallerand, 1993; Tremblay, Blanchard, Taylor, & Pelletier, 2009). Moreover the motives described by self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; 2002; 2008) have also been tied to a variety of key work issues through theoretically meaningful constellations of associations (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004; Levesque, Blais, & Hess, 2004a; Levesque, Blais, & Hess, 2004b).

**Consequences of self-determination.** Furthermore, within the SDT literature, self-determination has been shown to positively covary with other various behavioural and psychological consequences. That is, because motivations are built on a continuum from non-self determined to self-determined, it is expected that high levels of self-determined motivation will yield positive consequences; on the contrary low levels of self-determined motivation will yield negative consequences. This pattern of outcomes has been validated and reported in various studies within many domains.

In the educational domain, self-determination has been positively related with academic competence, use of optimal learning strategies (Yamauchi, Kumagai, & Kawasaki, 1999), positive emotion, performance, concentration, and satisfaction with school (Vallerand et al., 1993; Vallerand, Fortier, & Guay, 1997), and importantly, with higher school grades (Black & Deci, 2000; Vansteenkiste, Simons, Lens, Sheldon, &

Deci, 2004). On the contrary, low self-determination predicted school dropout (Vallerand, et al., 1997). Within the health domain, self-determination has been shown to predict positive outcomes in diabetes management (Hill & Sibthorp, 2006), oral hygiene (Halvari & Halvari, 2006), smoking cessation (Williams et al., 2006), and increased physical activity (Thogerson-Ntoumani & Ntoumanis, 2006; Wilson, Blanchard, Nehl, & Baker, 2006). In addition, self-determination has been shown to obtain more control over prejudice (Legault, Green-Demers, Grant, & Chung, 2007), predict ecological behaviours within the environmental domain (Green-Demers, Pelletier, & Menard, 1997), promote positive psychological well-being within the leisure domain (Pelletier, Vallerand, Green-Demers, Blais, & Brière, 1995; Pelletier et al., 1996), and support positive sexual arousal and satisfaction within the intimacy domain (Boislard-Pepin, Green-Demers, Pelletier, Chartrand, & Seguin-Levesque, 2002).

Within the work domain, high levels of self-determination were positively associated with quality of life, work satisfaction, job performance, organizational change, job persistence, and positive psychological adjustment; while low levels of self-determination were negatively associated with emotional exhaustion, burnout, feelings of helplessness, lack of self-efficacy and physical and psychological problems (e.g., Baard et al., 2004; Blais et al., 1993; Bono & Judge, 2004; Deci & et al., 2001; Gagné & Deci, 2005; Gagné & Forest, 2008; Gagné, Koestner, & Zuckerman, 2000; Richer, Blanchard, & Vallerand, 2002). A single study, completed by Otis and Pelletier (2005), examined the consequences of self-determination in 122 police officers and found high levels of self-determined work motivation to be associated with low intention to quit one's job and lower levels of reported daily hassles.

Globally, these studies have provided much empirical support to the levels of self-determination and various consequences. More importantly, self-determination and its consequences have been identified as an important variable to assess within the work domain and likewise an important variable to assess in police officers. However, very little research exists on work outcome variables as consequences of self-determination in police officers. Hence, the present study will aim to identify self-determination with some key organizational constructs. The following section provides a brief overview of work outcome variables that are examined in the present study.

### **Work Outcome Variables**

**Job satisfaction.** Job satisfaction is one of the most widely researched constructs in industrial/organizational psychology (Spector, 1997). The antecedents and consequences of satisfied employees are of great interest to researchers and practitioners; and thus job satisfaction has become a common factor in organizations where management is concerned with the well-being of their employees. Job satisfaction has been researched within many professional domains and has been linked to many organizational factors such as employee absenteeism, life satisfaction, turnover, productivity and stress (Brief, 1998; Brown & Peterson, 1994; Judge & Bono, 2001; Judge & Locke, 1993; Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001; Spector, 1997).

**Job performance.** Likewise, job performance is also a thoroughly researched variable within the industrial/organizational domain and remains a primary concern for organizational behaviour researchers. In fact, it has been implied that improving job performance is one of the key components of organizational research (Arvey & Murphy,

1998; Viswesvaran, 2002). Job performance has been shown to relate to an organization's effectiveness, income, and survival (Johnson, 2003; Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997).

**Future work intentions.** Future work intention (also known as turnover intention or intention to quit one's job) can be conceptualized as the precursor to the act of leaving a job. This construct has been cited as the paramount predictor of employee turnover (Maertz & Campion, 1998; Mor Barak, Nissley, & Levin, 2001). In a meta-analysis evaluating intention to quit and turnover it was found that these variables have many of the same antecedents (Mor Barak et al., 2001).

Job satisfaction, job performance, and future work intentions constitute motivational consequences that are focused on the workplace. Different variables that are germane to employee well-being have also been included herein, with the intention of complementing job centered factors with outcomes in which the focal point of concern is the welfare of employees.

**Psychological well-being.** Within the present study, psychological well-being has been defined by four variables: burnout, locus of control, life satisfaction, and positive and negative affect. These four variables are widely used constructs within the industrial/organizational domain and have been identified as important variables to assess as part of psychological well-being.

***Burnout*** is a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that occurs among individuals within the workforce (Maslach, et al., 2001). As an individual's emotional resources are depleted, workers feel they are no longer able to give of themselves at a psychological level. The consequences of burnout can be potentially damaging to the

individual experiencing them and the organization which they belong to. Burnout has been revealed to be a factor in job turnover, absenteeism, and low morale (Low, Cravens, Grant, & Moncrief, 2001; Maslach, et al., 2001; Sand & Miyazaki, 2000). Furthermore, burnout has been correlated with various self-reported indices of personal distress, including physical exhaustion, insomnia, increased use of alcohol and drugs, and marital and family problems (De Dreu, Dierendonck, & Dijkstra, 2004; Maslach, et al., 2001).

*Locus of control* refers to a person's belief that events in his/her life are either guided by his/her personal decisions/actions or by forces outside of his/her control (Marsh & Richards, 1986). Specifically, the locus of control construct is based on the presumption that a cognitive continuum exists whereby some individuals have a strong belief in personal control of their own destiny (i.e. internal locus of control) while others tend to have greater belief in the power of luck or fate in impacting the events that shape their lives (Rotter, 1966).

*Positive and negative affect* identifies an individual's disposition that is thought to influence a range of human behaviour and cognition (Schwarz, 1998). The affect humans experience appears to reflect two mutually exclusive dimensions (Zevon & Tellegen, 1982). *Positive affect* reflects the extent to which a person feels enthusiastic and alert. A high positive affect is a state of pleasurable engagement, high energy, and complete concentration (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Conversely, *negative affect* reflects distress and unpleasant engagement and subsumes a variety of aversive moods including disgust, anger, fear, guilt, and nervousness (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988).

And finally, *Life satisfaction* represents how satisfied people feel with their life in general. Specifically, it is a cognitive assessment of one's content or pleasure with his/her

general life situation (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985). The importance of the cognitive evaluation of life is well recognized. Studies have found that people generate different perceptions, expectations, and self-understanding under similar affective conditions (Lucas, Diener, & Suh, 1996).

The above noted work outcome variables have been identified as key constructs within the work domain and thus important variables to assess as consequences of self-determination. However, in order to obtain a thorough understanding of motivation within the work domain, it is also important to assess antecedents of self-determination. Thus, the following section provides an overview of how motivation may be optimized through social influences.

### **Cognitive Evaluation Theory**

SDT postulates that self-motivation evolves from how well a person's psychological needs are met (Deci & Ryan, 1985; 2002; 2008). According to Deci and Ryan (2000; 2002; 2008) fulfillment of basic psychological needs is thought to facilitate and promote the development of self-determined motivation; thus allowing for greater well-being, self-actualization, and optimal functioning. Conversely, when basic psychological needs are thwarted, feelings of self-determination decreases and negative consequences arise.

Cognitive evaluation theory, first formulated by Deci (1975) and subsequently extended by Deci and Ryan (1985; 2002), identifies the mechanisms that influence the development and evolution of basic psychological needs in order to attain self-determination. A key component of cognitive evaluation theory provides a means of

understanding how various social forces and interpersonal environments affect motivation by focusing primarily on the satisfaction of three basic needs: autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2002; 2008).

**Autonomy** refers to the need of the self to experience and express behaviours and thoughts as freely chosen and as the source of one's own actions. In other words, a person needs to feel a sense of personal freedom in their choices and actions, ultimately leading to a sense of self-determination. For example, on the one hand, events that promote an internal locus of causality whereby behaviour is deemed as that of one's freedom will facilitate autonomy and ultimately self-determined motivation. On the other hand, events that promote an external locus of causality whereby behaviour is deemed as controlled and initiated by others will undermine self-determined motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2002; 2008).

**Competence** reflects the need of a person to feel effective, capable, and competent within the social environment. Therefore, situations which boost one's level of competence and effectiveness will enhance self-determined motivation; conversely situations which challenge or dispute one's competence will diminish the sense of competence and eventually decrease self-determination (Deci & Ryan, 2002; 2008).

**Relatedness** refers to the degree to which a person feels connected to those around them and feels a sense of belonging. Similar to autonomy and competence, situations or events that diminish feelings of relatedness will invariably diminish levels of self-determination; on the contrary situations or events that increase feelings of relatedness will advance the development of self-determination (Deci & Ryan, 2002; 2008).

These three basic psychological needs and their noted trends have been studied and researched within a number of social factors such as, rewards, feedback, evaluation, competition and deadlines (see Deci & Ryan, 2000). Furthermore, interpersonal relationships have also been found to affect the psychological needs of individuals. For example, within parenting and child relationships, providing children with comfort, love, and support encouraged children of their own competence and autonomy thereby allowing children to become more self-determined and self-fulfilled (Assor, Roth, & Deci, 2004; Deci & Ryan, 1985; La Guardia, 2009). Within the academic domain, teacher's support for autonomy, competence, and relatedness has been linked with student's greater interest in class activities, better academic coping, greater autonomy for academics, and more engagement in academic pursuits (Chen, 2005; Ryan, Stiller, & Lynch, 1994; Wentzel, 1998).

Within the work domain, research has supported the positive effects of supervisor support. For instance, Baard, Deci, and Ryan (2004) examined the autonomy support of managers and showed that it was positively associated with employees' feelings of autonomy, competence, and relatedness; which, in turn, related to better work performance and better work adjustment. In another work context, Gagné, Senécal, and Koestner (1997) researched the effects of positive feedback from supervisors and colleagues. Results showed supervisor support significantly predicted more self-determined motivation regulation. Other studies have examined how managers' support has led to increased job satisfaction, job performance, organizational change, and positive psychological adjustment (Bono & Judge, 2004; Deci & et al., 2001; Gagné & Deci, 2005; Gagné, Koestner, & Zuckerman, 2000).

Specifically, within the law enforcement field, only one previously noted study examined the social antecedents of work motivation in police officers. In this study completed by Otis and Pelletier (2005), using a sample of 122 police officers, results showed that those who perceived their immediate supervisor as highly supportive of their autonomy reported higher levels of self-determined work motivation.

Although the above noted study examined the self-determination of police officers, no other empirical research was found to do the same. Self-determination, and likewise the support for the three basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness are surmised as important variables to assess within the work domain and similarly important variables to assess in police officers. The following section details how these variables amongst others previously documented are examined within the present study.

### **Integrating Social and Personal Antecedents of Work Motivation**

The main conceptual contribution of the present project is the concurrent examination of supervisor support, as defined by cognitive evaluation theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; 2002; 2008), and emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Salovey et al., 2000), as antecedents of self-determined motivation. This assertion regarding the originality of the fundamental implications of this thesis raises two key questions. First, from a conceptual view point, why is it logical to propose that emotional intelligence is an antecedent of self-determined motivation? Second, why is it useful to study emotional intelligence (a personal variable) and supervisor support (a social factor) jointly?

## **Emotional Intelligence and Self-Determined Motivation**

### **Why is emotional intelligence liable to foster self-determined motivation?**

Salovey and Mayer (1990; Salovey et al., 1993) suggested that emotional intelligence facilitates motivation because it allows for an optimal use of emotions as a source of motivation. It is further proposed here that emotional intelligence is a plausible antecedent of self-determined motivation because it is helpful in managing the negative emotions generated by extrinsic activities, and in making the best of positive emotions experienced during intrinsic activities. Results from isolated studies (Green-Demers, 2005; Tadros & Green-Demers, 2010) offer preliminary support for this novel idea.

## **Emotional Intelligence and Supervisor Support**

### **Why is it useful to study emotional intelligence and supervisor support**

**jointly?** Interpersonal behaviours, such as supervisor support, have been extensively studied, and are considered to be the main source of influence on self-determined behaviour regulation. A quick search on this topic conducted using the PsychArticles database yielded 1,962 results. By comparison, very little is known about the role played by personal variables in the development and maintenance of self-determined motivation. It has been noted that this imbalance on the available knowledge pertaining to interpersonal and intrapersonal processes associated with autonomous motivation is paradoxical (Green-Demers, 1997). We know a great deal about the social factors associated with self-determination; however, we know very little about the means by which people themselves contribute to the autonomous regulation of their behaviour. One of the important aims of this project was thus to assess the joint impact of supervisor

support and emotional intelligence on self-determined motivation, to ascertain their respective and unique contribution in this regard.

### **Controlling for Sensation Seeking:**

#### **Extracting the Influence of a Potential Confounding Factor**

Sensation seeking describes generalized traits that include a diversity of risk-taking and sensation-seeking behaviors, as well as the expressed intolerance of boredom. More specifically, sensation seeking, as defined by Zuckerman, is "the need for varied, novel, and complex sensations and experiences and the willingness to take physical and social risks for the sake of such experiences" (1979, p. 10). A great deal of research has been conducted on this variable and it has been deemed an important construct in many domains such as work, sports, health, gambling, and sexual behaviours (Wong & Carducci, 1991; Zuckerman, 1983; Zuckerman & Neeb, 1980).

As it is possible for sensation seeking to be a relevant personality trait in police source handlers, and because if it is, it is likely to be associated with work motivation, it was assessed and controlled for in the present project. That is, sensation seeking was evaluated as an antecedent of work motivation along with supervisor support and emotional intelligence, in order to extract its influence from the results pertaining to supervisor support and emotional intelligence.

### **Goals and Hypotheses of the Present Thesis**

Human sources are an important means for gathering information and intelligence for law enforcement agencies. Police source handlers have the unique job of targeting,

recruiting, and managing these forms of intelligence. This unique job requires police officers to have special skills and the ability to adapt to unusual demands. Emotional intelligence and motivation have been identified as important personal functioning variables within the work domain.

