SHARED LEADERSHIP

AN ASSESSMENT OF PARTICIPATIVE MANAGEMENT IN A POLICE ORGANIZATION

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Abstract

This study undertakes an assessment of participative management in a medium sized metropolitan police department. The immediate purpose was to provide feedback to the agency's administration on the workforce impacts of representative employee involvement in policy level decision-making. In the larger context, the study sought to determine what advantages, if any, participative management might offer over traditional hierarchical approaches to police administration. The study set out three research hypotheses: that participative management practices promote labor-management relations; that participative management contributes to employee feelings of organizational support and sense of organizational commitment; and that the degree of improvement in these variables is proportional to employees' actual involvement in participative decision-making. Survey data support the study's hypotheses.

Acknowledgements

My acknowledgements begin with the dedicated men and women of the Broken Arrow Police Department. It is their hard work, pride, commitment, and leadership that form the central thesis of this paper. Without their talents and creativity there would be no research to report. I wish to also express my gratitude to several key individuals who provided assistance with this work. Certainly, I am grateful to Dr. Ronald Peters who coordinated the project. His timely advice and insightful comments were crucial to its successful completion. A special thank you goes to Dr. Brigitte Steinheider, Director of OU-Tulsa's Organizational Dynamics program. Dr. Steinheider conducted the multivariate regression for the study and created many of the graphs appearing in the paper. Capt. Paul Kroutter, of the Broken Arrow Police Department, provided a variety of archival information. Ms. Tracy Lee assisted with retyping of survey instruments and questionnaire distribution. And finally, I must thank Deana, Jesi, Mary and Cody, who put up with my obsession.

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INTRODUCTION

The thing about leadership is – never do it alone. Mark Moore (2000)

It seems paradoxical that our society sees fit to empower police officers with the authority to take life and liberty if the circumstances dictate, yet police administrators are reluctant to empower these same officers to participate in routine decisions affecting their everyday working conditions. While management approaches in the private sector have shifted toward greater employee involvement in the workplace, this trend has not been repeated in the police field. However, an evolving police mission and a changing police workforce are creating pressure for change.

Background

The Broken Arrow, Oklahoma Police Department (BAPD) is an agency where some of these pressures helped create such change. The BAPD is a medium sized police department serving a community of 91,000 in the Tulsa metropolitan area. The agency is staffed by 112 sworn officers and 48 civilian personnel. The BAPD is a full service agency, with many diverse units and functions. It enjoys good relations with the community, a low crime rate, and an excellent reputation as a law enforcement agency.

In July of 2003, I took over as Chief of the Broken Arrow Police Department. In taking stock of the department it was evident that the agency possessed a well educated and capable workforce, but suffered from internal strife. The previous administration had used a decidedly authoritarian management style that was, at times, arbitrary and unpredictable. Trust had been broken at several levels. Consequently, labor grievances and arbitration hearings mounted, low morale pervaded, motivation was low, and

frustration abounded. Following the retirement of the former Chief, I was appointed to head up the agency.

Having come up though the ranks of the BAPD, I knew that the department was blessed with a talented, honorable and well-intentioned workforce, but that lacked the leadership and processes to capitalize on these human assets. The department clung to traditional notions of command and control even though this management style stifled motivation and fostered a backlash that was crippling the department. It was obvious that the previous administration's persistence in centralized decision-making, authoritarian leadership style, and compliance focused policies were ill-suited to the agency's human resources, as well as its self-professed community policing philosophy. Seeing the frustration in the eyes of my coworkers, I began exploring ways to involve them in the lifeblood of the agency. It seemed the best way of doing this was to give employees opportunity for input on the policies, procedures, and management decisions which most directly affected their working lives. It seemed appropriate to share the leadership of the department.

The Leadership Team

In August, 2003 the Broken Arrow Police Department moved toward management practices that would more directly involve employees in organizational decision-making. In this, the commitment was to not just provide opportunities for employees to be heard, but to diffuse power to set agency-wide policy and initiate change. My goal was to create a balance of power within the department that would facilitate a significant measure of employee control over daily work processes, strategic issues and personnel policy. It was hoped that this sort of arrangement would foster a measure of reciprocal trust between the administration and the rank and file. The best case scenario postulated that such an approach had the potential to bind the organization together in common goals, raise morale, create ownership, foster commitment, spur innovation, improve process, and raise productivity.

Ultimately, the center-piece of the BAPD venture into participative management took the form of a cross-functional, steering committee comprised of twelve individuals representing most of the divisions, units, ranks and functions within the department. This representative policy group came to be known as the Leadership Team. These twelve individuals came to the Team by different methods to serve two-year terms. Team members were selected as follows:

- The Fraternal Order of Police (FOP) President and a Divisional Major (as appointed by the Chief) would Co-Chair the Leadership Team
- One FOP Board member (appointed by the F.O.P. President)
- The Administrative Captain
- The Department Policy Writer
- At-Large member of the Department (appointed by the FOP President)
- At-Large member of the Department (appointed by Co-Chair Major)
- Elected sworn member
- Elected non-sworn member
- At-Large sworn member appointed by the Chief of Police
- At-Large sworn member appointed by the Chief of Police
- At-Large non-sworn member appointed by the Chief of Police
- The Co-Chairmen may appoint ad hoc members as the need arises.

The goal was to create a team that was both representative and diverse. Ray and Bronstein (1995) point out that this is imperative to a steering committee's structure, decision-making, and ultimate acceptance by the larger organization, "...the committee must represent all competing interests in the organization. All stakeholders must feel their voices will be heard, and that the choices made will be made on behalf of everyone and will be credible, with livable outcomes" (p. 59). Within the bounds of keeping the group manageable, the intent was to represent as many of the functions and divisions of the agency as possible. Although Thompson (2000) recommends that teams not exceed ten members in order to avoid indecisiveness and the phenomenon of "social loafing," it simply was not possible to create a steering committee of less than twelve people. In the end, the final composition of the Leadership Team was roughly representative of the larger agency in terms of rank, function, union affiliation, tenure, gender, and race.

It was also important that selection of the Team's members be accomplished in a dispersed fashion in order to avoid the "...temptation on the part of management to 'stack the deck' when choosing members" (Ray and Bronstein 1995, p. 60). Therefore, the Team's leadership was split between co-chairmen representing the union and the administration, and selection of members was accomplished by a combination of methods: appointment by the Chief's Office, appointment by each of the co-chairmen, open election, and position or functional appointment.

The Team's power and responsibilities qualified it as what Lawler (1993) would term a "high involvement" structure within the organization, meaning it possessed policymaking authority and the ability to direct the activities of various other components of the organization. The Team's bylaws established it as an independent body, with authority to effect change and make decisions on a wide range of issues. While the Chief's Office retained control of the Team's agenda, once an issue was referred to it by the Chief, its decisions were considered final and binding on all concerned. I decided from the outset that only important issues would be suitable for referral to the Leadership Team. A token body was not what I, or the agency, was after. Currently, the majority of the issues that the Team takes on are internal policy matters. These may include any facet of the agency's policy and procedures, training, equipment, awards, working conditions, grievance resolution, and problem-solving. Matters relating to day-to-day operational policing are generally not within the scope of the Team. However, the Team does assist with strategic decision-making and large scale operational issues if so directed by the Chief's Office. Any member of the Department may forward an issue to the Chief's Office for consideration of referral to the Leadership Team. Generally, issues are routinely forwarded onto the Team for disposition. The only issues that do not fall under the Leadership Team's purview are disciplinary matters, budgetary considerations, or issues that do not rise to a sufficient level of importance as to warrant the Team's attention. BAPD policy, as drafted by the Team, defines the Team's mission this way:

The Leadership Team has been established to help make decisions on issues affecting working conditions, policy, process, and problem solving. The Leadership Team operates independently of the chain-of-command and with the authority of the Chief's Office (BAPD Policy 212).

Assessment

It is now some 18-months into the BAPD Leadership Team experiment and an appropriate time to step back and assess. We want to know whether our foray into the realm of participative management has really had the positive impacts that one might assume; whether the endeavor has been worth our continued time and effort, or whether some aspects of the intervention require refinement in some way. For this assessment, a case study format has been adopted since this is really a story about one organization's

circumstances at a given point in time, its response, and our desire to try to offer some explanation of what may have occurred. However, the story and conclusions may be of interest to other similarly situated police practitioners, their departments, and perhaps to the theoretical audience attuned to such phenomena.

A Participant's Observations

As the reader may have already surmised, I will be contributing my observations as a participant to the record of this case study. While this practice certainly carries with it the liabilities of bias (Hagan 2000; Yin 2003), I believe my observations, interpretations, and opinions offer a value-added perspective, particularly for police executives who may be facing similar problems and contemplating similar interventions. In this regard, I have made every attempt to report fairly and objectively on my insights. Where possible, I have tried to balance my perspective against the empirical data.