This study examined the associations between emotional intelligence and work motivation and, in turn, the associations between work motivation and work outcomes in police source handlers. Specifically, this study examined job satisfaction, job performance, future work intentions, and psychological well-being as work-related variables. Because it has reliably been associated with work motivation, supervisor support, as defined by cognitive evaluation theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; 2002; 2008), was also included in the proposed model. Furthermore, as noted earlier in the introduction, research has provided evidence that individuals who are high in emotional intelligence are likely to experience a higher level of psychological well-being; hence, this thesis also examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and psychological well-being. The hypothesized networks of associations between the variables under study are depicted graphically in Figure 3 and are detailed below.

### **Hypothesis 1**

Supervisor support and emotional intelligence were expected to be positively associated to self-determined work motivation. Emotional intelligence would thus display a unique association with work motivation, once the variance from supervisor support has been controlled for. Because it is plausible for sensation seeking to play a role in the work motivation of police source handlers, this variable was also included as a predictor of work

motivation, concurrently with supervisor support and emotional intelligence, to control for its influence.

### **Hypothesis 2**

Self-determined work motivation was, in turn, expected to be positively associated with positive work outcomes; specifically, job satisfaction, job performance, future work intention, and psychological well-being (i.e., burnout, locus of control, positive and negative affect, and life satisfaction).

### **Hypothesis 3**

Emotional intelligence was expected to be positively associated with psychological well-being.



## CHAPTER TWO

### Research Method

#### Participants

Five hundred and twelve police officers who handle human sources (i.e., informants and/or agents) participated in this study; which yielded a response rate of 56%. Participants consisted of both male and female officers and varied in age, marital status, and organizational ranks. Table 1 represents the characteristics of the participants.

A distinct feature amongst police source handlers was the level of training they had received to handle human sources. Specifically, there were three incremental courses which police officers could complete to learn how to handle human sources. The first course was labeled as an introduction to human sources. It consisted of a one day course which provided police officers with the rules and regulations of handling human sources, while providing a brief introduction into recruiting and managing. The second course was a one week in class course which provided police officers techniques, such as the importance of role play, for recruiting and managing human sources. The third course was a specialized one month course where police officers were trained to target, research, approach, recruit, and manage human sources. This course included techniques on how to handle human sources, how to build relationships with human sources, and other police practices and methods.<sup>1</sup> All participants were asked to identify which course(s) they had completed. For the purposes of the present study, participants were

---

<sup>1</sup> Due to the sensitive nature of police source handling, further details about the different levels of training are classified.

Table 1: *Characteristics of Participants*

Characteristic	Category	Number of Participants
<i>Gender</i>	Male	427
	Female	75
	<i>Missing data</i>	10
<i>Age</i>	< 30	107
	30 - 35 years	148
	36 - 40 years	104
	41 - 45 years	85
	46 - 50 years	40
	51 - 55 years	20
	<i>Missing data</i>	8
	<i>Marital Status</i>	Single
Married		306
Common-law		97
Divorced		22
<i>Missing data</i>		4
<i>Years of Service</i>	1 - 5 years	229
	6 - 10 years	128
	11 - 20 years	92
	21 - 30 years	52
	31 - 35 years	6
	<i>Missing data</i>	5
<i>Officer Rank</i>	Constable	360
	Corporal	88
	Sergeant	45
	Staff Sergeant	12
	Inspector	0
	Superintendent	2
	<i>Missing data</i>	5
<i>Level of Training</i>	Course 1: Basic - Group 1	150
	Course 2: Intermediate - Group 2	291
	Course 3: Advanced - Group 3	71

divided into the three groups based on the level of training they had accomplished.

Response rates for the three groups were as follows: 150 participants completed the first course for a response rate of 38%; 291 participants completed the second course for a response rate of 66%; and 71 participants completed the third course for a response rate of 89%.

### **Procedure**

Participants were sent a package which was delivered through their organization's internal mail system. The package contained the recruitment letter and the questionnaire booklet. A return envelope addressed to the researcher was also provided. Subjects were asked to read the recruitment text and if they wished to continue, were asked to complete the questionnaire booklet. After completion, subjects were asked to place the completed questionnaire booklet in the envelope addressed to the researcher and to return it by mail. Participants were given two weeks to complete the questionnaire package.

### **Measures**

The questionnaire booklet was comprised of various instruments which are discussed in more detail in the present section. Please refer to Appendix A for the complete questionnaire package.

**Work motivation.** Work motivation was examined using the Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale (WEIMS; Tremblay, Blanchard, Taylor, & Pelletier, 2009).

The WEIMS assesses the six types of motivation proposed by Deci and Ryan (1985;

2002; 2008); specifically, intrinsic motivation (IM), integrated regulation (INTEG), identified regulation (IDEN), introjected regulation (INTRO), external regulation (ER), and amotivation (AMO). It is composed of six subscales, with four items per subscale, for a total of 24 items. Each item is rated as a possible answer to the following question: “Why do you do your work?” Responses such as “For the satisfaction I experience from taking on interesting challenges” are then scored on a scale based on the participants’ reasons for working ranging from 1 (does not correspond at all) to 7 (corresponds exactly). The factorial structure of the WEIMS was corroborated by a confirmatory factor analysis. Its construct validity and predictive validity were also well documented (Tremblay et al., 2009). The internal consistency of the WEIMS subscales range from .64 to .80. For the present sample, the global Cronbach’s alpha for this measure was .85. The internal consistency for the individual subscales ranged between .68 and .83.

**Emotional intelligence.** Emotional intelligence was examined using the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS; Schutte et al. 1998). The EIS consists of 33 self-referencing statements (three of which are reverse-scored) and requires participants to rate the extent to which they agree or disagree with each statement based on a seven-point scale (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree). The EIS comprises three subscales that assess the three dimensions of emotional intelligence proposed by Salovey and Mayer (1990; 1993): the appraisal and expression of emotion in self and others (e.g., “I am aware of my emotions as I experience them”) the regulation of emotion in self and others (e.g., “I expect good things to happen”), and the utilisation of emotion in solving problems (e.g., “I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome on tasks I take on”).

The psychometric properties of the EIS are excellent. Its factorial structure was supported by the results of exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses (Ciarrochi, Chan, & Bajgar, 2001; Ciarrochi, Deane, & Anderson, 2002; Schutte, Malouff, Simunek, McKenley, & Hollander, 2002). The EIS has been used reliably in a number of studies (e.g., Ciarrochi et al., 2001; Petrides & Furnham, 2000; Schutte et al., 2002; Saklofske, Austin, & Minski, 2003) and has demonstrated high internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha = .78 to .87) and good test-retest reliability ( $r = .78$ ; Schutte et al., 1998; Schutte et al., 2002). In the current study, internal consistency of the EIS was .86.

**Support from supervisors.** Perception of support from the supervisor was assessed using the 12 item Interpersonal Behavior Scale (IBS; Otis & Pelletier, 2004). The IBS measures the satisfaction of the three basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness as identified by Deci and Ryan (1985; 2000). Specifically, the scale assesses to what degree (based on a seven-point scale 1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree) the three basic needs are supported by the immediate supervisor. For example, items include: "My supervisor provides me with lots of opportunities to make personal decisions" (autonomy; four items), "My supervisor gives me helpful suggestions for improvement" (competence; four items)", and "My supervisor is genuinely interested in what I do" (relatedness; four items). Reliability analyses from previous studies support the inter-relatedness of the items and its factorial and construct validity are documented (Pelletier & Otis, 2002). In the current study, internal consistency (i.e., Cronbach's alpha) of the subscales varied from .81 to .92.

**Sensation seeking.** Sensation seeking was examined using the Sensation Seeking Scale V (SSS-V; Zuckerman, 1979). The scale consists of four 10-item

subscales: Thrill and Adventure Seeking (TAS) which assesses involvement in sports or physically risky activities like parachuting or scuba diving; Experience Seeking (ES) which assesses the desire to engage in novel experiences like music and art; Disinhibition (DIS) assesses social sensation seeking through drinking, sex, and parties; and Boredom Susceptibility (BS) assesses intolerability toward repetitive, routine, and familiar occurrences (Zuckerman, 1994). These subscales may be administered in isolation or as one full measure and combined into a total score. Both the reliability and validity of the SSS-V can be found in the many research studies completed over the years (Zuckerman, 1979; 1994; 2007). For the purposes of the present study an abridged version of the TAS subscale was utilized. Specifically, five items from the TAS subscale were retained. Internal consistency for the abridged version of the TAS used in the current study was .73.

**Job satisfaction.** Job satisfaction was studied using a twelve item scale adapted from Deci, Connell, and Ryan (1989; Cronbach's  $\alpha = .86$ ). Items such as, "I feel I have opportunities for advancement at work" were scored on a scale ranging from 1 (do not agree at all) to 7 (agree completely). Cronbach's  $\alpha$  was .90 for the present study.

**Job performance.** Job performance was assessed using two self-report measures based on the participant's job performance within the past week and the last six months. Each measure consisted of one item which was scored on a scale ranging from 1 (somewhat lacking performance) to 7 (very good performance). Internal consistency for the items was .86.

**Future work intentions.** The intention to quit one's job was measured by three items adapted from Vallerand et al. (1993; Cronbach's  $\alpha = .76$ ). Items include "I'm

planning to continue to work here indefinitely”. Items were scored on a scale ranging from 1 (not my intention at all) to 7 (my intention exactly). Internal consistency of these items was  $\alpha = .73$ .

**Psychological well-being.** Psychological well-being was evaluated using four measures including: burnout, locus of control, life satisfaction, and positive and negative affect.

***Burnout*** was assessed using the Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Surey (MBI-GS). The MBI-GS is a 16 item instrument representing emotional exhaustion (five items; e.g., “I feel burned out from my work”); cynicism (five items; e.g., “I doubt the significance of my work”); and professional efficacy (six items; e.g., “In my opinion I am good at my job”). Items were scored on a scale ranging from 1 (do not agree) to 7 (completely agree). Factorial and construct validity of this measure are well documented (Schutte, Toppinen, Kalimo, & Schaufeli, 2000). In the current study, internal consistency (i.e., Cronbach’s alpha) of the subscales ranged from .79 to .91.

***Locus of control*** was measured using four items from the ‘agency subscale’ of the Levenson Locus of Control Scales (LLCS; Levenson, 1974; 1981). The LLCS is well documented and has been psychometrically supported (Levenson, 1974; Presson, Clark, & Benassi, 1997; Walkey, 1979). The ‘agency subscale’ measures the extent to which one believes that one is personally responsible for what happens to him/her (e.g., “Sometimes I feel that I am being pushed around in life” - reverse scored). Items are evaluated on a scale ranging from 1 (do not agree at all) to 7 (totally agree). Cronbach’s alpha was .81 for the present sample.

*Life satisfaction* was examined using The Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS; Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985). The SWLS was shown to have favorable psychometric properties, including high internal consistency and high temporal reliability (Cronbach's alpha = .82 to .87; Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985). This scale contains 5 items such as, "If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing" are scored on a scale ranging from 1 (do not agree at all) to 7 (completely agree). Internal consistency was .88 in the present study.

*Positive and negative affect* was measured using components of the Affectometer 2 (AFM2; Kamman & Flett, 1983). The AFM2 consists of 40 items (20 positive items and 20 negative items); half of the items are presented as sentences and half as adjectives. Reliability analyses for the AFM2 has been reviewed and assessed by Robinson, Shaver, and Wrightsman (1991). For the purposes of the present study four positive adjectives (e.g., confident) and four negative adjectives (e.g., sad) were used. Participants were asked to rate each adjective in response to the question "during the past few weeks to what extent did you feel?" and were asked to base their response on a seven point scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 7 (all the time). Internal consistency for both positive and negative items was .83.

### **Description of Indicators / Items used in Structural Equations Models**

As described in the Analyses section below, data was analyzed using structural equations models. A necessary preliminary step for these analyses is the creation of indicators (global scores) when the number of items in a measurement instrument warrants it. The paragraphs below describe which indicators or items were utilized to

assess latent factors in the structural equations models that are the main focus of the results section (Model 1). For the instruments that required the creation of indicators, relevant computing strategies are specified as well.

**Work motivation.** For parsimony purposes, and because it would be highly impractical to include six individual latent motivation constructs (representing six individual SDT motives) in the analyses, global self-determination motivation indicators were generated. Because the subscales of the WEIMS represent motivational subtypes that vary in autonomy, their scores cannot simply be aggregated using straightforward sums or averages. Instead, global self-determination indicators were generated using a weighted average computation. Specifically, items were assigned positive or negative weights according to their position on the self-determination continuum (please refer to p. 17) before being averaged using the following formula:  $[(3IM) + (2INTEG) + (1DEN) - (1INTRO) - (2RE) - (3AMO)] / 6$ . This computation was repeated four times to create four global motivation indicators. That is, the formula was first applied to the first item of all six subscales to create the first indicator. This calculation was subsequently repeated with the second item of all six subscales, and then with the third, and fourth item of each subscale, until four global self-determined motivation indicators were obtained.

**Emotional intelligence.** For the purposes of structural equations modeling analyses, the items of each subscale were averaged to yield three indicators (appraisal of emotion, regulation of emotion, and utilization of emotion).

**Support from supervisor.** Here again, average scores for each of the subscales of the IBS were computed to create three indicators (autonomy support, competence support, and relatedness).

**Sensation seeking.** The five items adapted from the TAS subscale of the SSS-V were used directly to assess the latent concept representing sensation seeking. No indicator computation was necessary.

**Job satisfaction.** The twelve items from this unidimensional instrument were averaged in groups of four to generate three global indicators.

**Job performance.** The two items of this measure were utilized directly to assess the latent concept representing job performance. No indicators were computed.

**Future work intentions.** Here again, the three items of this scale were utilized in and of themselves to assess the latent concept representing future work intentions. No indicators were calculated.

**Psychological well-being.** Because well-being variables present a high degree of overlapping variance that can be appropriately represented by a higher order factorial construct (e.g., Pelletier et al., 1995), the scores on each of the four instruments selected to measure psychological well-being were averaged to create four indicators. The first of these four indicator represents *burnout* and consists of the overall average of the items on all three subscales of the MBI-GS (please note that items from the emotional exhaustion and cynicism subscales - which represent negative constructs - were reverse coded). The second indicator represents *locus of control* and was created by averaging the items of the LLLS. The third indicator represents *life satisfaction*. It was generated by averaging the items of the SWLS. The fourth indicator represents *positive affect*. The

*negative affect* items of the AFM2 were reverse coded and averaged with the positive items to yield this aggregated score.

## **Analyses**

**Overview.** Statistical analyses were completed in four steps. First, the tenability of the statistical assumptions for structural equations modeling analyses was ascertained. Second, descriptive analyses were performed to obtain summary statistics. Third, zero order correlations were generated to provide an overview of bivariate associations between the variables under study. The fourth and final step consisted of the structural equations modeling analyses that are the main substance of the present results.

**Structural Equations Models: Technical Specifications.** Structural equations modeling analyses were performed using the program EQS 6.1 (Bentler, 2006). Maximum likelihood fitting function was selected as the estimation method because it is unbiased, consistent, and asymptotically efficient (Bollen, 1989). The computation of robust fit statistics based on the Satorra-Bentler chi-square (Satorra & Bentler, 2001) was also requested. As recommended by Cudeck (1989), the raw data was converted into a covariance matrix (rather than a correlation matrix) for the purposes of the analyses. Because of the ongoing controversy regarding the assessment of overall model adjustment, it is recommended to ascertain model fit by means of a variety of statistical and incremental indices (Byrne, 2006). Four complementary fit criteria were utilized: the Satorra-Bentler chi-square ( $SB-\chi^2$ ; Satorra & Bentler, 2001), the Comparative Fit Index

(CFI, Bentler, 1990), The Non Normed Fit Index (NNFI, Bentler & Bonnet, 1980), and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA, Steiger, 1990).

## CHAPTER THREE

### Results

#### Preliminary Analyses

The purpose of this initial subset of analyses was to assess possible departures from the statistical assumptions that are required to be met to ensure validity of structural equations modeling results.

**Absence of outliers.** Standardized scores were generated for all variables, and screened for scores greater than  $\pm 3.00$ . No univariate outliers were detected using this method. Multivariate standardized residuals and Mahalanobis distances were computed and scrutinized. Results revealed no multivariate outliers.

**Normality.** Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, kurtosis, and skewness) were assessed for all variables. Means and standard deviations revealed that central tendencies were largely close to the theoretical mid-point of measurement scales, and that the scores displayed acceptable dispersion. Kurtosis and skewness values were inferior to  $|1.00|$ . Taken together, summary statistics results provide no indication of departures from the univariate normality assumption. Also, the distribution of multivariate standardized residuals conforms to an approximately normal distribution.

**Linearity.** Because structural equations models build upon multiple regression analyses, the associations between the variables under study must conform to the linear mathematical model. The bivariate scatterplots of all possible pairs of variables were examined, and bivariate distributions were found to display linear configurations.

**Homoscedasticity.** Homogeneity of variance is required for structured equations models, as for the vast majority of univariate and multivariate statistical analyses.

Bivariate scatterplots were screened anew to identify possible uneven variance distributions amongst variable pairs. No indication of heteroscedasticity was detected.

**Absence of multicollinearity.** Zero order Pearson correlations between all pairs of variables were assessed, and screened for multicollinearity or singularity. No such problems were found as all correlations were well below the conventional .90 cutoff (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

### **Descriptive Statistics**

Descriptive statistics were computed for all three groups. Mean values were compared, for all variables under study, for the three groups of participants defined by training level. T-tests revealed no significant differences between groups 1 and 2 for all variables except one. Specifically, life satisfaction was slightly higher in group 2 ( $M = 5.29$ ,  $SD = 1.01$ ) than in group 1 ( $M = 5.09$ ,  $SD = 1.09$ );  $t(439) = -2.04$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Because the effect size was very small ( $M$  difference =  $-.21$ ) this results was deemed of little practical significance. Groups 1 and 2 were thus considered comparable and were combined for all further analyses.

Alternatively, four significant differences of somewhat higher magnitude were observed between groups 1 and 2, on the one hand, and group 3, on the other hand. That is, participants in group 3 reported lower supervisor support ( $t(510) = 2.75$ ,  $p < .01$ ), future work intentions ( $t(510) = 2.54$ ,  $p < .01$ ), and positive emotions ( $t(510) = 2.17$ ,  $p < .01$ ), than participants in groups 1 and 2. Further analyses were thus conducted

separately for group 3. Descriptive statistics for groups 1 and 2 (combined), and for group 3, are reported in Table 2.

The data was also screened for possible differences in gender, age, rank, years of experience, and education. No significant effects were detected.

### **Correlations**

To test bivariate associations, a correlation matrix for all independent and dependent variables was calculated for groups 1 and 2 (please see Table 3) and group 3 (please see Table 4). Both series of correlations revealed that supervisor support and emotional intelligence were associated with work motivation, as well as, with all organizational and well-being outcomes. Work motivation was associated with all organizational and well-being outcomes. Work outcomes and psychological well-being outcomes were also correlated amongst themselves, and with one another.

There is one noteworthy difference amongst the pattern of correlations within groups 1 and 2, and within group 3. Specifically, sensation seeking was not correlated to work motivation in groups 1 and 2. However, in group 3, which represents the subsample of police source handlers that received advanced training, the association between sensation seeking and self-determined work motivation was of fair magnitude, and was statistically significant.

### **Structural Equations Models**

**Model 1.** The hypothesized model was first evaluated for the subsample that comprised police source handlers from groups 1 and 2. As explained in the Method

Table 2: *Summary Statistics*

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Group 1 and 2</i> <i>n=441</i>		<i>Group 3</i> <i>n=71</i>	
	Mean (SD)	Skewness (Kurtosis)	Mean (SD)	Skewness (Kurtosis)
Emotional Intelligence	4.58 (.45)	.14 (.05)	4.49 (.46)	-.32 (.07)
Supervisor Support	5.31 (1.17)	-.81 (.25)	4.88 (1.45)	-.69 (-.14)
Sensation Seeking	4.30 (1.43)	-.27 (-.44)	4.15 (1.31)	-.14 (-.04)
Self-Determined Motivation	2.02 (1.03)	-.67 (.47)	2.06 (1.34)	-1.87 (4.25)
Job Satisfaction	5.13 (.89)	-.41 (-.28)	5.03 (1.18)	-.51 (-.26)
Job Performance	5.63 (.80)	-.38 (-.17)	5.66 (.86)	-.56 (.37)
Future Work Intention	5.33 (1.46)	-.81 (-.14)	4.77 (1.61)	-.47 (-.31)
Burnout	2.76 (.91)	.35 (-.34)	2.80 (1.20)	.56 (-.60)
Locus Of Control	2.03 (.88)	.86 (.40)	2.14 (1.17)	1.26 (1.51)
Positive Affect	5.49 (.77)	-.56 (.22)	5.27 (1.03)	-1.03 (1.25)
Negative Affect	2.60 (1.04)	.75 (.38)	2.85 (1.28)	.71 (.10)
Life Satisfaction	5.23 (1.04)	-.67 (.22)	5.07 (1.16)	-.73 (.84)

Table 3: *Correlation Matrix for Groups 1 and 2*

	EI	SS1	SS2	M	JS	JP	FWI	B	LoC	PA	NA	LS
Emotional Intelligence (EI)												
Supervisor Support (SS1)	.29**											
Sensation Seeking (SS2)	.17**	-.06										
Work Motivation (M)	.29**	.35**	.09									
Job Satisfaction (JS)	.38**	.52**	.05	.53**								
Job Performance (JP)	.35**	.30**	.07	.39**	.36**							
Future Work Intention (FWI)	.11*	.32**	-.07	.46**	.51**	.24**						
Burnout (B)	-.28**	-.44**	-.03	-.69**	-.67**	-.40**	-.54**					
Locus of Control (LoC)	-.17**	-.23**	-.05	-.40**	-.30**	-.21**	-.16**	.43**				
Positive Affect (PA)	.50**	.35**	.16**	.48**	.48**	.38**	.30**	-.55**	-.48**			
Negative Affect (NA)	-.19**	-.28**	-.08	-.39**	-.39**	-.22**	-.32**	.56**	.47**	-.61**		
Life Satisfaction (LS)	.37**	.30**	.10*	.36**	.41**	.36**	.29**	-.39**	-.44**	.61**	-.47**	

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

Table 4: *Correlation Matrix for Group 3*

	EI	SS1	SS2	M	JS	JP	FWI	B	LoC	PA	NA	LS
Emotional Intelligence (EI)												
Supervisor Support (SS1)	.03											
Sensation Seeking (SS2)	.33**	-.08										
Work Motivation (M)	.40**	.28*	.41**									
Job Satisfaction (JS)	.17	.73**	-.08	.46**								
Job Performance (JP)	.22	.22	.05	.41**	.32**							
Future Work Intention (FWI)	.23	.37**	.08	.60**	.67**	.18						
Burnout (B)	-.33**	-.56**	-.20	-.73**	-.75**	-.42**	-.74**					
Locus of Control (LoC)	-.26*	-.29*	-.16	-.49**	-.45**	-.43**	-.45**	.63**				
Positive Affect (PA)	.50**	.23	.27*	.73**	.50**	.46**	.57**	-.69**	-.60**			
Negative Affect (NA)	-.27*	-.43**	-.25*	-.67**	-.57**	-.39**	-.57**	.73**	.68**	-.77**		
Life Satisfaction (LS)	.39**	.20	.28*	.47**	.45**	.16	.46**	-.51**	-.56**	.64**	-.65**	

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

section, these groups were combined because their data they did not differ significantly on any of the variables under study. Results are represented graphically in Figure 4. Although a few unexpected findings occurred, the results largely corroborate research hypotheses.

As predicted by Hypothesis 1, supervisor support and emotional intelligence were both uniquely associated with work motivation. Together, these two variables explained a high proportion of the variance of work motivation. Sensation seeking was also included as an independent variable, along with supervisor support and emotional intelligence, as a predictor of work motivation to control for possible influence. Results revealed that sensation seeking does not contribute to the statistical prediction of unique variance in work motivation when it is evaluated concurrently with supervisor support and emotional intelligence.

As predicted by Hypothesis 2, work motivation, in turn, was positively associated with job satisfaction, job performance, future work intention, and psychological well-being. Also, as predicted by Hypothesis 3, emotional intelligence was positively associated with psychological well-being.

In addition to the associations that were predicted by research hypotheses, the Lagrange Multiplier test ( $LM-\chi^2$ ; Bentler, 2006) also indicated the presence of four significant unexpected associations. As those unexpected findings made substantive sense, these results were also included in the model. Firstly, a positive association was found between supervisor support and job satisfaction ( $LM-\chi^2 (1) = 52.38, p < .001$ ). Secondly, job satisfaction combined with work motivation contributed unique variance

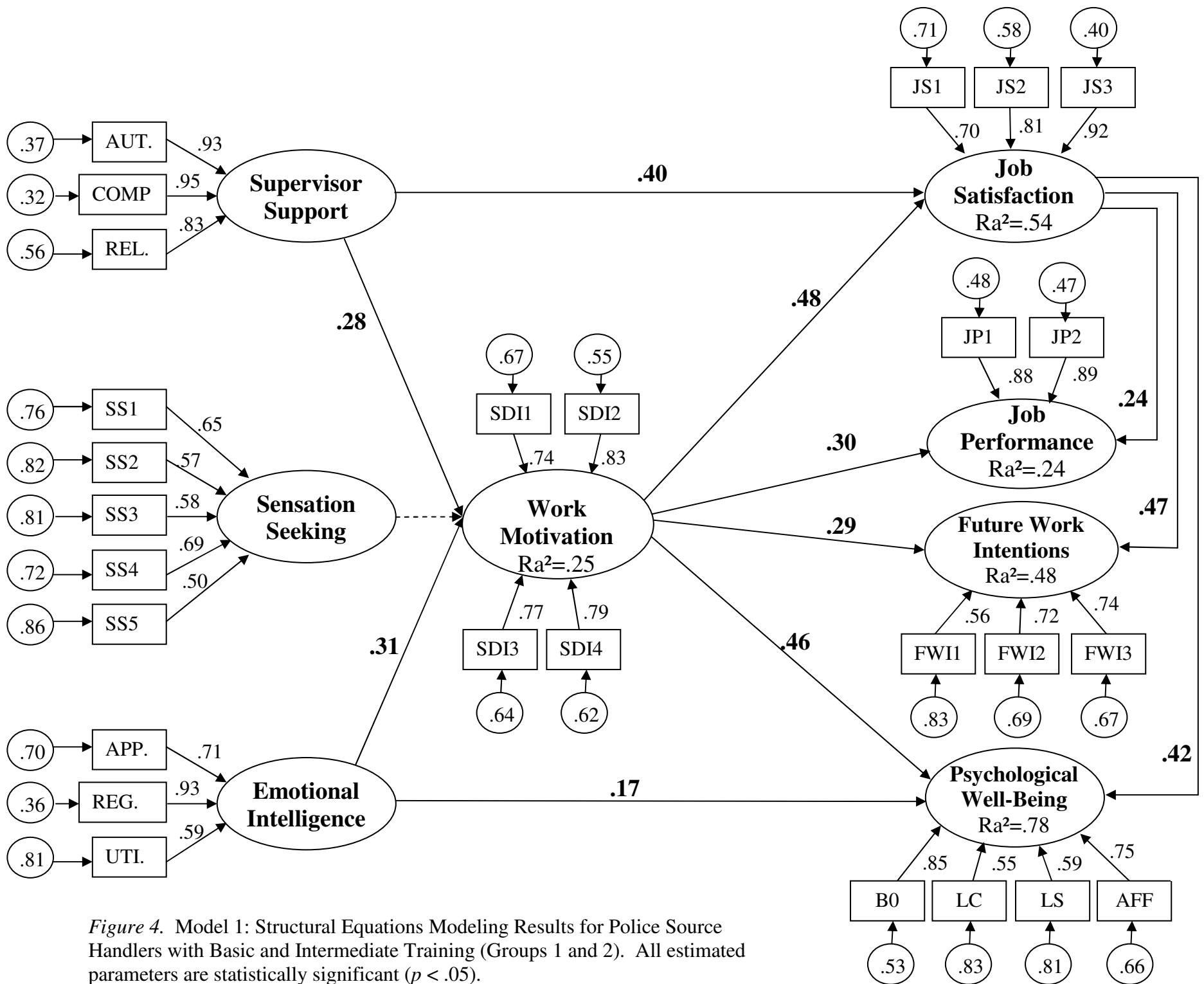


Figure 4. Model 1: Structural Equations Modeling Results for Police Source Handlers with Basic and Intermediate Training (Groups 1 and 2). All estimated parameters are statistically significant ( $p < .05$ ).

to the prediction of the three other work outcome variables. That is, it was positively associated with job performance ( $LM-\chi^2(1) = 3.83, p < .05$ ), future work intentions ( $LM-\chi^2(1) = 22.95, p < .001$ ), and psychological well-being ( $LM-\chi^2(1) = 26.91, p < .001$ ). Together, the expected and unexpected associations that were identified with work outcome variables explained a high proportion of the variance of these factors. Finally, the overall model fit was satisfactory ( $SB-\chi^2(309) = 663.28, p < .001$ ; CFI = .93; NNFI = .93; RMSEA = .05).

**Model 2.** The hypothesized model was also tested on the subsample that comprised the police source handlers from Group 3. As the number of participants in this group was insufficient to run a full structural model that includes a confirmatory factor analysis, a simple path model was assessed using single global indicators for each construct. Measurement error estimates were generated by subtracting reliability values from 1.00, and imputed as fixed parameters in the model. Results are presented in Figure 5. With one exception that will be addressed further below, the pattern of associations between the variables under study was identical to that of Model 1. Supervisor support and emotional intelligence were positively associated with self-determined work motivation. As in Model 1, sensation seeking displayed no unique association with work motivation when its influence was assessed concurrently with supervisor support and emotional intelligence. Work motivation and supervisor support were positively associated with job satisfaction. Work motivation and job satisfaction were positively associated with job performance and future work intentions. Lastly, emotional intelligence and job satisfaction were positively associated to psychological well-being.