The design of this study developed out of my initial impressions of the BAPD's experimentation with participative management. As the Leadership Team took shape and the months passed, it was my sense that good things were happening in the way of employee morale, commitment, union – management relations, and in a number of other indicators of organizational health and productivity. Obviously, I couldn't be sure that my impressions were accurate or, if so, that our participative management practices were the proximate cause. However, based on the literature, it seemed reasonable to assume such outcomes were possible. The research indicates that employee empowerment is perceived as a demonstration of trust, which in turn engenders feelings of value and involvement. Employees then tend to reciprocate this perceived support with greater commitment back to the organization and its goals. This can pay real dividends for law

enforcement agencies attempting to enlist the talents of an increasingly knowledgeoriented workforce in pursuit of community-oriented objectives.

Overview of the Study

Chapter I, <u>Statement of the Problem</u>, will discuss the factors that are currently challenging traditional management assumptions about how to run a police department. In order to understand these challenges, it is important to consider the forces which have effected change in other kinds of organizations, both private and public. It is also important to consider the historical and cultural perspectives that have molded police administrative thinking over the past century and why these assumptions have been so hard to let go of. Finally, Chapter I will detail the purpose of the study and set out the study's principal research questions.

Chapter II, <u>Review of the Literature</u>, begins with a brief overview of the classic debate over scientific versus humanist management theories. This is a debate that seems to have been settled long ago in both private enterprise and public management circles. However, it's a debate still very much alive within American policing. In this, police theorists seem to be at odds with police practitioners as to which approach holds merit. The literature review also presents some contemporary views of public management.

The discussion will then move toward elaboration of principles of direct interest to the study, i.e. participative management, organizational commitment, and organizational support. These concepts are of central interest to the research and, I believe, have implications for other police settings. Each of these operative terms is defined and the findings of related research is presented. Chapter III, <u>Methodology</u>, details the basic research design of the study. This method entails an explanatory, typical site, single case study of the Broken Arrow Police Department (Yin 2003). The suitability of this research design to the purposes of the study is explained, as are research instrument development, constructs, sampling technique, and the overall conduct of the study. The study's theoretical propositions and their attendant research strategies are laid out.

Chapter IV, <u>Presentation of the Data</u>, summarizes the quantitative and participant observation data. Relevant archival data is also presented. The data is interpreted for the reader to highlight findings of significance to the study's theoretical propositions.

Chapter V, <u>Summary and Conclusions</u>, contains the major findings of the study. Research conclusions are broken down in relation to the study's principal hypotheses. The scope and limitations of the study are noted, as are the significance of the findings for the Broken Arrow Police Department. Implications for other law enforcement organizations, as well as the art of police administration are also examined.

CHAPTER I: STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The fundamental difficulty is that we have not yet learned enough about organizing and managing the human resources of enterprise Douglas McGregor (1960)

Policing currently confronts problems that would be unrecognizable in a bygone era. World terrorism, cultural diversity, information technology, mass media, quality of life concerns, and demands for access, accountability, and collaboration are just a few of the challenges that have combined to fundamentally change the landscape for policing. Complexity, rapidity, and transparency have simultaneously made it more difficult to discern emerging problems and any missteps more apparent. Roberg and Kuykendal (1999) note that the complexity and dynamics of the environment in which modern policing must operate is constantly evolving, "There are so many things going on affecting the American police that trying to make sense of its "present" is already difficult; delineating its "future" is almost impossible" (p. 501). Many of the new challenges police agencies face mirror changes in the larger society they serve. Just as private and public organizations in other fields have had to adapt to changes in their environments, so too must police organizations – or so it would seem.

The evidence suggests that prevailing police management philosophies are largely out of sync with the modern police mission (Goldstein 1990; Kelling and Coles 1996; Fridell 2004a; Skogan 2004; Mastrophski 1998; Morreale, Bond and Dahlin 2003; Alarid 1999). Traditional top-down hierarchical assumptions continue to dominate police organizational thinking. While these approaches may have made perfect sense in a different era preoccupied solely with crime control and accountability, they are ill-suited to the contemporary mandates of community-oriented, intelligence-based policing. Policing in the 21st century revolves around engagement, problem solving, proactive strategies, technology, information, and a far more sophisticated workforce. Herman Goldstein (1990) states the basic problem, "Existing management styles have, in many instances, impeded efforts to alter and improve services provided to the community. They have failed to adjust to changing concepts of the police role" (p. 148).

Rhetoric and Reality

An examination of the police management literature reveals considerable and increasing discussion revolving around concepts such as employee autonomy, inclusion, empowerment, participation, and support, particularly as they relate to the concept of community-oriented policing (Thibault, Lynch and McBride 1998; Scott 2000; Kelling and Coles 1996; Cordner 2004; Cowper 1991; Fridell 2004a; Goldstein 1990; Lynch 1998; Peak and Glensor 2002; Skogan 2004; Mastrofsky 1998) However, it appears this is more rhetoric than reality. By and large, police organizations remain highly centralized in their decision-making, structurally vertical, rule bound, and mired in power relationships. It appears police organizational thinking has not evolved beyond the old Theory X assumptions about the nature of workers and the essential work relationship (McGregor 1960). For instance, a five-year study of police officers in Australia and New Zealand found that officers there felt that police organizations were not supportive of them and did not exhibit trust, respect, or recognition of their experience and knowledge in decision-making processes (Beck 1999). Cordner, Scarborough, and Sheehan (2004) sum up the paradox of police work and police management,

What organizational structure and management style are appropriate for such an enterprise (policing)? If we were to judge by the typical police

department, our answer would be a hierarchical, centralized organization with an authoritarian, punishment-oriented management style. Some observers doubt, however, that this style of administration is best suited to manage workers (police officers) whose jobs involve making momentous life-and-death discretionary decisions, in unpredictable situations, without benefit of supervisory advice. We agree with these observers (p. 39).

Although rhetoric about power-sharing in the field of policing abounds, there is little apparent evidence of its existence. This assumption is backed up by a 2002 national survey of police departments that showed that while 70% of agencies had decentralized some operations in support of community policing efforts, only 22% had "delayered" to any extent by reducing bureaucratic hierarchy or pushing authority and decision-making down in the organization to any significant degree (Fridell 2004b). What's more, we don't even understand much about how police administrative decisions are typically made – autocratic, participative, or otherwise. Morreale et al (2003) note that most of the research on police decision-making has centered on line-officer discretion, while little study has been devoted to police administrative decision-making. This appears to be a valid observation. A cursory survey of the literature revealed that various iterations of police participative management, managerial decision-making, employee empowerment, involvement, or several other key word combinations produced only wholly theoretical papers and no empirical studies that specifically examined existing administrative decision-making or participative management practices in American policing.

Police managers are averse to power sharing for a variety of reasons: bureaucratic inertia, traditional managerial assumptions about superior-subordinate relationships,

pressures for accountability, law enforcement's historical roots, general distrust of human nature, poor managerial training, and, of course, and jealously guarded power relationships. It seems American policing cannot escape its paramilitary, control oriented heritage. This is curiously ironic considering that even the post-Vietnam U.S. military has evolved inclusive decision-making models and dispersed leadership styles (Morreale and Ortmeier 2004; Morreale et al 2003; Townsend and Gebhardt 1997). While private enterprise, and much of the public sector, have adapted to the demands of what Drucker (2002) calls the "Next Society" by evolving more flattened organizational structures and more democratic management styles, this trend has not migrated into the field of policing (Fridell 2004a; Mastrophsky 1998; Skogan 2004; Cordner, Scarborough and Sheehan 2004). A widening disjuncture is developing between modern management principles and prevailing police administration. Evolving workforce trends and labor union issues are similarly creating pressure for a reassessment of traditional police management approaches (Kearney and Hays 1994; Ospina and Yaroni 2003; Flynn 2004). A closer look at these social trends is in order.

Quality, Knowledge, and the Means of Production

The structure, management philosophy, and internal relationships of the corporate world have been transformed by the advent of the Quality Movement, the Knowledge Era, and advances in technology (Deming 1986; Drucker 2002). Global competition, compressed market timelines, the proliferation of information, rapidly evolving technology, and an emphasis on quality have combined to place a premium on innovation, adaptability, and organizational learning. Today's successful enterprises are "learning organizations" (Senge 1990). Garvin (1993) describes a learning organization as, "...an organization skilled at creating, acquiring, and transferring knowledge, and at modifying its behavior to reflect new knowledge and insights" (p. 80). Learning organizations value their human capital and evolve structures more aligned with such assets,

While traditional organizations require management systems that control people's behavior, learning organizations invest in improving the quality of thinking, the capacity for reflection and team learning, and the ability to develop shared visions and shared understandings of complex business issues. It is these capabilities that will allow learning organizations to be both more locally controlled and more well coordinated than their hierarchical predecessors (Senge 1990, p. 289).

To foster this kind of learning, Senge argues that organizations must increasingly become "localized," in that power and authority should be distributed as far from the top as possible. The key is empowerment at the production or service delivery point; "Localness means unleashing people's commitment by giving them the power to act, to try out their own ideas and be responsible for producing results" (Senge 1990, p. 287). Learning and employee involvement go hand-in-hand in the creation of organizations built for adaptive rather than stable missions (Mohrman and Mohrman 1993).