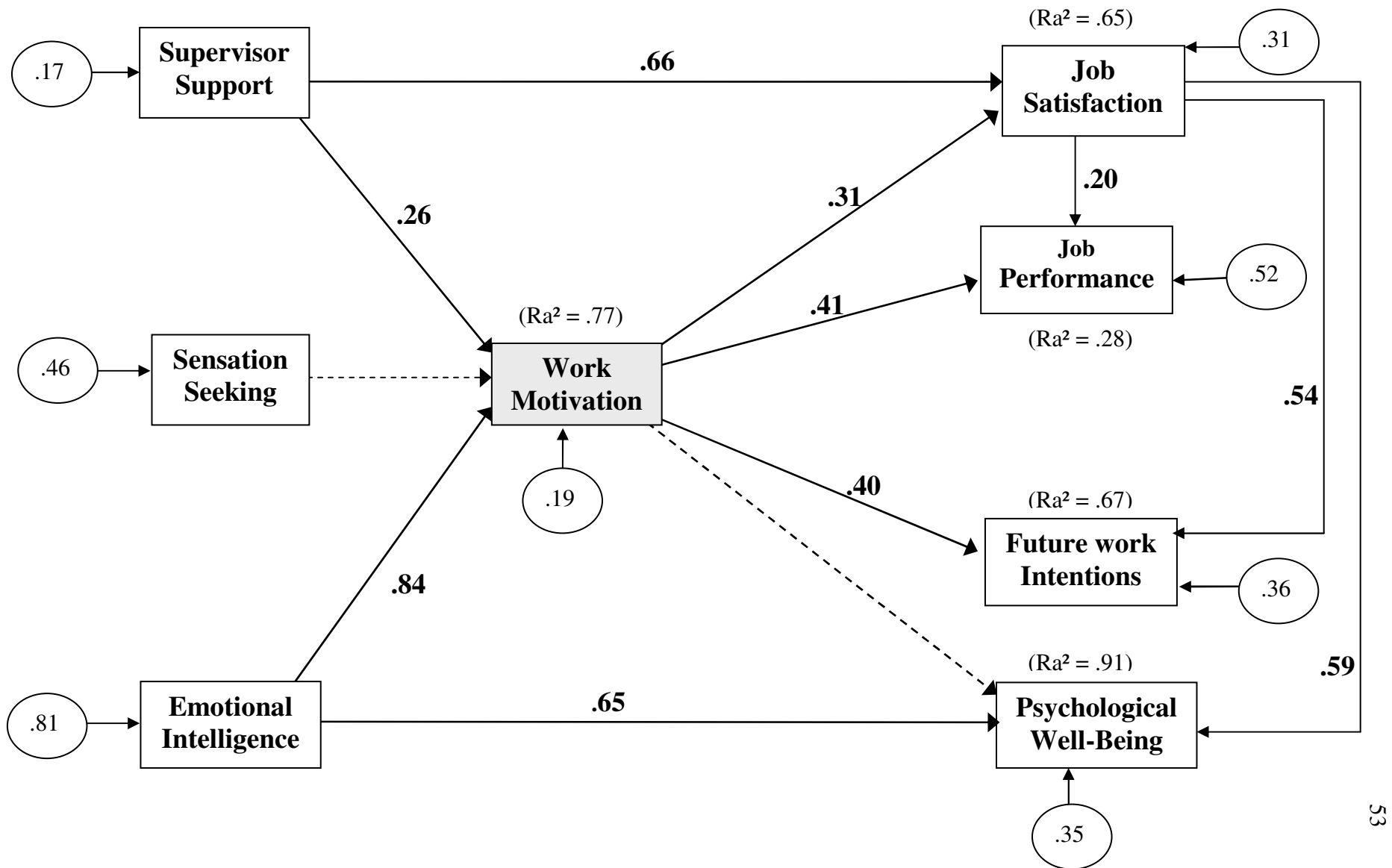


Figure 5. Model 2: Structural Equations Modeling Results for Police Source Handlers with Advanced training (Group 3). All estimated parameters are statistically significant ( $p < .05$ ).

As in Model 1, the proportion of explained variance for all dependent variables was high. Model fit was also satisfactory ( $SB-\chi^2(14) = 38.75, p < .001$ ; CFI = .99; NNFI = .96; RMSEA = .15).

Contrary to Hypothesis 2, and to the findings from Model 1, work motivation was not associated with psychological well-being for the subsample of police source handlers from group 3. This non significant result can be explained by the much higher magnitude of the association between emotional intelligence and psychological well-being, as explained below.

**Testing for Invariant Causal Structure across Model 1 and Model 2.** Aside from the association between work motivation and psychological well-being that was present in Model 1 (groups 1 and 2), and absent in Model 2 (group 3), the pattern of associations between both models was identical. However, as indicated by formal invariance testing of regression coefficients (the Lagrange Multiplier test;  $LM-\chi^2$ ), the magnitude of five key associations was not. First and most interestingly, the association between emotional intelligence and work motivation ( $\beta$  Model 1 = .31,  $\beta$  Model 2 = .84,  $LM-\chi^2(2) = 12.89, p < .01$ ), as well as the association between emotional intelligence and psychological well-being ( $\beta$  Model 1 = .17,  $\beta$  Model 2 = .65,  $LM-\chi^2(3) = 13.76, p < .01$ ), were of much higher magnitude in group 3 than in groups 1 and 2. That is, emotional intelligence was much more closely tied to work motivation and to psychological well-being in group 3 than in groups 1 and 2. Thus, even though the mean levels for these variables were similar in all groups (please refer to Table 2), the level of training has a moderating effect and emotional intelligence appears to play a more

important role in the work motivation and psychological well-being for the highly trained police source handlers from group 3. Although this moderating effect is most striking for the two aforementioned associations that involve emotional intelligence, three further differences of interest were identified in the magnitude of associations between Model 1 and Model 2. Specifically, the associations between supervisor support and job satisfaction ( $\beta$  Model 1 = .40,  $\beta$  Model 2 = .66,  $LM-\chi^2(1) = 10.75, p < .001$ ), job satisfaction and future work intentions ( $\beta$  Model 1 = .47,  $\beta$  Model 2 = .54,  $LM-\chi^2(5) = 13.84, p < .05$ ), and job satisfaction and psychological well-being ( $\beta$  Model 1 = .42,  $\beta$  Model 2 = .59,  $LM-\chi^2(4) = 13.82, p < .01$ ) were also higher in group 3 than in groups 1 and 2.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **Discussion**

Understanding that police handlers have a unique role within the law enforcement field and require special skills, the main goal of the thesis proposed to evaluate personal and interpersonal variables that are liable to foster optimal work functioning in police source handlers. Specifically, this study examined the association between emotional intelligence and work motivation, and, in turn, the associations between work motivation and work outcome variables in police source handlers. In addition, this study also included supervisor support, as defined by cognitive evaluation theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; 2002; 2008), and sensation seeking, as predictors of work motivation. Furthermore, this thesis also examined the association between emotional intelligence and psychological well-being. Three hypotheses were tested, which are recalled below.

#### **Hypothesis 1**

Supervisor support and emotional intelligence were expected to be positively associated with self-determined work motivation. Emotional intelligence was thus expected to display a unique association with work motivation, once the variance from supervisor support and sensation seeking was controlled for.

**Hypothesis 2**

Self-determined work motivation was expected, in turn, to be positively associated with the following work outcomes: job satisfaction, job performance, future work intention, and psychological well-being (burnout, locus of control, positive and negative affect, and life satisfaction).

**Hypothesis 3**

Emotional intelligence was expected to be positively associated to psychological well-being.

**Summary of Findings**

The hypothesized network of associations between the variables under study was tested separately for participants with introductory (group 1) and basic (group 2) training in handling human sources (Model 1), and participants with advanced training in this regard (group 3; Model 2). Overall, results largely corroborated research hypotheses.

Specifically, Hypothesis 1 was supported by the results of Model 1 (groups 1 and 2) and Model 2 (group 3). In both models, supervisor support and emotional intelligence were significantly associated with self-determined work motivation. This indicates that supervisor support, a social antecedent, and emotional intelligence, a personal antecedent, both offer a unique contribution to the prediction of the variance of work motivation. Moreover, adding sensation seeking as a possible confounding factor as a predictor of work motivation, along with supervisor support and emotional intelligence, yielded no significant effect. Supervisor support and emotional intelligence remained

significant predictors of work motivation when sensation seeking was controlled for.

Thus, sensation seeking had no unique effect on work motivation.

In sum, results fully corroborated Hypothesis 1 for groups 1 and 2, and for group 3. It is also interesting to note that beyond the fact that all hypothesized associations were significant and of acceptable magnitude, the association between emotional intelligence and self-determined work motivation was substantially higher in Model 2 (group 3) than in Model 1 (groups 1 and 2).

With one minor exception that will be outlined below, results of Models 1 and 2 also corroborated the pattern of associations predicted by Hypothesis 2. That is, self-determined motivation was positively associated with the following work outcomes: job satisfaction, job performance, future work intentions, and psychological well-being. Heightened work motivation is thus associated with better organizational and personal functioning. However, contrary to the research hypothesis to this effect, no significant association was found between work motivation and psychological well-being in Model 2 (group 3).

Furthermore, Hypothesis 3 was supported by the results of Model 1 (groups 1 and 2) and Model 2 (group 3). In both models, emotional intelligence was positively associated to psychological well-being. Interestingly, this association was substantially higher in Model 2 (group 3) than in Model 1 (groups 1 and 2).

To summarize, aside from the single minor non significant findings noted above, the hypothesized pattern of associations between the variables under study was corroborated by the results.

A few interesting unexpected findings were also obtained in both Model 1 (groups 1 and 2) and Model 2 (group 3). Firstly, a positive association was found between supervisor support and job satisfaction. Secondly, job satisfaction combined with work motivation contributed unique variance to the prediction of the three other work outcome variables. That is, it was positively associated with job performance, future work intentions, and psychological well-being.

### **Conceptual Contributions**

As predicted, supervisor support (which can include acknowledging employee's perspective, providing meaningful non-controlling feedback, and conveying choice) was positively associated with self-determined work motivation. As noted in the introduction, interpersonal behaviors have long been considered to be the central source of influence on self-determined motivation, and their effect has been extensively studied (please refer to Deci & Ryan 2002; 2008; for literature reviews on this topic). This effect has been noted in previous organizational research as well. For instance, Senecal, Vallerand, and Guay (2001) found that self-determined work motivation was predicted directly by the extent to which an individual felt support from his/her supervisor. Harteis et al. (2005) also found that a work environment that supports subordinates' feelings of self-determination was able to enhance intrinsic motivation. The present results, pertaining to the association between supervisor support and work motivation, thus build on previous research and provide further evidence, in yet another industrial/organization setting (i.e., law enforcement), that positive supervisor support is an important social

antecedent and plays an integral role in enhancing employee's self-determined motivation.

However, the main theoretical contribution of the present project is the demonstration that emotional intelligence, a personal variable, is uniquely associated with self-determined work motivation, even when studied in combination with supervisor support, a social variable. If the direction of the causal association between these two variables could be successfully replicated using longitudinal data, then it could be inferred that higher emotional intelligence leads to higher self-determined work motivation. With this unique contribution, a new process for the development of self-determined work motivation may be understood. It is also important to note that the examination of personal antecedents, such as emotional intelligence, has largely been neglected in the study of self-determined motivation. In fact, only a few personal variables such as interest enhancing strategies (Green-Demers, 1997; Green-Demers, Pelletier, Stewart, & Gushue, 1998) and motivational strategies (Taylor, Ntoumanis, Standage, 2008) have been considered. This study also therefore treads on new research ground in assessing personal variables in the study of self-determined motivation. It is ironic that research on the antecedents of autonomous motivation has primarily focused on the social antecedents of self-determination. Hopefully, the study of personal antecedents, such as emotional intelligence, will contribute novel useful knowledge on the mechanisms by which individuals contribute to the development of the autonomy of their own behavior.

Within the present thesis, sensation seeking was used as a control variable in predicting work motivation. Specifically, because sensation seeking can play a role in

the work motivation of police source handlers, this variable was used as a predictor of work motivation to control for its influence. Results demonstrated that there were no statistical associations between sensation seeking and work motivation indicating no unique contribution. However, a point of interest to note with this variable was within the correlation results. Sensation seeking showed no correlation to motivation within groups 1 and 2. However, sensation seeking was positively related to motivation in group 3. These results indicate that higher levels of sensation seeking activities, amongst police sources handlers within group 3, covary with higher levels of self-determined work motivation. However, when used concurrently with supervisor support and emotional intelligence to predict work motivation, sensation seeking offered no unique contribution, even in group 3.

Building on previous research wherein work outcomes were often studied independently from one another, the present thesis also aimed to examine the associations between self-determined work motivation and several such organizational outcomes simultaneously, in a sample from a population where no previous research exists: police source handlers. The association between work motivation and job satisfaction was first examined. To no surprise, these variables were positively associated, thereby providing more justification for employers to facilitate the enhancement of employees' self-determined motivation in an effort to increase job satisfaction (Deci & et al., 2001; Ilardi, Leone, Kasser, & Ryan, 1993; Keaveney, & Nelson, 1993; Lam & Gurland, 2008).

Likewise, the association between work motivation and job performance has also been studied in previous research, indicating that self-determined work motivation can

predict job performance (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004; LaGuardia, Ryan, Couchman, & Deci, 2000). The positive association within this thesis provides further support for the relevance of self-determination theory in work motivation and the influence to performance on the job.

This thesis also confirmed a positive association between work motivation and future work intentions; thereby indicating that employees who have higher levels of self-determined motivation were more likely to have the intent to stay within their job. This finding has been documented in other various settings, for example within sports to predict fewer sports dropouts (Pelletier, Fortier, Vallerand, & Briere, 2001; Sarrazin, Vallerand, Guillet, Pelletier, & Cury, 2002) and school to predict fewer school dropouts (Vallerand, Fortier, & Guay, 1997). Within the work domain, two notable research studies were conducted by Richer, Blanchard, and Vallerand (2002) and Otis and Pelletier (2005) whereby self-determined work motivation was used in the predication of future work intention.

Furthermore, within groups 1 and 2 (Model 1), self-determined work motivation was positively associated to psychological well-being. Specifically, self-determined work motivation was significantly associated to low burnout, high locus of control, high positive affect, and high life satisfaction. These results revealed that police source handlers with higher levels of self-determined work motivation reported less emotional exhaustion, better internal locus of control, greater positive feelings, less negative feelings, and more satisfaction with life in general. Previous studies have supported these findings. Specifically, within the work domain, self-determined motivation was found to be negatively associated with burnout (Blais, Hess, Bourbonnais, Saintonge, &

Riddle, 1995; Fernet, Guay, & Senecal, 2004; Otis & Pelletier, 2005), and positively associated with other various psychological well-being variables such as life satisfaction (Deci et al., 2001; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Ryan, Rigby, & King, 1993; Vansteenkiste, Simons, Lens, Sheldon, & Deci, 2004).

An additional hypothesized finding within the present thesis was the significant association between emotional intelligence and psychological well-being. This association has been well-documented by previous research. For example, Higgs and Dulewicz (2008) found emotional intelligence was established as the most consistent predictor of variance of general welfare. Carmeli, et al. (2009) found strong positive associations between emotional intelligence and several components of psychological well-being (including self-esteem, life satisfaction, and self-acceptance). These findings have been replicated in many other studies (e.g., Augusto, Lopez-Zafra, Berrios, & Aguilar, 2008; Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Extremera & Fernandez-Berrocal, 2006; MacCann & Roberts, 2008). Thus, there is a growing body of evidence to the effect that emotionally intelligent people are likely to experience a higher level of psychological well-being than individuals who are less emotionally intelligent.

Overall, this thesis has provided many original conceptual contributions, including the first to explore the association between emotional intelligence and self-determined work motivation. Furthermore, this thesis has provided the first insight into a very specialized police population, the police source handler. Interestingly, this research also found other unforeseen findings which are discussed below.

## **Unexpected Findings**

As previously indicated, self-determined work motivation was found to be positively associated to all consequence variables with the exception of psychological well-being in group 3 (Model 2). However, a significant positive association of substantial magnitude was found between supervisor support and job satisfaction; indicating that supervisor support has a large impact on job satisfaction. Specifically, in the context of this study, this important association revealed that police source handlers who indicated positive supervisor support also reported greater job satisfaction. This association between supervisor support and job satisfaction, although not hypothesized, could have been foreseen, and has been studied in previous research (Brough & Pears, 2005; Griffin, Patterson, & West, 2001; Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009; Ryan, Clopton, & Irwin, 2008; Steinhardt, Dolbeir, Gottlieb, & McCalister, 2008).

Another interesting unforeseen finding of this thesis was the positive associations between job satisfaction, on one hand, and job performance, future work intention, and psychological well-being, on the other hand. These results indicated police source handlers who reported high job satisfaction also stated higher job performance, intention to stay in one's job, and higher levels of psychological well-being. Specifically, reflecting on the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance, it is important to note that this relationship is one of the most researched relationships within industrial/organizational psychology (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001). Previous research lends support to the present finding that job satisfaction and job performance are related (Bowling, 2007; Fisher, 2003; Judge et al., 2001); thereby inferring police source handlers who are more satisfied in their job also perform better within their job.

Previous studies have also supported the premise that job satisfaction decreases intention to leave one's job (e.g., Blau, 2007; Lauver and Kristof-Brown, 2001; Poon, 2004). Job satisfaction plays an important role in measuring the intent to turnover. Job dissatisfaction stimulates thoughts of leaving, which leads individuals to search for another position, evaluate alternatives, intend to quit, and finally make the decision to leave (Arnold & Feldman, 1982).

In addition, research has also found an association between job satisfaction and psychological well-being (e.g., Bowling, Eschleman, & Wang, 2010; Tait, Padgett, & Baldwin, 1989; Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, Warren, & de Chermont, 2003). This finding can specifically be explained by, and is consistent with, the spillover hypothesis, which suggests that the experiences from one life domain have corresponding influences on the experiences in other life domains (Judge, Parker, Colbert, Heller, & Ilies, 2001; Judge & Watanabe, 1994).

### **Comparing Groups 1 and 2 vs. Group 3**

Although there were three different levels of training, the results identified that group 1 and group 2 showed no significant difference between any of the variables under study and thus these groups were combined for the purposes of Model 1. However, there were notable differences between the levels of training of participants of groups 1 and 2 (Model 1) compared to those in group 3 (Model 2).

First, individuals within group 3 showed no significant association between self-determined motivation and psychological well-being. Conversely, and in line with documented literature (e.g., Fernet, Guay, & Senecal, 2004; Vansteenkiste et al., 2004),

individuals within groups 1 and 2 displayed a positive association. Yet, results from both groups 1 and 2 and group 3 showed significant correlations between work motivation, on the one hand, and burnout (reversed), locus of control, life satisfaction, and positive affect, on the other hand. Moreover, mean levels for these variables in groups 1 and 2 and in group 3 were also very similar. Although there were obvious common correlations for groups 1 and 2, and group 3, the regression results pertaining to the association between work motivation and well-being differed across models. That is, it was not significant in group 3. The primary explanation for this effect was the high association between emotional intelligence and psychological well-being in group 3. Because this association was very high, self-determined motivation and well-being was unable to contribute further unique variance to the prediction of well-being in Model 2. Also, the higher association between emotional intelligence and well-being in Model 2 (group 3) suggests that these variables are more closely tied for the participants of group 3 than for those of groups 1 and 2. That is, emotional intelligence plays a much more important role in the psychological well-being of participants with advanced training than of participants with basic or intermediate training.

Second, the association between emotional intelligence and work motivation was substantially higher in Model 2 (group 3) than in Model 1 (groups 1 and 2). Emotional intelligence and work motivation are thus much more systematically associated in group 3 than in groups 1 and 2, which further reinforces the notion that emotional intelligence plays a key role in the functioning of participants with advanced training.

Third, higher associations were also obtained in Model 2 (group 3), by comparison to Model 1 (groups 1 and 2), for supervisor support and job satisfaction, job

satisfaction and future work intentions, and job satisfaction and well-being. These three pairs of organizational variables are therefore also more closely tied in group 3 than in groups 1 and 2.

From these results, we can draw the conclusion that the level of training (group 3 vs. groups 1 and 2) has a moderating effect on the aforementioned associations. This is an interesting and important finding that bears fundamental and applied implications for the research on police source handlers. That is, these results suggest that emotional intelligence is a key factor for those who undergo advanced training because it is very highly associated with work motivation and psychological well-being. For the individuals with advanced training, job satisfaction was also very highly tied to future work intentions and psychological well-being. Job satisfaction thus also appears to be an important factor for highly trained police source handlers. Lastly, it is also noteworthy that, taken together, emotional intelligence and job satisfaction explain a particularly high proportion of psychological well-being for the participants of group 3. Emotional intelligence and job satisfaction hence appear to be key ingredients to the psychological welfare of police source handlers with advanced training.

### **Limitations**

Although this research contributes to a richer and more systematic understanding of the association between emotional intelligence and self-determined motivation, and, in turn, the associations between work motivation and work outcome variables, limitations of the study should be considered. One noteworthy limitation of this study relates to external validity considerations. That is, although the use of a specialized

police population contributes to the novelty of this thesis and provides insight into a historically closed setting, it may constrain the generalization of the results. Therefore, in future studies, the use of diverse populations, both from within and across various occupations, would provide a greater breadth of understanding amongst the variables in various settings. This would be especially important and valuable for the association between emotional intelligence and self-determined motivation. The present results have shown that emotional intelligence was a significant personal variable and an important link to self-determined work motivation regulation. This fundamental finding requires further attention and future studies may want to continue to explore the nature of this relationship in various settings and with various populations. For example, within an academic and vocational setting, it would be interesting to assess the impact of emotional intelligence on self-determined motivation and, in turn, on grades.

In addition, the employment of a cross-sectional design poses another limitation, such that it inhibits the examination of causal relationships. In other words, although this study has effectively identified the associations between the variables, the cause and effect relationships cannot be fully ascertained because the variables were assessed simultaneously. Future studies with longitudinal designs, wherein hypothesized causes are measured before effects, are needed to draw further conclusions about causality. Although causation cannot be substantiated with cross-sectional data, the theoretical underpinnings strongly support the associations suggested in the study.

## **Future Studies**

**Emotional intelligence, leadership style, and self-determined motivation.** An interesting future study is the examination of leadership, as an independent variable, in conjunction with supervisor support and emotional intelligence to jointly assess self-determined work motivation. The “full range leadership theory” (Avolio & Bass, 1991) which assess the concept of transformational, transactional, and nontransactional (also known as laissez-faire) leadership is one of the most widely researched paradigms in the leadership field (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Sashkin, 2004). Research into the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership style has been significant (see Antonakis, Ashkanasy, & Dasborough, 2009). For instance, research has shown that successful transformational leaders need the ability to be aware of their own emotions, but also to accurately identify with the emotions of their employees (Caruso, Mayer & Salovey, 2002; Coetzee & Schaap, 2005; Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005; Hooper & Potter, 2000; Steiner & Perry, 1999; Weisinger, 1998). Moreover, emotional intelligence competencies, such as self-awareness, self-confidence, empathy and emotion management, have been argued to be essential for transformational leaders (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Sosik & Megarian, 1999). While there is less theoretical research concerning the relationship between transactional and nontransactional leadership with emotional intelligence, studies have suggested that leaders do have abilities and traits associated with a relatively high level of emotional intelligence (Barling, Slater, & Kelloway, 2000; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Harms & Crede, 2010). Given that research has showed associations between leadership behaviours and emotional intelligence, it would be interesting to assess the impact of

these two variables on self-determined work motivation. Thus, future research into the associations between emotional intelligence, leadership style (as defined through the “full range leadership theory”), and self-determined motivation may obtain interesting results and provide greater insight into the development of leaders in organizations and other various settings.

**Emotional intelligence, cognitive intelligence, self-determined work motivation, and work outcome variables.** Since the introduction of emotional intelligence into the research world, there has been a significant amount of debate regarding if emotional intelligence is less or more important than cognitive intelligence (i.e., intellectual abilities such as logic, reason, reading, writing, analyzing, and prioritizing). In fact, some proponents of cognitive intelligence go as far as stating that emotional intelligence is not a valid form of intelligence (Becker, 2003; Brody, 2004; Landy, 2005; Locke, 2005; Roberts, Zeidner, & Matthew, 2001). “It is simply arbitrary to attach the word ‘intelligence’ to assorted habits or skills, as Howard Gardner and EI advocates do ...” (Locke, 2005, p. 426). Due to the on-going dispute between the proponents of emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence, to our knowledge, very few studies have jointly examined these two theories. One study, amongst the small number of studies, assessed emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence in relation to job performance (Cote & Miners, 2006). Results revealed the interaction between emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence predicted task performance.

Building on the results of the present research project and that of Cote and Miners (2006), it would be interesting for future studies to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence, cognitive intelligence, and self-determined work

motivation. The present project has revealed promising results, such that emotional intelligence and self-determined work motivation are positively associated and, in turn, self-determined work motivation was positively associated to work outcome variables. Likewise, Cote and Miners (2006) have stated that emotional intelligence can be used as an important predictor of organizational practices because of its interactive effect with cognitive intelligence. Therefore, future research should examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence on self-determined work motivation, and, in turn, on work outcome variables.

**Informants vs. agents.** Taking into consideration the police setting used within this study, an important future variable to assess for this specialized population is the distinction between handling an informant versus an agent. As noted in the introduction, not all human sources are the same. Within the Canadian law enforcement context human sources are defined by two distinctive types: the informant and the agent. An informant is an individual, criminal or non-criminal, who provides information to police relating to crime. This type of human source would generally not become a witness in a court of law or require protection (RCMP, 2009). On the other hand, an agent is a person, usually criminal, who takes direction from law enforcement investigators to assist in the development of a criminal operation. This type of human source may be used to introduce undercover police officers, act as a courier for control deliveries (i.e., act as a courier for the delivery of illicit substances), or obtain evidence in relation to the crime (RCMP, 2009).

The handling of the two different types of sources may have a significant impact on police source handlers. For instance, handling an informant who in most cases is

willing to provide and contribute information about a crime may take much less personal effort and motivation, than handling an agent who has been recruited and coerced into providing information on a crime or criminal network he/she most likely belongs to. Therefore, the specific identification of the type of source the police handler is managing may provide a greater understanding of the role played by social and personal antecedents of the work motivation of police source handlers.

**Ethics of police source handlers.** In addition, it may also be important to assess the professional ethics of police source handlers. Because these specialized officers work in a secretive setting and are in contact and communication with criminals, their professional and personal ethics and values are of the utmost importance. Ethics can be a significant contributor to decision making and may work in conjunction with emotional intelligence to influence self-determined work motivation of police source handlers.

### **Applied Implications**

Although this research contributes to a richer and more systematic understanding of the association between emotional intelligence and self-determined motivation, and, in turn, of the associations between work motivation and work outcome variables, it is important to note that the present results are preliminary and that causality has not yet been established. Provided that the present results can be replicated using a longitudinal design, there are many applied implications which can be considered.

Taking into account the significant positive association between emotional intelligence and self-determined work motivation within the present project, organizations could benefit from administering emotional intelligence training. Research

has shown that emotional intelligence can be developed through training and various approaches to build competence in personal and social awareness, self-management, and social skills (Goleman, 1995). Based on the results of this study, emotional intelligence training may not only increase the levels of emotional intelligence of employees, but may also increase self-determined work motivation which, in turn, may positively impact work outcome variables and psychological welfare.

Another option for organizations to enhance self-determined motivation in employees is the selection of employees with high emotional intelligence. A selection system which incorporates an evaluation of the candidates' emotional intelligence may also assist in determining if these potential employees will have more self-determined motivation. This assessment could assist police organizations and other organizations in providing a more comprehensive way of assessing, selecting, and training future employees.

An important implication, and one which should be given significant consideration by all organizations, is supervisor support. Within the present thesis, supervisor support was positively associated to self-determined work motivation and to job satisfaction, which, in turn, had an impact on job performance, future work intentions, and psychological well-being. Cognitive Evaluation Theory offers a means of understanding these forces; such that feelings that promote autonomy, competence, and relatedness will facilitate self-determined work motivation thus allowing for self-actualization and optimal functioning (Deci & Ryan, 2000; 2002; 2008). Thus, it is recommended that organizations should focus on fulfilling these three basic psychological needs. One way to do that, as this study has suggested, is to ensure

positive supervisor support. Training supervisors and/or selecting and recruiting supervisors to be strong in employee support is a key element in ensuring motivated and satisfied employees.

The most valuable asset that any organization has is its people. Therefore building an emotionally competent organization and one that facilitates autonomy, competence, and relatedness through positive supervisor support should result in more self-determined motivated employees. Overall, the present results have potential implications for how organizations can select and develop supervisors and employees.