This strategic emphasis on quality, knowledge, and organizational learning has raised the stock of knowledge workers and consumers alike. Workplace power relationships have fundamentally shifted in favor of the worker (Belasco and Strayer 1993; Townsend and Gebhardt 1997; Drucker 2002; Maccoby 1989). In many ways, the

scientific management theories of Frederick Taylor have been turned inside-out. Management's function has shifted more and more toward supporting rather than controlling workers. Essentially, the means of production have shifted into the hands of knowledge workers (Belasco and Strayer 1993; Drucker 2002; Maccoby 1989). Consequently, organizational hierarchies have flattened and decentralized (Galbraith 1993). Quinn, Anderson and Finkelstein (1996) describe what is occurring in many fields of business,

Many successful enterprises we have studied have abandoned hierarchical structures, organizing themselves in patterns specifically tailored to the particular way their professional intellect creates value. Such reorganization often involves breaking away from traditional thinking about the role of the center as a directing force (p. 76).

Michael Maccoby (1989) refers to this trend as "Technoservice." Technoservice entails employing the latest technological knowledge to benefit customers and clients. To capitalize on information sharing and technological innovation, people are increasingly organized into teams with the authority to make decisions that satisfy both the customer and the strategic goals of the corporation (Orsburn, Moran, Musselwhite, Zenger and Perrin 1990; Thompson 2000; Ray and Bronstein 1995; Wellins, Byham and Wilson 1991). These teams are increasingly self-directed or self-managed. Their authority ranges from process improvement to strategic policy. In the new management paradigm, intellectual capital has become synonymous with business capital. Whereas in the industrial age the means of production were raw materials, mechanical efficiency, and industrial capacity, the locus of power in the new era has shifted to individuals and teams. Belasco and Strayer (1993) describe this transition:

Today the circumstances have changed. The principle tools of production today are not machinery and equipment. Neither is it solely the brainpower of the managerial leadership. Rather, the tools of production are the ideas and talents (the intellectual capital) of the scientist, the machinist, and the programmer. Therefore, the possessors of the intellectual tools of production, the people, will come to exercise effective power (p. 49).

By pushing authority down to those performing the work, management increases the chances that the job will be well done, because it will have been done by those closest to it, who understand the problems and processes, and who are in the best position to learn from their innovations (Townsend and Gebhardt 1997; Watkins and Marsick 1993; Wilson 2000). This is a strategic move to align structure with function and mission by evolving more lateral organizations (Galbraith 1993). Participative management and employee empowerment, both individually and in teams, is a critical component of the new corporate strategy (Lawler 1993; Ledford 1993).

Unionism in the Public Sector

Bucking a trend in the private sector, unionism in the public sector has steadily grown. Douglas (1991) notes that while only 13 percent of the private sector workforce is unionized, fully 37 percent of public sector workers belong to unions. This trend is fairly stable in most public services, with some sectors, such as police, growing at a significantly greater rate (Hurd 2003). Klingner and Nalbanian (1998) attribute the

growth of public unionism to the transition of the American economy from an industrial to a service orientation. Industry has always been the backbone of the labor movement. Douglass notes that the only significant growth in the American labor movement in the last three decades has been in public service. This movement has been facilitated by federal and state enabling legislation. Budgetary constraints, downsizing, use of part-time and temporary workers, outsourcing, and privatization of public services have all contributed to this trend as workers seek job protection in a unionized environment (Douglas 1991; Kettl 1991; Klingner and Nalbandian 1998; Hurd 2003).

To these factors, Richard Hurd (2003) adds increasing pressure from the conservative right. Hurd equates the current policies and political climate of the Bush Administration toward federal employee unions to that of the Reagan era. This is causing a change in the rhetoric and strategy of public unions. Public unions are moving toward intensifying their political action, fighting privatization, expanding organizing efforts, pursuing labor-management partnerships, and supporting labor movement revitalization. However, Hurd points out that a major hurdle to effective labor action at the national level is the essential local nature of most public sector unions.

The current nature and scope of public sector union activity appears to be quite broad, mirroring private sector models. Wages, working conditions, redress of grievances and political activism are commonplace among government employee unions (Douglas 1990; Kettl 1991; O'Brien 1996; Hurd 2003). Klingner and Nalbandian (1998) note that public sector unions have three advantages over their private sector counterparts: 1) Public sector employees cannot pick up and move to another location; 2)

Public employees are also voters; and 3) Favorable court opinions have reaffirmed individual rights and seniority protections.

Douglas (1990) delineates three models of public sector unions. Model 1 is a "No Union" situation in which there is strong anti-union sentiment, an abundance of workers, repressive union legislation, and privatization of services is common. Model 1 settings also generally have strong civil service systems and employee involvement schemes that fall just short of co-determination power relations. Model 2 "Developing Unions" mark circumstances where a union is emerging, but has not yet reached maturity. Here the political and organizational environment is generally apathetic toward unionism and adversarial, win / lose union-management relations pervade. Finally, Model 3, the "Mature Union," denotes an established union-management relationship which is characterized by both formal and informal processes, a spirit of cooperation and conciliation is pervasive, civil service protections are considered superfluous, and codetermination of agency goals and policy is common.

Police Unionism

Quite often police unions tend to fall in Douglas' (1991) Model 2 category. Although police unions are local and individual in character and may vary widely, national umbrella organizations, such as the Fraternal Order of Police or the International Brotherhood of Police Officers, tend to advocate adversarial tactics, relying on formal and legal redress of grievances. This win / lose mentality has occasionally pushed the good of the service aside, as unions have blocked needed and appropriate discipline, or even prosecution of union members in some cases (Gillis 2004). Police unions have also become increasingly political, endorsing and actively campaigning for candidates at the local, state and federal level. There is good reason for this political activism, as studies have found that it pays off in more favorable contractual bargaining outcomes (O'Brien 1996).

Researchers have also found that police unions have a strong influence on police role definition. Magenau and Hunt (1989, 1996) found that police unions had the capability to influence agency policies on a wide spectrum of issues related to the kind of work police officers perform. These authors note that of the three primary functions of police work – law enforcement, order maintenance, and service delivery – unions viewed the law enforcement function as primary and had significant influence on policies related to preserving that function, as well as officer discretionary authority. Jerry Flynn (2004), an executive with the International Brotherhood of Police Officers, points out that if police managers intend to stress the flexible work arrangements and service delivery aspects of community-oriented policing, they should plan on including line officers and union officials early in the decision-making process. Skogan (2004) echoes this sentiment and warns that unless buy-in from unions is sought, they hold the power to thwart community-policing efforts entirely.

New Approaches

It is evident that unionism is growing in some sectors of government enterprise, and changing its tactics across the board. This is particularly true for the police profession where unions are pervasive and hold sway over local politics, working conditions, and policy. Public managers are increasingly seeking more satisfactory methods of interacting with their unions; methods that offer alternatives to adversarial interactions. Increasingly, they are turning to labor-management cooperation (LMC) to

improve relations with unions, enhance service, conserve costs, and improve quality of work life (Ospina and Yaroni 2003). LMC is a labor relations process that facilitates collaborative problem solving and decision-making in order to improve the quality of work life for employees and the ultimate effectiveness of public organizations. It involves both attitudinal changes and the implementation of formal cooperative structures to facilitate collaboration. Critical to its success is the transformation that must occur in the essential roles of managers and workers. Ospina and Yaraoni note that successful LMC endeavors exhibit a merging of roles,

...Managers turned into coaches and became team players along with their employees, while employees and their unions gained power and authority. Employees became an important source of ideas for change, and labor representatives adopted a wider perspective and assumed responsibilities that had been considered exclusively managerial (p. 456).

Ospina and Yaroni (2003) mark three alterations that typically occur in the mental models of LMC participants: a greater appreciation of the service nature of work; an enhanced ability to identify with the other side; and an understanding that cooperation involves a partnership with shared goals, costs, risks, and benefits. They also found that even when individual participants' responsibilities changed and they no longer maintained any LMC duties, their new attitudes toward cooperation and collaboration frequently persisted.

Participative decision-making provides a key link in successful LMC endeavors. This link was identified nearly 40-years ago by Likert (1967) who noted that participative organizations tended to have much better labor relations than hierarchical companies.

More recently, Kearney and Hays (1994) identify participative decision-making as a common denominator in various approaches to labor-management relations. This connection between inclusion and labor relations is present in Total Quality Management (TQM), Quality Circles (QC), Labor-Management Committees, Quality of Work Life (QWL), and various Organizational Development (OD) schemes. The authors link participative management practices to benefits for both individual workers and organizations. Specifically, they identify benefits for workers of enhanced job satisfaction and personal growth. For organizations, the benefits include increased organizational commitment, reduced labor conflict, lower turnover and absenteeism, fewer accidents, higher productivity, and improved problem solving. However, like Ospina and Yaroni (2003), Kearney and Hays suggest that successful labor-management arrangements require trust, respect, communication, win-win mindsets, and shared mental models.

Quality, Knowledge, and the Police

Private enterprise adapted its management paradigm in response to forces that threatened corporate survival. They had no choice but to embrace the quality and knowledge demands of the new environment. This pressure came to a head during the 1980s when Japanese industry brought tremendous competitive pressure on American industry to seek out new management approaches. As W. Edwards Deming (1986) noted at the time, "Western style of management must change to halt the decline of Western industry, and to turn it upward" (p. 18). Although Japanese industry subsequently feel on hard times of its own, much of the spirit of the Japanese participative philosophy survived due to increasing emphasis on knowledge capital, front line workers, quality, and organizational adaptability.

Police organizations do not face the same level of threat that private enterprise does, because they do not adhere to a bottom-line in the same way. However, public organizations, including police agencies, must co-exist with the private sector. The bar has been raised for every enterprise and every form of organization. In effect, police organizations find themselves in competition with the private sector, in that for both fields customer satisfaction defines the bottom-line. The revolution in quality spurred a customer-centric focus which has raised public expectations. This is no less true for police agencies than it is for private enterprise. If Deming (1986) considered the consumer to be the most important cog in the production line, then surely public agencies are realizing that citizens are the most critical aspect of the service delivery process.

In addition, continued advances in information technology and heightened workforce expectations have altered the playing field for all of society, including the police. Both customers and employees expect access and inclusion. Saxton (2004) refers to this as the "Participatory Society" wherein stakeholders are routinely involved in key decision-making processes. Peters (2003) makes a similar reference to the "Participatory State," stressing that the public bureaucracy must be responsive to this trend with regard to both employees and constituents (p. 52). The expected outcomes of this move toward heightened employee and citizen involvement include more distributed power structures and horizontal organizations in the public sector, collaborative strategies, participative management techniques, and communitarian co-production of government services (Peters 2003). Police organizations may have no choice but to adapt to the emerging systems and technologies of the modern era by recognizing the reality of the participatory society.

New modes of thinking about the purpose and process of government services are required for this participatory state of affairs. Senge's (1990) Learning Organization, Heifetz' (2000) Adaptive Work, and Mark Moore's (1998) Strategic Management all share a common theme of purposefulness, insight into the shifting environment, and organizational flexibility. In the same way that the Quality Movement and Knowledge Era caused business to adapt and learn, modern policing is being pushed (or perhaps dragged) toward a more innovative and proactive mindset.

It seems obvious that police executives should come to the same conclusions as their private sector counterparts and adopt the new management theories with relatively little resistance. In consideration of growing public sector unionism, police administrators have an even greater incentive to explore alternative approaches to managing human resources than do corporate executives. However, police administrators have shown little enthusiasm for change. Innovation is notoriously slow to filter into police work. There are a number of historical, cultural, and educational reasons that may account for this inertia. Perhaps the most powerful disincentive to change is rooted in the historical traditions of the law enforcement profession.

Historical Context of Police Administration

Political Era

Prior to 1920, urban police work was marked by political interference. Police organizations were controlled by politicians in a decentralized manner, based on a ward structure. Provision of police services and internal promotion often were tied more to

political power, than to crime suppression or merit (Dantzker 1999). Kelling and Coles (1996) describes the situation this way:

This reputation grew out of the integration of police with local political machines governing cities from smoke filled rooms. As adjuncts of wardbased political machines, the police were not only indispensable in providing ward services, the source of their jobs – ward-based patronage – ensured their loyalty to local politicians. Consequently, one form of police corruption involved using their power to keep politicians in office. Police also accepted payoffs for under-enforcing unpopular laws, especially vice law which targeted alcohol consumption (p. 73).

American policing grew out of local attempts to replicate the London Metropolitan Police model of the early 19th century. This model was fashioned along military lines of centralized control. However, due to the nature of local politics, this model never really took hold, as the American police remained decentralized and subject to inept leadership (Walker 1992). Passage of the Eighteen Amendment only exacerbated the problem of corruption in U.S. law enforcement.

By 1931, things had gotten bad enough that the federal government convened the Wickersham Commission to consider failed federal, state and local attempts at enforcement of the Eighteenth Amendment. Its Report on the Enforcement of the Prohibition Laws of the United States pointed to numerous problems, including widespread corruption among law enforcement agents at all levels. In any given year of the prohibition laws, the discharge rate among enforcement agents for corruption was over ten percent. The Wickersham Commission report also noted the corrupting

influence of local politics, offering recommendations for removing political influence from police service. Among the recommendations was the requirement that police leaders should be selected on the basis of their competence, and removable from office only after due process. The Wickersham Commission further recommended testing and standards for officers, decent salaries, and adequate training (Bopp and Schultz 1977).

However, interference by local political machines continued, as did police corruption scandals. Eventually, a confluence of factors brought pressure on American policing to change. Industrialists feared that the working-class sympathies of the police made them unreliable in quashing strikes and maintaining order. Ministers and journalistic muckrakers denounced police corruption (Kelling and Coles 1996). In addition, a new generation of visionary police leaders emerged.

Professional Era

Dissatisfaction with the state of policing in America gave rise to the Professional Era (also often referred to as the Reform Era) of policing that began in the 1920s and continued to the end of the 1960s. The Professional Era was an effort to root out political influence and corruption and gave rise to the Professional Model of policing, which stressed scientific management theory (Dantzker 1999; Lynch 1998; Thibault, Lynch and McBride 1998). This theory emphasized planning, command and control, and formalized procedures. It drew on the bureaucratic theories of Max Weber, Frederick Taylor, and Luther Gulick, which endorsed span of control, organizational hierarchy, efficiency, specialization of function, written documentation, rules and regulations, career professionalism and tenure. The idea of a paramilitary organization for police agencies gained prominence. This structure was seen as a way to instill discipline, control, and accountability (Klockers 1985).

Reformers like August Vollmer, O.W. Wilson, and William H. Parker led the effort to professionalize police work through training, education, military structure, policies and procedures, and discipline (Deakin, 1988; Dantzker 1999). During his tenure as Chief of the Berkeley, California Police Department from 1908 to 1932, August Vollmer pioneered the use of radio communications, motorized patrol, fingerprinting, polygraph examination, created the first crime lab and the first formalized police training in his Berkeley Police School. Other agencies soon followed suit and police training academies began to appear in major cities, followed by the first college-educated police officers. Another reform minded chief was O.W. Wilson, who wrote the first textbook on police administration, served as Dean of the University of California's School of Criminology, and later as Chief of the Chicago Police Department. William H. Parker led the Los Angles Police Department's reform efforts from 1950 to 1966. Under his direction, efficiency, discipline and military organization came to define the Professional Model of policing, with the LAPD coming to epitomize professional law enforcement.

The later Reform Era continued the process of infusing professionalism into police service. Scientific management theories became more sophisticated and began to take into account human behavior in organizations. Work by researchers such as Maslow, McGregor, and Herzberg sought to discover the underlying motivational aspects of human behavior as applied to management theory. These principles began to be utilized by police managers within the context of the traditional control-oriented bureaucracy.

This period represented a subtle shift toward a rational "systems" approach to human resource management (Shafritz and Hyde 1991; Lynch 1998).

During the mid-1960s this systems theory of police management gained momentum and remains the predominant philosophy today (Lynch 1998). Within this view there are elements of both human relations and scientific management theory. The psychoemotional needs of employees are acknowledged in conjunction with the need for hierarchical authority, function and organization. Systems theory emerged out of the professional era of policing, but prior to the community era that was to follow.

Community Era

Civil unrest of the 1960s, combined with political calls for new approaches to policing, generated unprecedented experimentation in the criminal justice field. One response was called "Team Policing" and represented a 1970s precursor to community policing. However, Team Policing failed to take hold and law enforcement returned to traditional approaches. Nonetheless, research continued and a new model was already being tested when rising crime rates of the 1980s, combined with unprecedented violence, gangs, and scandals over police brutality, intensified pressure on major police organizations to take action (Rosenbaum, 1998). This new model was called "community-oriented policing" (COP) and would eventually serve as a new paradigm that would radically expand law enforcement's role beyond what it had been under the Professional Model (Goldstein, 1990).

The Community Era, which marks its beginnings with the early 1980s and continues to the present day, ushered in many changes to the job of policing, dramatically re-ordering priorities. The new philosophy sought to address "soft crime" and disorder,

placed an emphasis on collaborative problem solving and prevention, stressed partnerships with the community, and urged restructuring of police organizations to be more responsive to these priorities (Fridell 2004a; Rosenbaum, 1998; Goldstein, 1990; Sparrow, Moore and Kennedy 1990).

<u>New Job – Old Ways</u>

Although the new community model of policing stressed service and collaboration over enforcement, it did not successfully impact the power relationships within agencies. This is understandable given the historical context of American policing, steeped as it is in corruption, political influence, and ignorance. The systems management paradigm, with its divisional boundaries and hierarchical structure, persists. Modern policing remains somewhat aloof and skeptical of close ties to the local environment. Too much engagement harkens back to the cooptation of the Political Era. The professionalism of the Reform Era was hard won; police administrators are protective of it and remain suspicious of calls for officer autonomy and empowerment. They maintain an almost phobic preoccupation with accountability and conformity. Perhaps this is with good reason. After all, scandals continue, as do charges of inequity in police-pubic interactions. This, in turn, plays into the strengths of the old Professional Model of policing, which stresses control and consistency.