### **Conclusion**

This thesis was the first to provide insight into a very unique police population, thereby providing an opportunity to explore the emotional and organizational practices of this specialized police stream. From the results we can deduce that training had a moderating effect on variable associations particularly for emotional intelligence; therefore indicating that emotional intelligence is a very unique factor for highly trained police source handlers. This thesis also contributes to a richer and more systematic understanding of the role of emotional intelligence and supervisor support on self-determined work motivation, and work outcome variables. In particular, this study was the first to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and self-determined work motivation, providing support that such a relationship does exist and is worth examining further.

## References

- Antonakis, J., Ashkanasy, N., & Dasborough, M. (2009). Does leadership need emotional intelligence? *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20, 247-261.
- Aremu, A. O. (2005). A confluence of credentialing, career experience, self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, and motivation on the career commitment of young police in Ibadan. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management*, 28, 609-618.
- Aremu, A. O., & Tejumola, T. O. (2008). Assessment of Emotional Intelligence among Nigerian Police. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 16, 221-226.
- Arnold H. J., & Feldman D. C. (1982). A multivariate analysis of the determinants of job turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 67, 350-360.
- Arvey, R. D., & Murphy, K. R. (1998). Performance valuation in work settings. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 49, 141-168.
- Aryee, S. A., Budhwar, P., & Chen, Z. (2002). Trust as a mediator of the relationship between organizational justice and organizational outcomes: Test of a social exchange model. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23, 267-285.
- Assor, A., Roth, G., & Deci, E. L. (2004). The emotional costs of parents' conditional regard: A self-determination theory analysis. *Journal of Personality*, 72, 47-88.
- Augusto, J. M., Lopez-Zafra, E., Berrios, M. P., & Aguilar, M. C. (2008). The relationship between emotional intelligence, occupational stress and health in nurses: A questionnaire survey. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 45(6), 888-901.

- Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B. M. (1991). *The full range leadership development programs: basic and advanced manuals*. Binghamton, NY: Bass, Avolio & Associates.
- Baard, P. P., Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2004). The relation of intrinsic need satisfaction to performance and well-being in two work settings. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 34*, 2045-2068.
- Bar-On, R. (1997). *Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory: Technical Manual*. Toronto, Canada: Multi-Health Systems.
- Barling, J., Slater, F., & Kelloway, E. K. (2000). Transformational leadership and emotional intelligence: An exploratory study. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal, 21*, 157-161.
- Becker, T. (2003). Is emotional intelligence a viable concept?" *Academy of Management Review, 28*, 192-195.
- Bellamy, A. R., & Bellamy, A. R. (2003). Emotional Intelligence and Transformational Leadership: Recursive Leadership processes within the context of employee work attitude. *Midwest Academy of Management, 23*, 19-31.
- Bentler, P.M. (2006). *EQS 6.1 Structural Equations Program Manual*. Encino, CA: Multivariate Software Inc.
- Bentler, P.M. (1990). Comparative fit indices in structural models. *Psychological Bulletin, 107*, 238-246.
- Bentler, P.M., & Bonnett, D.G. (1980). Significance tests and goodness of fit in the analysis of covariance structures. *Psychological Bulletin, 88*, 588-606.
- Bernstein, S. K. (1990). Fourth Amendment: Using the Drug Courier Profile to Fight the War on Drugs. *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology, 80*, 996-1017.

- Billingsley, R. (2001). Informers' careers: motivations and change. In R. Billingsley, T. Nemitz, & P. Bean (Eds.), *Informers, Policing, Policy, Practice* (pp. 81-97). Portland: Willan Publishing.
- Billingsley, R., Nemitz, T., & Bean, P. (2001). *Informers: Policing, policy, practice*. Portland: Willan Publishing.
- Black, A. E., & Deci, E. L. (2000). The effects of instructors' autonomy support and students' autonomous motivation on learning organic chemistry: A self-determination theory perspective. *Science Education, 84*, 740-756.
- Blais, M. R., Hess, U., Bourbonnais, J., Saintonge, J., & Riddle, A. (1995). Mens sana ad corpus sanum: Un modèle de motivation-stress-santé appliqué au couple et au travail. *Santé mentale au Québec, 20*, 139-162.
- Blais, M. R., Brière, N. M., Lachance, L., Riddle, A. S., & Vallerand, R. J. (1993). L'Inventaire des Motivations au Travail de Blais (IMTB) [Blais Work Motivation Inventory (BWMI)]. *Revue Québécoise de psychologie, 14*, 185-214.
- Blau, G. (2007). Does a corresponding set of variables for explaining voluntary organizational turnover transfer to explaining voluntary occupational turnover? *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 70*, 135-148.
- Boislard-Pepin, M. A., Green-Demers, I., Pelletier, L., Chartrand, J., & Séguin Levesque, C. (2002). L'Impact du style interpersonnel du partenaire sur la compétence, la motivation et la satisfaction sexuelles. *Revue Québécoise de Psychologie, 23*, 105-121.
- Bollen, K.A. (1989). *Structural Equations with Latent Variables*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

- Bono, J. E., & Judge, T. A. (2004). Personality and transformational and transactional leadership: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*, 901-910.
- Bowling, N.A. (2007). Is the job satisfaction-job performance relationship spurious? A meta-analytic examination. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 71*( 2), 167-185.
- Bowling, N.A., Eschleman, K.J., & Wang, Q. (2010). A meta-analytic examination of the relationship between job satisfaction and subjective well-being. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 83*, 915–934
- Boyatzis, R. E., Goleman, D., & Rhee, K. (2000). Clustering competence in emotional intelligence: Insights from the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI). In R. Bar-On & D. A. Parker, (Eds.) *Handbook of Emotional Intelligence*. (pp. 343-362). San Francisco, Jossey Bass.
- Brackett, M. A., & Mayer, J. D. (2003). Convergent, discriminant, and incremental validity of competing measures of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 29*(9), 1147-1158.
- Brief, A. P. (1998). *Attitudes in and around Organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Brody, N. (2004). What cognitive intelligence is and what emotional intelligence is not. *Psychological Inquiry, 15*, 234-238.
- Brough, P., & Pears, J. (2005). Evaluating the influence of the type of social support on job satisfaction and work related Psychological well-being. *International Journal of organizational behaviour, 8*(2), 472 - 485.
- Brown, S. D., & Peterson, R. A. (1994). The Effect of Effort on Sales Performance and Job Satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing 58*(2), 70-80.

- Buckley, J. (2006). *The Human Source Management System: The Use of Psychology in the Management of Human Intelligence Sources*. London, England.
- Byrne, B.M. (2006). *Structural Equation modeling with EQS. Basic Concepts, Applications, and Programming*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Carmeli, A., Yitzhak-Halevy, M., & Weisberg, J. (2009). The relationship between emotional intelligence and psychological well-being. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 24(1)*, 66-78.
- Caruso, D., Mayer, J.D., & Salovey, P. (2002). Emotional intelligence and emotional leadership. In R. Riggio & S. Murphy & F. J. Pirozzolo (Eds.). *Multiple Intelligences and Leadership*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Chen, J. J. (2005). Relation of academic support from parents, teachers, and peers to Hong Kong adolescents' academic achievement: The mediating role of academic engagement. *Genetic, Social, and General Psychology Monographs, 131*, 77-127.
- Ciarrochi, J. V., Chan, A. Y. C., & Bajgar, J. (2001). Measuring emotional intelligence in adolescents. *Personality and Individual Differences, 28*, 539-561.
- Ciarrochi, J., Dean, F. P., & Anderson, S. (2002). Emotional intelligence moderates the relationship between stress and mental health. *Personality and Individual Differences, 32*, 197-209.
- Coetzee, C., & Schaap, P. (2005). The relationship between leadership behavior, outcomes of leadership and emotional intelligence. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology, 31*, 31-38.

- Cote, S., & Miners, C. T. H. (2006). Emotional intelligence, cognitive intelligence and job performance. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *51*(1), 1-28.
- Cudeck, R. (1989). Analysis of correlation matrices using covariance structure models. *Psychological Bulletin*, *2*, 317-327.
- Daus, C., & Ashkanasy, N. (2005). The case for an ability-based model of emotional intelligence in organizational behavior, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *26*, 453-66.
- De Dreu, C. K. W., Van Dierendonck, D., & Dijkstra, M. T. M. (2004). Conflict at work and individual well-being. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, *15*(1), 6-28.
- Deci, E. L. (1975). *Intrinsic motivation*. New York: Plenum.
- Deci, E. L., Connell, J. P., & Ryan, R. M. (1989). Self-determination in a work organization. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *74*, 580-590.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York: Plenum.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The "what" and "why" of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, *11*, 227-268.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2002). *Handbook of self-determination research*. Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2008). Facilitating optimal motivation and psychological well-being across life's domains. *Canadian Psychology*, *49*, 14-23.

- Deci, E. L., Ryan, R. M., Gagné, M., Leone, D. R., Usunov, J., & Kornazheva, B. P. (2001). Need satisfaction, motivation, and well-being in the work organizations of a former Eastern Bloc country. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *27*, 930-942.
- Deluga, R. J. (1994). Supervisor trust building, leader member exchange and organizational behavior. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *67*, 315–326.
- Diener, E., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J., & Griffin, G. (1985). Life Satisfaction With Life Scale. *Journal of Assessment*, *49*, 71-75.
- Dirks, K. T. (2000). Trust in leadership and team performance: Evidence from NCAA basketball. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *85*, 1004–1012.
- Dirks, K. T. & Ferrin, D. L. (2002a). The role of trust in organizational settings. *Organization Science*, *12*(4), 450-67.
- Dirks, K. T., & Ferrin, D. L. (2002b). Trust in leadership: Meta-analytic findings and implications for research and practice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*, 611–628.
- Donna, R. (2003). *Emotional Intelligence, Negative Mood Regulation Expectancies, and Professional Burnout among Police Officers*. Ph.D.Thesis (Unpublished), The State University of New Jersey, U.S.A.
- Dunnighan, C. (1992). Reliable Sources. *Police Review*, *14*, 1496-97.
- Extremera, N., & Fernandez-Berrocal, P. (2002). Relation of perceived emotional intelligence and health related quality of life of middle-aged women. *Psychological Reports*, *91*, 47-59.

- Extremera, N., & Fernandez-Berrocal, P. (2006). Emotional intelligence as predictor of mental, social and physical health in university students. *The Spanish Journal of Psychology* 9(1), 45-51.
- Federal Bureau of Investigations. (2005). *U.S. Office of the Inspector General. The Federal Bureau of Investigation's Compliance with the Attorney General's Investigative Guidelines: Special Report*. Retrieved from <http://www.usdoj.gov/oig/special/0509/final.pdf> .
- Fernet, C., Guay, F., & Senecal, C. (2004). Adjusting to job demands: The role of work self-determination and job control in predicting burnout. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 65, 39–56.
- Fisher, C. D. (2003). Why do lay people believe that satisfaction and performance are correlated? Possible source of a commonsense theory. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24, 753–777.
- Fortier, M. S., Sweet, S. N., O'Sullivan, T. L., & Williams, G. C. (2007). A self-determination process model of physical activity adoption in the context of a randomized controlled trial. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 8, 741-757.
- Gagné, M., & Deci, E. L. (2005). Self-determination theory and work motivation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 331-362.
- Gagné, M. & Forest, J. (2008). The Study of Compensation Through the Lens of Self-Determination Theory: Reconciling 35 Years of Debate. *Canadian Psychology*, 49, 225-232.

- Gagné, M., Koestner, R., & Zuckerman, M. (2000). Facilitating the acceptance of organizational change: the importance of self-determination. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 30*, 1843-1852.
- Gagné, M., Senecal, C., & Koestner, R. (1997). Proximal job characteristics, feelings of empowerment, and intrinsic motivation: A multidimensional model. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 27*, 1222-1240.
- Gambetta, D. (1988). Can we trust trust? In D. Gambetta, (Ed.), *Trust: Making and Breaking Cooperative Relations* (pp. 213-37). Basil Blackwell, Oxford,.
- Gardner, H. (1983). *Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences*. New York: Basic Books.
- Geher, G. (2004). *Measuring emotional intelligence: common ground and controversy*. Hauppauge, New York: Nova Science Publishers.
- Girodo, M. (1984). Entry and Re-entry Strain in Undercover Agents. In V. L. Allen, & E. Van de Vliert (Eds.), *Role Transitions* (pp. 169-179). New York: Plenum Press.
- Girodo, M. (1991a). Symptomatic Reactions to Undercover work. *The Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease, 179*, 626-30.
- Girodo, M. (1991b). Personality, job stress and mental health in undercover agents: A structural analysis. *Journal of Social Behaviour and Personality, 6*(7), 375-90.
- Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R., & McKee, A. (2002). *Primal leadership: Realizing the power of emotional intelligence*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

- Green-Demers, I. (2005, June). *Interrelations between social climate, emotional intelligence, and self-determined academic motivation*. Canadian Psychology / Annual Convention Issue, 45(2a). Montreal, QC.
- Green-Demers, I. (1997). *When boredom gives birth to motivation: Interrelations between interest-enhancing strategies, interest, and self-determination* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Ottawa, Ontario, Canada.
- Green-Demers, I., Pelletier, L. G., & Menard, S. (1997). The impact of behavioral difficulty on the saliency of environmental behaviors. *Canadian Journal of Behavioral Science*, 29, 157-166.
- Green-Demers, I., Pelletier, L. G., Stewart, D. G., & Gushue, N. R. (1998). Coping with less interesting aspects of training: Toward a model of interest and motivation enhancement in individual sports. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 20, 251-261
- Greenberg, J., & Cropanzano, R. (Eds.). (1999). *Advances in organizational justice*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University.
- Greenspan, S. I. (1989). Emotional intelligence. In K. Field, B. J. Cohler, & G. Wool (Eds.), *Learning and education: Psychoanalytic perspectives* (pp. 209-243). Madison, CT: International Universities Press.
- Greer, S. (1995). Towards a sociological model of the police informant. *The British Journal of Sociology*, 46, 509-527.
- Griffin, M., Patterson, M., & West, M. (2001). Job satisfaction and teamwork: The role of supervisor support. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 22(5), 537-550.

- Guay, F., Ratelle, C. F., & Chanal, J. (2008). Optimal learning in optimal contexts: The role of self-determination in education. *Canadian Psychology, 49*, 233–240.
- Halvari, A. E. M., & Halvari, H. (2006). Motivational predictors of change in oral health: An experimental test of self-determination theory. *Motivation and Emotion, 30*, 295-306.
- Harteis, C., Bauer, J., Festner, D., Gruber, H. and Heid, H. (2005). Self-determination in daily working life. In Gruber, H., Harteis, C., Mulder, R.H. and Rehrl, M. (Eds), *Bridging Individual, Organisational, and Cultural Perspectives on Professional Learning* (pp. 244-52). Roderer, Regensburg.
- Harms, P. D., & Crede, M. (2010). Emotional intelligence and transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 17* (1), 5-17.
- Hendricks, L., Vlek, C, & Calje, H. (1992). Effects of Frequency and Scenario Information on the Evaluation of Large-Scale Risks. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 52*(2), 256-276.
- Higgs, M., & Dulewicz, V. (2008). *Emotional intelligence, well-being and personality: An empirical study of their interrelationship*. Discussion Papers in Management. University of Southampton, Southampton.
- Hill, E., & Sibthorp, J. (2006). Autonomy support at diabetes camp: A self-determination theory approach to therapeutic recreation. *Therapeutic Recreation Journal, 40*, 107-125.
- Hooper, A., & Potter, J. (2000). *Intelligent leadership: creating a passion for change*. London: Random House.