Morreale et al (2003) found that police administrators tend to base their decisionmaking on intuition and experience, rather than research or diverse perspectives. Their study also found a preoccupation with "minimization of error" in police managerial decision-making and organizational change efforts (p. 10). This concern with avoiding mistakes often substitutes for formal evaluation or feedback and represents a damagecontrol mentality that lacks creative synergy. Generally, Morreale et al conclude that police administrative decisions lack any systematic process and that inputs are often haphazard and incomplete. The authors note that law enforcement administrators could benefit by a more consultative decisional process that includes the perspectives of those who must implement such decisions.

Perhaps the apparent reluctance on the part of police managers to experiment with employee involvement schemes is understandable given the training and experience of police officers generally. Theirs' is not a profession that breeds faith in the innate goodness of man. Police learn hard lessons early and often - that not everyone wishes them well, that crime awaits only opportunity, that motorists will speed if given half a chance, that people will lie when confronted with the truth, that truth means little in a court of law, and that law sometimes gets in the way of justice. The cynicism of the street counsels that the wolves are at the door unless someone is willing to stand in their way. Like few others, police appreciate the indispensability of their role in regulating the social order. They understand that human civility may occur by choice, but it is always backed up by a big stick. Police are in the business of imposing rules and sanctions on those who would not otherwise abide. The human animal has not yet evolved to the point that such tactics are unnecessary. Consequently, the police view of human nature is decidedly jaundiced. Such views are hardly conducive to humanist approaches to personnel management.

However, an alternative view might argue that accountability is possible through other methods. Human resource management techniques that stress interpersonal relations, learning, involvement, and empowerment strive to make stakeholders of

employees in the hope that they will become more committed, more in tune with organizational values, and more likely to exhibit positive organizational behavior (Lawler 1993, Lawler and Galbraith 1993; McGregor 1960; Maslow 1998; Likert 1967).

Further militating against control-oriented approaches is a body of research that has established the inherent discretionary nature of police work and the relative futility of attempting to regulate officer decision-making (Cordner, Scarborough & Sheehan 2004; Kelling and Coles 1996; Kelling 1999; Goldstein 1990; Sparrow, Moore and Kennedy 1990; Wilson 2000). From this perspective, it is somewhat self-deceptive to place a great deal of faith in authoritarian management styles. This does not mean that police managers should be unconcerned about accountability, only that they should pursue other methods of seeking it. Wilson (2000) points to the power of organizational culture, peer norms, values and mission to guide the actions of "operators" where rules and regulations may not be sufficient for the realities of the street, "You may design the ideal patrol officer or schoolteacher, but unless you understand the demands made by the street and the classroom, your design will remain an artistic expression destined for the walls of some organizational museum" (p. 371). The new police management calls for inclusion, autonomy, motivation, and commitment. Goldstein (1990) describes this shift in thinking about the management of human assets:

It reflects a major shift from the importance attached to technology and machines to people, with emphasis on the handling of information in decision making, on the ability to think, on encouraging creativity and innovation, on the development of human resources, and on engaging these resources to satisfy customers (p. 156).

Community-Oriented Policing Today

Community-oriented policing continues to have a powerful impact on American law enforcement. During the Clinton Administration, the U.S. Department of Justice created the Office of Community Oriented Policing Services, which funneled billions of dollars into community policing initiatives, including President Clinton's pledge to put 100,000 officers on the streets of America. An important aspect of these federal grants was their community policing focus. Agencies had to adopt COP goals and strategies into their policies and operations in order to qualify for the federal largesse. Agencies across the nation rushed to take advantage of these programs and adopted the rhetoric of COP (Peak and Glensor 2002).

Now, some 10-years after the start of the federal COP initiative, over 13,000 law enforcement agencies subscribe to the community policing philosophy (Peak and Glensor 2002). These agencies are comprised of federal, state and local jurisdictions, large and small, urban and rural. Although the grants have largely dried up due to other federal priorities, the philosophy of community-oriented policing continues to influence U.S. policing. A 1997 survey indicated that more than 85% of law enforcement agencies had adopted a community policing philosophy or were in the process of doing so (Fridell 2004b). These agencies ascribe to strategies of community engagement and collaborative problem solving. However, a 2002 follow-up survey indicated that only 22% of these agencies had reduced their bureaucratic layers or altered their organizational structure in any significant way (Fridell 2004b). Yet, this is precisely the sort of shift in management approach and organizational structure that is necessary to support COP initiatives (Mastrofski 1998; Skogan 2004).

Stephen Mastrofski (1998) recommends four elements of organizational reform for the efficient delivery of community oriented policing: debureaucratization (flattening the hierarchy), professionalization (greater subordinate discretion), democratization (community input), and service integration (holistic approach to service delivery). This structure is more in harmony with the tenets of community policing, as well as the realities of the quality and information era.

Purpose of the Study

This study serves two functions. First, it undertakes an administrative analysis of recently implemented participative management practices within the Broken Arrow, Oklahoma Police Department. The intent of this analysis is to provide the agency's executive leadership with feedback on the workforce impacts of such practices so that they can be assessed, refined, expanded, or discontinued.

Secondly, the study seeks to assess employee perceptions of participative management practices in a police organization. In this connection we will try to identify the operative constructs that attach to PM and evaluate their relevance to the contemporary police workforce and mission. Therefore, the following general research questions frame this inquiry:

- 1. Are participative management practices better suited to the context and workforce of modern policing than traditional hierarchical management approaches?
 - A. Do participative management practices and structures contribute to employee commitment in police organizations?

- B. Do participative management practices and structures in police organizations improve labor-management relations?
- How is the Leadership Team, a participative management structure, perceived by employees of the Broken Arrow Police Department?

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

...For centuries human nature has been sold short Abraham Maslow (1962)

The Theoretical Debate

Management theory of the last century was marked by a rather sharp debate concerning the proper way to manage human enterprise. The lines of demarcation were drawn between the advocates of scientific management on the one side and the purveyors of organizational humanism on the other. The two points of view were clearly delineated in terms of their values and focus. As the 20th century progressed, the distinctions between these positions blurred, as aspects of each were incorporated into modern management theory, eventually evolving into what Lynch (1998) has called "systems management." However, as the 20th century came to a close, and as the pressures of the Quality and Knowledge Era came to bear, the pendulum clearly swung back in favor of the humanists. The individual had assumed primacy once again. Although this debate seems to have been resolved for the time being, at least in aspects of public and private enterprise, it is still in doubt in the field of policing. A clear understanding of the two perspectives is therefore warranted.

Scientific Management

What would become known as scientific management gained prominence from about 1900-1940 (Lynch 1998). Scientific management evolved out of the philosophical foundations of the Progressive Movement, as well as the needs of the industrial era for productive efficiency. Progressivism presupposed that human interaction, be it social or economic, was amenable to positive intervention. Its reform agenda was informed by scientific inquiry and sought a more rational design for social institutions in order to promote personal liberty, economic opportunity, and justice (Eisner 2000). This was a reflection of the Progressive Era's confidence in the power of science and professional expertise to intercede on behalf of the common good.

There has been a tendency to view the principles of scientific management as indifferent to McGregor's (1960) "human side of enterprise." This is incorrect and misunderstands the scientific management movement of the industrial era. True to its Progressive underpinnings, scientific management sought positive interventions in the hope of improving the human condition. If productive capacity could be enhanced through Taylor's time and motion studies, if Weber's principles of hierarchy, unity of command, division of labor, rationality and rules could professionalize bureaucracy, and if Gulick's POSDCRB (planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting) could enhance operational efficiency, then company, worker and the larger society would profit alike (Dantzker 1999).

The influence of scientific management was not confined to industrial settings. Such concepts were also seized upon as a vehicle to remove the public bureaucracy from the volatility of politics, professionalize the administration of the bureaucracy, and apply scientific rationality to the implementation of public policy. In Woodrow Wilson's (1887) words, "The field of administration is a field of business. It is removed from the hurry and strife of politics; it at most points stands apart even from the debatable ground of constitutional study" (in Rickter, Burke & Doig 1990, p. 39).

While scientific management offered more rational approaches to administering organizations, it was criticized for viewing people as passive instrumentalities of industry, for creating organizations that were inflexible and stagnant, and for stressing

technical efficiency over organizational effectiveness (Danzker 1990; Lynch 1998). Ironically, it was the advent of new scientific knowledge that helped overturn the supremacy of scientific management, as new fields of inquiry were opened into the psychology of work.

Organizational Humanism

Elton Mayo's studies of human interaction and productive efficiency in the Hawthorne Plant of the Western Electric Company between 1924 and 1932 marked the dawn of a new emphasis on the human assets of industry (Dantzker 1990; Lynch 1998). Mayo, seeking initially to study the effect of lighting on production, discovered there were far more powerful forces than lighting that had the capacity to affect productive capacity. Social and group norms, formal and informal group leadership, and worker involvement all had the capacity to affect productivity. Further, ego, status, and the simple fact of being the subject of inquiry was discovered to impact worker attitudes and efficiency – the "Hawthorne Effect."

The individual and the psychology of work became the focus of a series of investigators, whose combined theoretical research gave rise to the field of organizational humanism. This view of management enjoyed widespread popularity from about 1930 to 1970 (Lynch 1998). Certain theorists stand out and account for the major pillars of the humanist foundation.

Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs postulated that individuals progress through a hierarchy of need satisfaction: from physiological, to safety, social, esteem, and finally to self-actualization (Maslow 1998). Maslow described self-actualization as "...man's desire for self-fulfillment, namely to the tendency for him to become actually in what he is potentially: to become everything one is capable of becoming" (p. 3). Work plays a vital role in the self-actualization process, "These highly evolved individuals assimilate their work into the identity of the self; i.e. work actually becomes part of the self, of the individual's definition of himself ...This, of course, is a circular relationship" (Maslow 1998, p.1).

Complimenting Maslow's work, Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene theory postulated that maintenance (or hygiene) factors and motivating factors account for employee performance in the workplace (Shafritz and Hyde 1991; Dantzker 1999). Hygiene factors include supervisory practices, policies, working conditions, wages, job security, status, and interpersonal relations. Motivating factors compliment hygiene factors and include such things as achievement, recognition, challenging work, responsibility, advancement, and personal development. In Hertzberg's view, attention to hygiene factors has the capability to reduce employee dissatisfaction and take care of basic needs, but only the motivation factors have the power to improve long-term employee performance (Cordner, Scarborough & Sheehan 2004).

Douglas McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y most directly crystallized the stark contrast between scientific and humanist approaches to management. McGregor (1960) lumped the assumptions of authoritarian approaches into what he termed Theory X management. Its basic premises assume that the average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if possible; that most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened with punishment to motivate them, and that, in the end, workers want only security. In contrast, McGregor offered up Theory Y, which assumes that work is a natural motivation in people, from which they derive satisfaction; that people are capable of self-direction and self-control; that achievement of organizational goals offer ego and self-actualization benefits; that people will accept responsibility if it is offered; that creativity and ingenuity are common; and that the intellectual potential of individuals is typically only partially utilized. For McGregor, the natural outcome of Theory Y management is integration of the individual and the organization, with the result that human assets are enlisted in the pursuit of organizational goals:

The fact of interdependence is accepted; reliance is placed on the knowhow, the ingenuity, the innovativeness of all the human resources of the organization. The mechanics of the participation are relatively unimportant; the underlying assumptions about human beings which are reflected are crucial (p. 115).

Systems Management

By the 1970s, scientific management and organizational humanism achieved a degree of integration (Dantzker 1999; Lynch 1998). Organizational leaders recognized that both approaches held merit in some contexts. Organizational structure, systems and authority have their legitimate place, as do psychology of the individual and group. Systems theory still finds full expression in modern management theory.

Bolman and Deal (2003) express this systems approach in terms of four conceptual frameworks, or mental models, that managers can draw on depending on the circumstances. The *Structural Frame* focuses on goals, relationships, and technology. This frame places greater emphasis on rules, policies and hierarchy, while deemphasizing

human resources or participation. Conversely, the *Human Resource Frame* stresses employee empowerment, inclusion, and integration between the workforce and the organization. The organization is structured around its human assets and their attendant needs, opinions and development. The *Political Frame* sees organizations as arenas of political power, competition, and conflict. Finally, the *Symbolic Frame* encompasses the values, culture, symbols, and metaphors of an organization. The role of perception and emotional meaning is central to the Symbolic Frame. Bolman and Deal view each of the frames as having value in certain contexts. In their *Reframing Organizations* theory, Bolman and Deal express the spirit of systems management, "Reframing requires an ability to understand and use multiple perspectives, to think about the same thing in more than one way" (p.5).

Reframing theory is similar to Rensis Likert's management systems approach. Likert (1967) conceptualized of organizations as falling on a continuum ranging from System 1 to System 4. At the System 1 extreme the organization has little confidence in its employees, offering them little autonomy or opportunity for participation. System 1 organizations are heavily rule laden, controlling, authoritarian, and marked by one-way communication. At the other extreme is the System 4 organization, marked by trust, integration, participation, dispersed authority and decision-making, and freely flowing lines of communication. Systems 2 and 3 fall between the two extremes. Clearly, Likert expressed his preference for the System 4 style, but acknowledged that all four systems were prevalent at the time of his writing (1967) and are still represented today.

Driven by the pressures of the Quality and Knowledge Era, it is clear that many organizations have shifted toward the Human Resource Frame and Likert's System 4.

Interestingly, observers have noted that police organizations seem to be stuck in Bolman and Deal's Structural / Political Frame (Danzker 1999) or in Likert's System 1 (Lynch 1998). Police organizations remain preoccupied with questions of power and authority.

The Nature of Power and Authority

As Peter Drucker (2002) notes, knowledge workers now hold the means of production. Quality, process improvement, technology, and innovation are in the hands of those who control information – those doing the work. This has fundamentally altered power relationships within organizations and in society as a whole. Joe Raelin (2004) points out that,

...bureaucracy itself is gradually breaking down as information is reorganized in the form of distributed knowledge in order to facilitate decision-making. All workers are being given the tools they need not only to run their immediate work function but also to see how their function connects to the rest of the organization. People have access to information that was once the exclusive domain of management (p. 1).

Naisbitt and Aburdene (1990) observe in *Megatrends 2000* that the information era has raised the stock of both workers and the average citizen:

The very nature of an information economy shifts the focus away from the state to the individual. Unlike a widespread Orwellian instructed view that computers would tighten the control of the state over individuals, we have learned that computers strengthen the power of individuals and weaken the power of the state (p. 95).

Belasco and Strayer (1993) express the new management paradigm this way: "Now,

however, the 'person in charge' is the person who formally reports to you. In this topsyturvy world, as a leader you actually work for the people who work for you" (p. 55). Power and authority in organizations is shifting. But, what is the nature of power and authority?

Herbert Simon (1957) defines authority as "...the power to make decisions which guide the actions of another. It is a relationship between two individuals, one 'superior,' the other 'subordinate.' The superior frames and transmits decisions with the expectation that they will be accepted by the subordinate. The subordinate expects such decisions, and his conduct is determined by them" (p. 125). For Simon, decision-making authority is central to understanding organizations. In fact, he defines organization as a plan for the division of work and the allocation of decision-making authority. However, he also points out that all decision-making authority "depends upon the sanctions which authority has available to enforce its command" (p. 152). In other words, authority will only work to the extent it is accepted by the subject of its exercise. Simon also notes that decision-making is always a group process, even though someone may take decisional authority,

It should be perfectly apparent that almost no decision made in an organization is the task of a single individual...we shall always find, in studying the manner in which this decision was reached, that its various components can be traced through the formal and informal channels of communication to many individuals who have participated in forming its premises. When all of these components have been identified, it may appear that the contribution of the individual who made the formal decision was a minor one, indeed (p. 221).

Similarly, Rensis Likert (1967) emphasizes the criticality of information to sound decision-making, "We are coming to recognize with increasing clarity that the capacity of an organization to function well depends both upon the quality of its decision-making processes and upon the accuracy and adequacy of the information used" (p.128). From the logic of Simon and Likert it should be clear that authority is, in fact, a shared quality and is widely dispersed throughout an organization. Decisions are always the collective product of organizational communication and interaction. Therefore, the quality of decision-making is directly related to the quality of information flow, interaction, and acceptance of decision-making authority by all parties concerned.

Where this comes into play in police organizations is that acceptance of authority tends to be either nominal or genuine. In cases where decisional authority is challenged, tacit compliance is usually achieved, but with the result that while the battle may be won, the war is lost. In police settings, critical information can be withheld by the lower and middle echelons of the organization to the point that bad decisions issue from the top, eventually toppling the highest echelon. Authority is indeed a shared and fragile commodity. As Heifetz (1994) notes, "Many of us have been so conditioned to defer to authority that we do not realize the extent to which we are the source of an authority's power" (p.58). And Senge (1990) points out the illusion of authority,

...the perception that someone 'up there' is in control is based on an illusion – the illusion that anyone could master the dynamic and detailed complexity of an organization from the top...In hierarchical organizations, leaders give orders and others follow. But giving orders is not the same as being in control (p. 290).

Power is a slightly different concept than authority. Authority is either legitimate or illegitimate, depending on how is it received by subordinates. As noted in the foregoing discussion, authority's perceived legitimacy ultimately determines its effectiveness. Authority that is not recognized and accepted by subordinates is easily refuted through subterfuge or outright rejection. Power, on the other hand, can be effective in both its legitimate or illegitimate forms. Its existence is immutable. Its overthrow can only be accomplished through its transfer. However, power's weakness is that it is focused entirely on compliance and not on effectiveness.

Amitai Etzioni (1975) places power at the nexus of organizational definition and behavior. He defines power as "...an actor's ability to induce or influence another actor to carry out his directives or any other norms he supports" (p. 4). Etzioni classifies three kinds of power: coercive, remunerative, and normative. Coercive power relies on the exercise of force. Remunerative power consists of wages, benefits, and other types of rewards. Normative power relies on persuasion, manipulation, ritual, recognition, or deprivation. Etzioni typed organizations according to the sort of power they display. He denotes three primary types of organizations: coercive, utilitarian and normative. For instance, prisons or labor camps are at the extreme of the coercive organizations. Religious groups are an example of normative organizations, as they have little direct coercive power, but strong normative values that shape behavior. Industry falls into the utilitarian category, relying on remunerative power to gain compliance.