- Ilardi, B. C., Leone, D., Kasser, T., & Ryan, R. M. (1993). Employee and supervisor ratings of motivation: Main effects and discrepancies associated with job satisfaction and adjustment in a factory setting. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 23*, 1789-1805.
- Jaeger, A. J. (2003). Job competencies and the curriculum: An inquiry into emotional intelligence in graduate professional education. *Research in Higher Education, 44*(6), 615-639.
- Jang, H. (2008). Supporting Students' Motivation, Engagement, and Learning During an Uninteresting Activity. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 100*(4), 798-811.
- Johnson J. W. (2003). Toward a better understanding of the relationship between personality and individual job performance. In Barrick M, Ryan AM (Eds.), *Personality and work* (pp. 83-120). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Jokisaari, M., & Nurmi, J. (2009). Change in newcomers' supervisor support and socialization outcomes after organizational entry. *Academy of Management Journal, 52*(3), 527-544.
- Jones, M. V. (2003). Controlling emotions in sport. *The Sport Psychologist, 17*, 471-486.
- Joussemet, M., Landry, R., & Koestner, R. (2008). A self-determination theory perspective on parenting. *Canadian Psychology, 49*, 194-200.
- Judge, T. A., & Locke E. A. (1993). Effect of Dysfunctional Thought Processes on Subjective Well Being and Job Satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*, 475-490.

- Judge, T. A., & Bono, J. E. (2001). Relationship of Core Self-Evaluations Traits-Self-Esteem, Generalized Self-Efficacy, Locus of Control, and Emotional Stability-with Job Satisfaction and Job Performance: A Meta-Analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 86, 80-92.
- Judge, T. A., Parker, S., Colbert, A. E., Heller, D., & Ilies, R. (2001). Job satisfaction: A cross-cultural review. In N. Anderson, D. S. Ones, H. K. Sinangil, & C. Viswesvaran (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial, work and organizational psychology* (pp. 25–52). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Judge, Y., & Piccolo, R. (2004). Transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 755-768.
- Judge, T. A., Thoresen, C. J., Bono, J. E., & Patton, G. K. (2001). The job satisfaction-job performance relationship: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Psychological Bulletin*, 127, 376-407.
- Judge, T. A., & Watanabe, S. (1993). Another look at the job satisfaction–life satisfaction relationship. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78, 939–948.
- Kamman, R., & Flett, R. (1983). Affectometer 2: A scale to measure current level of general happiness. *Australian Journal of Psychology*, 35, 259–265.
- Kaplan, S. E., Reneau, J. H., & Whitecotton, S. (2001). The effects of predictive ability information, locus of control, and decision maker involvement on decision aid reliance. *Journal of Behavioral Decision Making*, 14(1), 35-50.
- Keaveney, S. M., & Nelson, J. E. (1993). Coping with organizational role stress: Intrinsic motivational orientation, perceived role benefits, and psychological withdrawal. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 21, 113-124.

- Kelly, G. (1955). *The psychology of personal constructs*. New York: Norton.
- Kennedy, S., Gogin, K., & Nollen, N. (2004). Adherence to HIV medications: Utility of the theory of self-determination. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, 28, 611-628.
- Kihstrom, J. & Cantor, N. (2000). Social Intelligence. In Sternberg, R. J. *Handbook of Intelligence* (pp. 359-379). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Kimmons, G., & Greenhaus, J. H. (1976). Relationship between locus of control and reactions of employees to work characteristics. *Psychological Reports*, 39, 815-820.
- Kirkman, B. L., & D. L. Shapiro (2001). The Impact of Cultural Values on Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment in Self-Managing Work Teams: The Mediating Role of Employee Resistance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44, 557-579.
- La Guardia, J. G. (2009). Developing who I am: A Self-determination Theory approach to the establishment of healthy identities. *Educational Psychologist*, 44, 97-104.
- La Guardia, J. G., & Patrick, H. (2008). Self-determination theory as a fundamental theory of close relationships. *Canadian Psychology*, 49, 201-209.
- La Guardia, J. G., Ryan, R. M., Couchman, C. E., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Within-person variation in security of attachment: A self-determination theory perspective on attachment, need fulfillment, and well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 79, 367-384.
- Lam, C. F. & Gurland, S. T. (2008). Self-determined work motivation predicts job outcomes, but what predicts self-determined work motivation? *Journal of Research in Personality*, 42, 1109-1115.

- Landy, F. (2005). Some historical and scientific issues related to research on emotional intelligence. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 411-424.
- Lauver, K.J., & Kristof-Brown, A. (2001). Distinguishing between Employees' perceptions of Person-Job and Person-Organization Fit. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 59, 3454-470.
- Lawler, E. E., III, & Porter, L. W. (1967). The effect of performance on job satisfaction. *Industrial Relations*, 7, 20-28.
- Legault, L., Green-Demers, I., Grant, P., & Chung, J. (2007). On the self-regulation of implicit and explicit prejudice: A self-determination theory perspective. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 33, 732-749.
- Leuner, B. (1966). Emotional intelligence and emancipation. *Praxis der Kinderpsychologie und Kinderpsychiatrie*, 15, 193-203.
- Levesque, M., Blais, M. R., & Hess, U. (2004a). Motivational dynamic of burnout and well-being in African teachers/Dynamique motivationnelle de l'épuisement et du bien-être chez des enseignants africains. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science/Revue canadienne de sciences du comportement*, 36, 190-201.
- Levesque, M., Blais, M. R., & Hess, U. (2004). Motivation, discretionary organizational behaviors, and wellbeing in an African setting: When is it a duty? / Motivation, comportements organisationnels discrétionnaires et bien-être en milieu Africain: Quand le devoir oblige? *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science/Revue canadienne de sciences du comportement*, 36, 321-333.

- Levenson, H. (1974). Activism and powerful other: Distinction within the concept of internal-external locus of control. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 38, 377-383.
- Levenson, H. (1981). Differentiating among internality, powerful others, and chance. In H. M. Lefcourt (Ed.), *Research with the locus of control construct* (Vol.1, pp. 15-63). New York: Academic Press.
- Locke, E. (2005). Why emotional intelligence is an invalid concept. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 425-431.
- Low, G. S., Cravens, D. W., Grant, K., & Moncrief, W. C. (2001). Antecedents and consequences of salesperson burnout. *European Journal of Marketing*, 35, 587-615.
- Lucas, R. E., Diener, E., & Suh, E. (1996). Discriminant validity of well-being measures. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 71, 616-628.
- MacCann, C., & Roberts, R. D. (2008). New paradigms for assessing emotional intelligence: Theory and data. *Emotion*, 8, 540-551.
- Maertz, C. P Jr., & Campion, M. A. (1998). 25 years of voluntary turnover research: A review and critique. In Cooper, C. L. & Robertson, I. T. (Eds.), *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology* (Vol. 13, pp. 49-86). Chichester UK: John Wiley & Sons.
- Marsh, H. W. & Richards, G. E. (1986). The Rotter Locus of Control Scale: The comparison of alternative response formats and implications for reliability, validity and dimensionality. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 20, 509-558.
- Marx G. T. (1988). *Undercover: Police Surveillance in America*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

- Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual Review of Psychology* 52, 397–422.
- Maslach, C., Jackson, S.E., & Leiter, M.P. (1996). *MBI: The Maslach Burnout Inventory: Manual*. Palo Alto: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Matthews, G., Zeidner, M., & Roberts, R. D. (2004). *Emotional intelligence: Science and myth*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. R., & Salovey, P. (1999). Emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for an intelligence. *Intelligence*, 27, 267-298.
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2000a). Models of emotional intelligence. In R. J. Sternberg (Eds.), *Handbook of intelligence* (pp. 396–420). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2000b) Emotional Intelligence as Zeitgeist, as Personality, and as a Mental Ability. In R. Bar-On, & J. D. A. Parker (Eds.). *The Handbook of Emotional Intelligence* (pp. 92-117). ). New York: Jossey-Bass.
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2002). *Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test: Manual*. Toronto, Ontario, Canada: Multi-Health Systems.
- Mayer, J. D. & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. Sluyter (Eds). *Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Implications for educators* (pp. 3-31). New York: Basic Books.
- Meyer, B. B., & Fletcher, T. B. (2007). Emotional Intelligence: A theoretical overview and implications for research and professional practice in sport psychology. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 19, 1-15.

- Miquelon, P., & Vallerand, R. J. (2008). Goal motives, well-being, and physical health: An integrative model. *Canadian Psychology, 49*, 241-249.
- Mischel, W. (1968). *Personality and assessment*. New York: Wiley.
- Mischel, W. (1973). Toward a cognitive social learning reconceptualization of personality. *Psychological Review, 80*, 252-283.
- Momeni, N. (2009). The relation between managers' emotional intelligence and the organizational climate they create. *Public Personnel Management, 38*(2), 35-48.
- Mor Barak, M. E., Nissly, J. A., & Levin, A. (2001). Antecedents to retention and turnover among child welfare, social work, and other human service employees: What can we learn from past research? A review and meta-analysis. *The Social Service Review, 75*, 625-661.
- Morris, J. (1983). *Police informant management*. Loomis, CA: Palmer Enterprises.
- Motowidlo, S. J., Borman, W. C., & Schmit, M. J. (1997). A theory of individual differences in task and contextual performance. *Human Performance, 10*, 71-83.
- Ng, T. W. H., Eby, L. T., & Sorensen, K. L. (2006). Locus of control at work: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 27*, 1057-1087.
- Otis, N., & Pelletier, L. G. (2004). *The interpersonal behaviours scale (IBS): Perceptions of autonomy support, criticism, and relatedness in different life domains*. Manuscript submitted for publication, University of Ottawa.
- Otis, N., & Pelletier, L. G. (2005). A motivational model of daily hassles, physical symptoms and future work intentions among police officers. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 35*, 2192-2214.

- Payne, W. L. (1986). A study of emotion: Developing emotional intelligence; Self-integration; relating to fear, pain and desire. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 47, (01), p. 203A. (University Microfilms No. AAC8605928).
- Pelletier, L. G., Fortier, M. S., Vallerand, R. J., & Brière, N. M. (2001). Associations among perceived autonomy support, forms of self-regulation, and persistence: A prospective study. *Motivation and Emotion*, 25, 279-306.
- Pelletier, L. G., & Otis, N. (2002). *Construction and validation of the Interpersonal Behavior Scale*. Unpublished manuscript.
- Pelletier, L. G., & Sharp, E. (2008). Persuasive communication and proenvironmental behaviours: How message tailoring and message framing can improve the integration of behaviours through self-determined motivation. *Canadian Psychology*, 49, 210–217.
- Pelletier, L. G., Tuson, K. M., Green-Demers, I., Noels, K., & Beaton, A.M. (1998). Why are you 157 doing things for the environment? The Motivation Toward the Environment Scale (MTES). *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 28, 437-468.
- Pelletier, L. G., Vallerand, R. J., Green-Demers, I., Blais, M. R., & Brière, N. M. (1995). Loisirs et santé mentale: Les relations entre la motivation pour la pratique des loisirs et le bien-être psychologique. *Revue Canadienne des Sciences du Comportement*, 27, 140-158.
- Pelletier, L. G., Vallerand, R. J., Green-Demers, I., Blais, M. R., & Brière, N. M. (1996). Vers une conceptualisation multidimensionnelle du loisir: Construction et validation de l'Échelle de motivation vis-à-vis les loisirs (EML). *Loisir et Société*, 19, 559-585.

- Petrides, K.V., Fredrickson, N., & Furnham, A. (2004). The role of trait emotional intelligence in academic performance and deviant behaviour at school. *Personality and Individual Differences, 36*, 277-293.
- Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2000). On the dimensional structure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences, 29*, 313-320.
- Petrides, K.V. and Furnham, A. (2006). The role of trait emotional intelligence in a gender-specific model of organizational variables. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 36*, 552-69.
- Piaget, J. (1972). *The psychology of intelligence*. Totowa, NJ: Littlefield Adams.
- Poon, J.M.L. (2004). Effects of performance appraisal politics on job satisfaction and turnover intention. *Personnel Review, 33*, 322-334.
- Presson, P. K., Clark, S. C., & Benassi, V. A. (1997). The Levenson locus of control scales: Confirmatory factor analyses and evaluation. *Social Behavior and Personality, 25*, 93-104.
- Reese, J. T. (1980). Motivations of criminal informants. *FBI law enforcement bulletin, 49*, 23-27.
- Richer, S., Blanchard, C. M., Vallerand, R. J. (2002). A motivational model of work turnover. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 32*, 2089-2113.
- Riley, H., & Schutte, N. S. (2003). Low emotional intelligence as a predictor of substance-use problems. *Journal of Drug Education, 33*, 391-398.
- Roberts, R. D., Zeidner, M., & Matthews, G. (2001). Does emotional intelligence meet traditional standards for an intelligence? Some new data and conclusions. *Emotion, 1*, 196-231.

- Robinson, J. P., Shaver, P. R., & Wrightsman, L. S. (Eds). (1991). *Measures of personality and social psychological attitudes*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Roth, G., Assor, A., Kanat-Maymon, Y., & Kaplan, H. (2007). Autonomous motivation for teaching: How self-determined teaching may lead to self-determined learning. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 99*, 761-774.
- Rotter, J. B. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. *Psychological Monographs, 80(1)*, 1-28
- Royal Canadian Mounted Police. (2008). *Federal and International Operations. Types of sources and use of guidelines*. Operational Manual.
- Royal Canadian Mounted Police. (2009). *Federal and International Operations. Types of sources and use of guidelines*. Operational Manual.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist, 55*, 68-78.
- Ryan, T., Clopton, A., & Irwin, R. (2008). Super support. A supportive supervisor, life satisfaction, and the mediating presence of coaching satisfaction. *Journal of applied psychology, 3*, 120-130.
- Ryan, R. M., Stiller, J., & Lynch, J. H. (1994). Representations of relationships to teachers, parents, and friends as predictors of academic motivation and self-esteem. *Journal of Early Adolescence, 14*, 226-249.
- Sand, G., & Miyazaki, A. D. (2000). The impact of social support on salesperson burnout components. *Psychology & Marketing, 17*, 13-26.