Etzioni (1975) theorized that although each of the various kinds of power elicits compliance, each also generates different kinds of commitment from participants. This commitment ranges from positive to negative depending on the type of power employed.

Etzioni, in deference to Maslow, also points out that the internal needs of the subordinate are a factor in commitment, "Alienation is produced not only by the illegitimate exercise of power, but also by power which frustrates needs, wishes, desires" (p. 16). Compliance may be achieved by the exercise of power, but overall organizational effectiveness may suffer if subordinates are alienated in the process.

Police agencies tend to fall somewhere between coercive and utilitarian organizations in their exercise of power. Police administrators are apt to use their coercive power to enforce rules and regulations, and ensure accountability. In this, they may achieve a measure of compliance, but at what cost? Cordner, Scarborough and Sheehan (2004) comment on the alienation this often produces,

This control focus collides directly with officers' desire for autonomy and their beliefs about what it takes to do effective police work. So management and officers often feel as though they are pitted against each other not only in the typical labor / management sense but also in the effort to reduce crime and disorder (p. 246).

Questions of power and authority are further complicated in police work by the inherent discretionary nature of the job. James Q. Wilson (2000) points out that government bureaucracies generally have little control over the decision-making of their employees due to vague and shifting tasks, discretionary responses to situational factors, and the influence of peer expectations. However, this does not prevent government organizations from acting as if they do control the behavior of subordinates. Many have extensive standard operating procedures and layers of supervision. But, as Wilson notes, "...government executives have limited influence over subordinates because the

incentives controlled by managers are weak and hard to manipulate. Thus, in public bureaucracy, the tasks of its key operators are likely to be defined by naturally occurring rather than agency-supplied incentives" (p. 49).

Power and authority are slippery concepts. They are illusory, transitory, and not wholly owned by any single entity. The notion that we can build effective organizations through the simple application of power or authority is misguided and self-deceptive. Both power and authority issue from a shared relationship. Perhaps it is time we acknowledge that and structure our organizations accordingly.

Substantive Literature

This section will explore the various constructs that are the focus of the research. These constructs include participative management (PM), organizational commitment (OC), and perceived organizational support (POS). Of these, participative management is the principal consideration and is treated in this research as the independent variable. It is the intervention that the Broken Arrow Police Department undertook in the hope of improving labor-management relations, raising organizational morale and cohesiveness, and improving innovation and work product. The other constructs, organizational commitment and perceived organizational support, are assumed to flow from PM, either directly or indirectly and are treated as dependent variables.

Participative Management

Participative management is known by many names: shared leadership, employee empowerment, employee involvement, participative decision-making, dispersed leadership, open-book management, or industrial democracy. The well known practices of Total Quality Management (TQM) and Quality Circles (QC) fall under the umbrella of

participative management as well. Kim (2002) defines participative management as "...a process in which influence is shared among individuals who are otherwise hierarchical unequals" (p. 232). PM encompasses various employee involvement schemes in co-determination of working conditions, problem solving, and decision-making.

Participative management is, in fact, an old idea. It is grounded in the humanist tradition and traces its lineage to Mayo's Hawthorne studies of the 1920s and 30s, an important aspect of which involved employee co-determination of working conditions (Lynch 1998). Work is an integral component of Maslow's self-actualization theory. The ability of people to accept responsibility, be creative, be involved, and to contribute in the workplace is inseparable from the ability to self-actualize (Maslow 1998). McGregor's (1960) Theory Y places workplace participation at the center of employee motivation and satisfaction, "Participation which grows out of the assumptions of Theory Y offers substantial opportunities for ego satisfaction for the subordinate and thus can affect motivation toward organizational objectives. It is an aid to achieving integration" (p. 130). Similarly, Likert's "System 4 organizations" fully integrate workers into all decisions related to their work.

Participative management attained renewed interest in the latter portion of the 20th century in response to the success Japanese industry seemed to be having with PM strategies such as TQM and QC arrangements (Deming 1985). Threatened by global competition, U.S. business rushed to emulate the Japanese models. As the 1990s and the dawning of a new century approached, it became apparent to American companies that they could not compete internationally in respect to labor costs. Their only remaining

competitive advantages were in their human assets, information, adaptability, and innovative capacity (Drucker 2002).

Several researchers point out that participative management is not a unitary concept. Somech (2002) delineates five forms of PM: decision domain, degree of participation, structure, target of participation, and rationale for the process. Huang (1997) simply separates PM into informal and formal types. Formal types would include suggestion schemes, Quality Circles, profit sharing, stock ownership, labor-management committees, and grievance systems. Cotton, Vollrath, Froggatt, Lengnick-Hall and Jennings (1988) classify PM along six criteria: a) Participation in work decisions where workers have significant influence in important decision-making; b) Consultative participation in which employees have input but little decisional authority; c) Short-term participation in which temporary arrangements give employees decisional authority – common in specific problem solving and process improvement task force arrangements; d) Informal participation which involves no formal structure to facilitate PM, but where managers are receptive to suggestions; e) Employee ownership, a form of PM in which employees are company stock holders and share in the profits; f) Representative participation in which employees do not participate directly, but have formal representation in the decision-making process.

Gerald Ledford (1993) distinguishes between three types of PM. *Suggestion involvement* entails the capacity for certain employees to offer information and suggestions, but no ability to make decisions. Quality Circles fall into this category since they rarely have implementation authority. *Job involvement* refers to systems that give a degree of autonomy to employees over the immediate day-to-day work conditions. The

most advanced form of PM is *high involvement*. This form encompasses both suggestion and job involvement and adds a significant management function. High involvement PM entails power and information sharing, as well as advanced human resource development practices. High involvement organizations frequently employ task force or policy groups to make strategic company decisions. However, high involvement organizations are rare. A 1992 study found that only one-percent of the Fortune 1000 companies utilized high involvement structures, although 80-percent used the lesser forms of PM (Lawler 1993). By Ledford's typology, it appears the BAPD Leadership Team concept would fall under a high involvement classification. Clearly, regardless of the typology used, PM has many facets under which the context and nature of employee participation can vary widely.

The literature asserts a wide array of potential organizational benefits issuing from participative management, in all its forms. Researchers have found that PM may positively impact job satisfaction (Cotton el al 1988; Kim 2002; Spence-Laschinger et al 2004; Robert et al 2000; Spence-Laschinger and Finegan 2004; Williams 1998; Romzek 1989; Lawler and Galbraith 1993), organizational commitment (Meyer and Allen 1997; Mowday et al 1982; Mowday 1999; Spence-Laschinger et al 2004; VanYperen et al 1999), perceived organizational support (Armeli 1998; Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002; Eisenberger et al 1990; VanYperen et al 1999; Lau and Lim 2002), organizational citizenship behavior (VanYperen et al 1999; Eisenberger et al 1990), labor-management relations (Nurick 1982; Ospina and Yaroni 2003; Kearney and Hays 1994), and job performance (McLagan and Nel 1995; Lau and Lim 2002; Huang 1997; Mohrman, Tenkasi, Lawler and Ledford 1993; Ming 2004; Ledford 1993).

However, not all observers agree that participative management is a panacea for improving the workplace, answering the demands of a modern society, or even that it has been successful to any great measure. Charles Heckscher (1995) points out that PM is rarely successful in breaking down bureaucracy, "The rhetoric and the programs talk of one thing, but the reality in the heart of the organization is another" (p. 16). Ledford (1993) echoes this sentiment, "...managers repeatedly show the ability to redefine employee involvement in ways that correspond to whatever styles of management they already practice" (p. 151). Heckscher notes that teams tend to isolate themselves from the larger environment – that inclusion can quickly become exclusion. PM has also failed to account for middle management, that level which is critical to organizational performance. Where PM has been successful in causing a de-layering process, one unintentional consequence is that the span of control tends to increase, thereby reducing supervisor-subordinate interaction, a critical relationship with respect to employee attitudes, willingness to participate, and organizational citizenship behavior (Tepper et al 2004; Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002; Williams 1998; Coyle-Shapiro 1999). Finally, Heckscher asserts that people need leadership; that Open-Book Management styles, which hold no secrets from the rank and file, deprive people of a needed sense of security; that people want to feel someone is steering the ship and that it is headed in the right direction.

Other studies have brought into question some of the basic assumptions of participative management. For example, Coyle-Shapiro (1999) failed to substantiate any relationship between participative management and organizational commitment; Tepper et al (2004) established that supervisory treatment of subordinates is pre-determinate of

the success of PM; and Nurick (1982) found that representative PM schemes may be more meaningful for the representatives directly involved in the process than others.