- Saklofske, D. H., Austin, E. J., & Minski, P. S. (2003). Factor structure and validity of a trait emotional intelligence measure. *Personality and Individual Differences, 34*, 702-721.
- Salovey, P., Hsee, C. K., & Mayer, J. D. (1993). Emotional Intelligence and the self-regulation of affect. In D.M. Weger & J.W. Pennebaker (Eds), *Handbook of Mental Control* (pp. 258-277). Englewood Cliffs, W.J.: Prentice Hall.
- Salovey, P. & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition, and Personality, 9*, 185-211.
- Sashkin, M. (2004). Transformational leadership approaches. In J. Antonakis, A. Ciancolo, & R. Sternberg (Eds.), *The nature of leadership* (pp. 171-196). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Satorra, A., & Bentler, P.M. (2001). A scaled difference chi-square statistic for moment structure analysis. *Psychometrika, 66*, 507-514.
- Sarrazin, P., Vallerand, R. J., Guillet, E., Pelletier, L. G., & Cury, F. (2002). Motivation and dropout in female handballers: A 21-month prospective study. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 32*, 395-418.
- Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M., Hall, L. E., Haggerty, D., Cooper, J. T., Golden, C., & Dornheim, L. (1998). Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences, 25*, 167-177.
- Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J.M., Simunek, M., McKenley, J., & Hollander, S. (2002). Characteristic emotional intelligence and emotional well-being. *Cognition and Emotion, 16*, 769-785.

- Schutte, N., Toppinen, S., Kalimo, R., & Schaufeli, W. (2000). The factorial validity of the Maslach Burnout Inventory General Survey (MBI-GS) across occupational groups and nations. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *73*(1), 53-66.
- Schwab, D. P., & Cummings, L. L. (1970). Theories of performance and satisfaction: A review. *Industrial Relations*, *9*, 408-430.
- Schwarz, N. (1998). Warmer and more social: Recent developments in cognitive social psychology. *Annual Review of Sociology*, *24*, 239-264.
- Senécal, C., Vallerand, R. J., & Guay, F. (2001). Antecedents and outcomes of work-family conflict: Toward a motivational model. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *27*, 176-186.
- Spearman, E.L. (1904). Intelligence and its use. *Harper's Magazine*, *140*, 227-235.
- Spector, P. E. (1997). *Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes, and consequences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Steiger, J.H. (1990). Structure model evaluation and modification: an interval estimation approach. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, *21*, 309-331.
- Steiner, C., & Perry, P. (1999). *Achieving emotional literacy*. London: Bloomsbury.
- Steinhardt, M. A., Dolbeir, C. L., Gottieb, N. H., & McCalister, K. T. (2008). A Conceptual Model based on research supporting the relationship between the predictors of hardiness, supervisor support, and group cohesion. *Journal of Applied and Experimental Psychology*, *3*, 382-389.
- Strauss, G. (1968). Human relations-1968 style. *Industrial Relations*, *7*, 262-276.

- Sosik, J. J., & Megarian, L. E. (1999). Understanding leader emotional intelligence and performance: The role of self-other agreement on transformational leadership perceptions. *Group Organization Management, 24*, 367-390.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Using Multivariate Statistics, 5<sup>th</sup> ed.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Tadros, C., & Green-Demers, I. (2010, May). *The influence of social support, emotional intelligence, and self-conscious emotions on school motivation.* Fourth International Conference on Self-Determination Theory. Ghent, Belgium.
- Tait, M., Padgett, M. Y., & Baldwin, T. T. (1989). Job and life satisfaction: A re-evaluation of the strength of the relationship and gender effects as a function of the date of the study. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74*, 502–507.
- Taylor, I., Ntoumanis, N., & Standage, M. (2008). A self-determination theory approach to understanding antecedents of teachers' motivational strategies in physical education. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 30*, 75-94.
- Thogersen-Ntoumani, C., & Ntoumanis, N. (2006). The role of self-determined motivation in the understanding of exercise-related behaviors, cognitions, and physical self-evaluations. *Journal of Sports Sciences, 24*(4), 393-404.
- Thoresen, C. J., Kaplan, S. A., Barsky, A., Warren, C. R., & de Chermont, K. (2003). The affective underpinnings of job perceptions and attitudes: A meta-analytic review and integration. *Psychological Bulletin, 129*, 914–945.
- Thorndike, E. L. (1920). Intelligence and its use. *Harper's Magazine, 140*, 227-235.

- Tremblay, M. A., Blanchard, C. M., Taylor, S., & Pelletier, L. G. (2009). Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Work Motivation Scale: Its value for organizational psychology research. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science, 41*(4), 213-226.
- Vallerand, R. J., Fortier, M. S., & Guay, F. (1997). Self-determination and persistence in a real-life setting: Toward a motivational model of high school dropout. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 72*, 1161-1176.
- Vallerand, R.J., Pelletier, L.G., Blais, M.R., Brière, N.M., Senécal, C.B., & Vallières, É.F. (1993). On the assessment of intrinsic, extrinsic, and amotivation in education: Evidence on the concurrent and construct validity of the academic motivational scale. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 53*, 159-172.
- Van Rooy, D. L., & Viswesvaran, C. (2004). Emotional intelligence: A meta-analytic investigation of predictive validity and nomological net. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 65*, 71-95.
- Vansteenkiste, M., Simons, J., Lens, W., Sheldon, K. M., and Deci, E. L. (2004). Motivating learning, performance, and persistence: The synergistic role of intrinsic goals and autonomy-support. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 87*, 246-260.
- Viswesvaran C. (2002). Assessment of individual job performance: A review of the past century and a look ahead. In N. Anderson, D. S. Ones, H. K. Sinangil, & C. Viswesvaran (Eds). *Handbook of industrial, work, & organizational psychology, Vol. 1. Personnel Psychology* (pp. 110-126). Sage Publications: London.
- Walkey, F. H. (1979). Internal control, powerful others, and chance: A confirmation of Levenson's factor structure. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 43*, 532-535.

- Wanous, J. P. (1974). A causal-correlational analysis of the job satisfaction and performance relationship. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 59*, 139–144.
- Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54*, 1063-1070.
- Weisinger, H. (1998). *Emotional intelligence at work*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Wentzel, K.R. (1998). Social relationships and motivation in middle school: The role of parents, teachers, and peers. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 90*, 202-209.
- Williams, G. C., McGregor, H. A., Sharp, D., Levesque, C., Kouides, R. W., Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2006). Testing a self-determination theory intervention for motivating tobacco cessation: Supporting autonomy and competence in a clinical trial. *Health Psychology, 25*, 91-101.
- Wilson, P. M., Blanchard, C. M., Nehl, E., Baker, F. (2006). Predicting physical activity and outcome expectations in cancer survivors: An application of self-determination theory. *Psycho-Oncology, 15*, 567-578.
- Wilson, P. M., Mack, D. E., & Grattan, K. P. (2008). Understanding motivation for exercise: A self-determination theory perspective. *Canadian Psychology, 49*, 250-256.
- Wong, A., & Carducci, B. (1991). Sensation seeking and financial risk taking in everyday money matters. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 5(4)*, 525-530.
- Yamauchi, H., Kumagai, Y., & Kawasaki, Y. (1999). Perceived control, autonomy, and self-regulated learning strategies among Japanese high school students. *Psychological Reports, 85*, 779-798.

- Zevon, M. A., & Tellegen, A. (1982). The structure of mood change: An idiographic/nomothetic analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 43, 111-122.
- Zuckerman, M. (1979). *Sensation seeking: Beyond the optimal level of arousal*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Zuckerman, M. (1983). Sensation seeking and sports. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 4, 285-292.
- Zuckerman, M. (1994). *Behavioral expressions and biosocial bases of sensation seeking*. New York: Cambridge Press.
- Zuckerman, M. (2007). *Sensation seeking and risky behavior*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Zuckerman, M., & Neeb, M. (1980). Demographic influences in sensation seeking and expressions of sensation seeking in religion, smoking, and driving habits. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 1, 197-206

**Appendix A:**  
**Questionnaire Package**

Please indicate the extent to which each item applies to you by using the following scale:

	<u>Do Not</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Moderately</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Completely</u> <u>Agree</u>
1. I know when to speak about my personal problems to others.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
2. When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
3. I expect that I will do well on most things I try.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
4. Other people find it easy to confide in me.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
5. I find it hard to understand the nonverbal messages of other people.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
6. Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and what is not important.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
7. When my mood changes, I see new possibilities.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
8. Emotions are some of the things that make my life worth living.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
9. I am aware of my emotions as I experience them.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
10. I expect good things to happen.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
11. I like to share my emotions with others.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
12. When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
13. I arrange events others enjoy.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
14. I seek out activities that make me happy.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
15. I am aware of the nonverbal messages I send to others.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
16. I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
17. When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
18. By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
19. I know why my emotions change.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
20. When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
21. I have control over my emotions.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
22. I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
23. I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
24. I compliment others when they have done something well.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
25. I am aware of the nonverbal messages other people send.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
26. When another person tells me about an important event in his or her life, I almost feel as though I have experienced this event myself.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
27. When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
28. When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
29. I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
30. I help other people feel better when they are down.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
31. I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
32. I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
33. It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦

<b>Please answer the following items through this question: WHY DO YOU WORK?</b>
--

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>						<b>Strongly Agree</b>
1. Because it allows me to maintain a certain lifestyle.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
2. For the income it provides me.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
3. I ask myself this question, I don't seem to be able to manage the important tasks related to my job.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
4. Because I derive pleasure from learning new things.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
5. Because my job is an important part of who I am.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
6. Because I want to succeed at this job, if not I would be ashamed of myself.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
7. Because I chose this job to attain my career goals.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
8. For the satisfaction I experience when taking on interesting challenges.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
9. Because I need to earn money.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
10. Because it is part of the way in which I have chosen to live my life.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
11. Because I want to be very good at this work, otherwise I would be disappointed.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
12. I don't know why, my work conditions are unrealistic.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
13. Because I want to be a "winner" in life.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
14. Because it is the job I have chosen to attain important personal goals.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
15. For the satisfaction I experience when I perform difficult tasks with success.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
16. Because my job provides me with security.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
17. I don't know, too much is expected of us.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
18. Because this job is a key part of my life.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
19. Because I enjoy my job.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
20. I don't know, I have the impression that I don't have what it takes to do this job.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
21. For the benefits associated with my job.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
22. Because this job is consistent with who I am.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
23. Because by doing my job I am living in line with my personal convictions.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
24. Because my work is my life, I don't want to fail.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
25. Because I want to pursue a career in this line of work.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦

**Using the scale below, please indicate the degree to which each statement corresponds to your feelings concerning your work condition.**

	<u>Strongly Disagree</u>						<u>Strongly Agree</u>
1. My work conditions are excellent.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
2. The hours I work are satisfactory.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
3. The social benefits I receive are satisfactory.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
4. My salary is satisfactory.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
5. I feel I have a lot of personal autonomy at work.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
6. I feel my job provides me with a lot of variety.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
7. I feel I have many opportunities to provide input at work.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
8. I feel I have a lot of job security.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
9. I feel the atmosphere at work is satisfactory.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
10. I have a lot of trust in my organization.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
11. I feel I have opportunities for advancement at work.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
12. Overall, I am satisfied with my work.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦

**Using the scale below, please indicate your present level of productivity.**

	<u>Somewhat Lacking</u>		<u>Good</u>				<u>Very Good</u>
<b>1. Evaluate your performance last week:</b>							
(A) According to your own standards.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
(B) By comparison to others.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
(C) According to your supervisor.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
<b>2. Evaluate your performance over the last six months</b>							
(A) According to your own standards.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
(B) By comparison to others.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
(C) According to your supervisor.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦

**Using the scale below, please indicate to what extent you intend to keep working in your present job.**

	<u>Not my intention at all</u>						<u>My intention exactly</u>
1. I'm planning to continue working here indefinitely.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
2. I occasionally think about quitting my job.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
3. I'm seriously considering switching jobs.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦

**Using the scale below, please indicate the degree to which each item corresponds to your feelings concerning your personal life.**

	<u>Do Not Agree</u>	<u>Moderately Agree</u>	<u>Completely Agree</u>
1. I have little control over the things that happen to me.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
2. There is little I can do to change many of the important things in my life.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
3. I often feel helpless in dealing with the problems of life.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
4. Sometimes I feel that I'm being pushed around in life.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
5. In most ways my life is close to ideal.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
6. The conditions of my life are excellent.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
7. I am satisfied with my life.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
8. So far I have gotten the important things I want out of life.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
9. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦

**Using the scale below, please indicate the degree to which you agree with each item.**

	<u>Strongly Disagree</u>		<u>Strongly Agree</u>
1. I would like to be a mountain climber.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
2. I would like to fly an airplane.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
3. I would like to go scuba diving.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
4. I would like to go skydiving.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
5. I would like to sail around the world.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦

**During the past few weeks to what extent did you feel:**

	<u>Not at all</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>All the time</u>
1. Satisfied.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
2. Tense.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
3. Confident.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
4. Sad.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
5. Useful.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
6. Discontented.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
7. Helpless.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦
8. Optimistic.	①	②	③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦

**Using the scale below, please indicate the degree to which each statement corresponds to your feelings about work.**

	<u>Do Not</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Moderately</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Completely</u> <u>Agree</u>				
1. I feel emotionally drained from my work.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
2. I feel used up at the end of the workday.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
3. I feel tired when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
4. Working all day is really a strain for me.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
5. I can effectively solve the problems that arise in my work.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
6. I feel burned out from my work.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
7. I feel I am making an effective contribution to what this organization does.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
8. I have become less interested in my work since I started this job.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
9. I have become less enthusiastic about my work.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
10. In my opinion, I am good at my job.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
11. I feel exhilarated when I accomplish something at work.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
12. I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
13. I just want to do my job and not be bothered .	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
14. I have become more cynical about whether my work contributes anything.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
15. I doubt the significance of my work.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
16. At my work, I feel confident that I am effective at getting things done.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦

**Using the scale below, please indicate the degree to which each statement corresponds to your feelings concerning your work environment.**

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>						<b>Strongly Agree</b>
1. My supervisor is indifferent towards me.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
2. I feel that my supervisor respects my sense of initiative.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
3. My supervisor provides me with a lot of freedom while remaining available for assistance or direction.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
4. When I do things poorly, my supervisor provides me with helpful feedback.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
5. My supervisor cares about me.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
6. My supervisor provides me with lots of opportunities to make personal decisions.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
7. My supervisor gives me helpful suggestions for improvement.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
8. When my supervisor asks me to do something, s/he gives me a rationale for it.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
9. When my supervisor gives me feedback, I feel a sense of confidence in myself.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
10. My supervisor is genuinely interested in what I do.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
11. My supervisor provides me with useful information about my job.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
12. My supervisor does not care if I succeed or fail.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦

**Please answer the following questions.**

- Gender (circle one):** Male    Female
- Organizational Rank:** \_\_\_\_\_
- How many years have you been a police officer?** \_\_\_\_\_
- Age:** \_\_\_\_\_
- Current Marital Status (circle one):** Single    Married    Common-Law    Divorced

**Thank you for your participation!**