It is important to note that researchers have found differing outcomes associated with different types of participative management. For instance, Cotton et al, (1988), in their meta analysis of a number of studies on PM, noted that short-term PM has no discernable impact on job satisfaction or productivity, while informal participation and employee ownership do. With significance for the BAPD scenario, those authors found that representative participation does not affect productivity, but does improve job satisfaction, particularly for those who serve in representative capacities. Huang (1997) found that formal participation schemes, such as suggestion systems and labor committees, had the ability to reduce absenteeism and turnover, while Quality Circles could improve revenue growth. When talking about PM it is important to consider contextual issues and the form of participation being studied.

With regard to contextual matters, Kahnweiler and Thompson (2000) found that the makeup of the workforce is a critical factor in attitudes toward PM. In particular, they found that age and education was associated with employees' desired level of inclusion in organizational decisions. A higher level of education was generally associated with increased desire for and perception of involvement in decision-making. With respect to age, employees between 25 and 49 were more likely to desire inclusion in organizational decisions. Gender, however, was not a factor. The authors concluded that demographic factors are likely to affect how well PM is received by employees, and its ultimate outcomes. Similarly, several studies have established differences in the outcomes and perceptions of PM in different contexts and cultures (Huang 1997; Cotton et al 1988; Robert et al 2000).

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment (OC) is defined as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Mowday et al 1982). Mowday et al delineate three characteristics of organizational commitment: a strong belief in organizational goals and values; a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and a strong drive to maintain membership in the organization. OC is active rather than passive. It denotes a sense of identification with and concern for the welfare of the organization. Meyer and Allen (1991, 1997) distinguish between affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Affective commitment is that aspect of commitment which issues from emotion and identification with an organization. Continuance commitment refers to an employee's need to remain with the organization, where continuance is cost related. Finally, Meyer and Allen identify normative commitment, which arises out of obligation; employees remain committed because they feel they ought to.

Mowday, et al (1982) point out that commitment is different from job satisfaction in important ways. Commitment is a global concept which expresses an attitude toward the whole of an organization, while satisfaction is more localized and task oriented. Commitment tends to be stable over time, while satisfaction is a more immediate response. Commitment can also be thought of as arising out of personal, role-related, structural, and work-related characteristics (Mowday, et al 1982). Individual characteristics such as age, tenure, education, gender, and various personality factors have been found to affect commitment in the workplace. Each of these characteristics relate differently to commitment. For instance, age and tenure have been positively associated with higher levels of commitment, while education has been found to be negatively associated. Work role characteristics such as job challenge have been found to positively impact commitment, while job ambiguity and conflict have a negative association. Of particular interest to this study, structural correlates, such as decentralization of authority, participation in decision-making, management receptivity to ideas, and job autonomy have positive ramifications for commitment (Mowday, et al 1982; Meyer and Allen 1997).

Like participative management, organizational commitment has been identified as a precedent to the constructs of job satisfaction (Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002; Romzek 1991; Tepper et al 2004; Spence-Laschinger et al 2004), organizational citizenship behavior (Mowday et al 1982; Mowday 1999; LaMastro 2000), absenteeism and turnover (Mowday et al 1982; Meyer and Allen 1997), and organizational performance (Mowday et al 1982; Mowday 1999; Eisenberger et al 1990). Its antecedents have been identified as participative management (Meyer and Allen 1997; Mowday et al 1982; Mowday 1999; Spence-Laschinger et al 2004; VanYperen et al 1999), perceived organizational support (LaMastro 2000; Eisenberger et al 1990; Mowday et al 1982; Mowday 1999; Meyer and Allen 1997; Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002; Beck 1999), and organizational justice (Spence-Laschinger and Finegan 2004; Beck 1999). Of these antecedents, perceived organizational support will also be examined by this study.

Perceived Organizational Support

Perceived organizational support (POS) refers to the general impressions employees form about the degree to which an organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al 1990). Employees tend to form opinions about the way they are systematically treated by an organization and the motivation behind that treatment (LaMastro 2000). Questions of perceived fairness, supervisory support, rewards, and job conditions combine to mold employee impressions of POS (Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002). An important consideration concerning perceived organizational support is the degree to which such supportive behaviors on the part of the organization are seen to be voluntary as opposed to mandated or coerced in some way (Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002).

Voluntary organizational support is theorized to create a reciprocity normative response in employees that has the capacity to influence organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior (discretionary actions that promote organizational effectiveness), absenteeism, turnover, and organizational performance (LaMastro 2000; Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002; Eisenberger et al 1990; Meyer and Allen 1997; Beck 1999). Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo and Lynch (1998) found that job performance in police officers, as measured by discretionary arrests and citations, was closely associated with POS, but that it was moderated by the socioemotional needs of individual officers. These socioemotional factors include such variables as the need for approval, esteem, social support, or affiliation.

LaMastro (2000) notes a strong causative effect between perceived organizational support and organizational commitment. LaMastro theorizes that POS strongly

influences feelings of OC, "Individuals who felt valued and supported by their organizations were, in this case, more emotionally attached to the organization..." (p. 7). This link is supported by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002), Meyer and Allen (1997), and Eisenberger et al (1990). In a police context, Beck (1999) established a positive correlation between perceived organizational support and organizational commitment in a study of police officers in Australia and New Zealand.

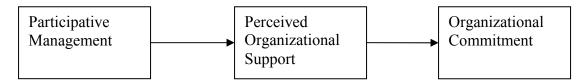
Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002), Lau and Lim (2002), and Van Yperen et al (1999) have argued that participative management practices may influence POS. That is, participation is often seen by employees as fair, procedurally just, and an expression of trust – it is perceived by employees as an expression of organizational support. Van Yperen et al (1999) further substantiated the intervening power of perceived organizational support (referred to as perceived supervisory support in their study) to act as a mediator between PM and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).

Observers have also noted that these affects, and others, tend to run in proportion to the degree of involvement of employees. Nurick (1982) and Cotton et al (1988) found that the benefits of PM were more pronounced in those employees that were most directly involved in labor-management committees or representative PM schemes. Similarly, Coyle-Shapiro (1999) found that the extent of employee involvement is positively associated with their personal assessment of the benefits of Total Quality Management. These findings have particular relevance for the BAPD Leadership Team as a representative form of PM.

Participative Management Outcomes Model

Based on the foregoing discussion, the proposition is suggested that participative management (PM) practices have the capacity to positively influence employee perceptions of organizational support (POS), which in turn may contribute to organizational commitment (OC). In this conception, perceived organizational support acts as a mediating variable between participative management and organizational commitment. PM is the independent variable, POS is the mediating variable, and OC is the dependent variable. Figure 2.1 displays this model.

Figure 2.1 - PM Outcomes Model



If the PM outcomes model depicted in Figure 2.1 is affirmed, then it is suggested that perceived organizational support is the most immediate outcome of PM and, in turn, has the ability to produce other outcomes, such as organizational commitment (LaMastro 2000; Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002;, Meyer & Allen 1997; Eisenberger et al; 1990). As such, PM is theorized to impact OC, but only indirectly through POS.

Although not examined in the present study, an implicit assumption of the model is that improved OC is likely to produce increased employee organizational citizenship behavior and other positive actions related to organizational goals and organizational effectiveness. Further, based on work by Nurick (1982), Cotton et al (1988), and Coyle-Shapiro (1999), the model suggests that the degree of actual employee involvement in PM will have a proportional positive correlation with POS and OC.

Theoretical Framework: Research Hypotheses

Based on a review of the literature, the following hypotheses are possible and serve to guide the empirical analysis:

- H₁: Participative management practices have a positive effect on labor-management relations in police organizations.
- H₂: Participative management practices have a positive effect on police employee perceptions of organizational support, which, in turn, results in improved commitment to the organization.
- H₃: The degree of improvement in police employee perceptions of organizational support and their organizational commitment are proportional to their actual involvement in participative management activities.

The PM Outcomes Model states that participative management is the independent variable, perceived organizational support is an intervening variable, and organizational commitment is the dependent variable. This model is supported only to the degree that the null hypotheses of H_2 and H_3 are rejected.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

The first law of information: Every relay doubles the noise and cuts the message in half. The same holds true for most management levels... Peter Drucker 2002

The basic research design of the paper is an analytic, single case study (Yin 2003). The study's methodologies include quantitative survey analysis, participant observation, and analysis of archival data.

Survey Instruments

Two versions of a survey instrument were developed. "Survey A" consisted of 50 questions designed for the sworn personnel of the BAPD. The first 32 questions were drawn verbatim from a 2002 Fraternal Order of Police union survey of the department's sworn personnel. The original purpose of the 2002 survey was to assess officer opinions on a wide array of issues related to the administration of the department. The results were eventually used by the union to resist and politically attack the BAPD administration. The 2002 survey was administered prior to the implementation of any participative management practices. Non-sworn personnel were not included in that police union survey.

The 2002 survey was scored on a five-point Likert-type interval scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Scores for each item were aggregated into a composite mean score. No regression analysis was performed on the 2002 data and the original data set were no longer available for examination. Consequently, only the mean scores for the 32 questions were obtainable.

The survey instrument for this study was modeled after the 2002 union survey in order to facilitate a direct item for item comparison of mean numerical scores. The 2005

survey questions were worded and scored in nearly identical fashion to the previous union survey. The new survey was administered some 18-months after the implementation of participative management strategies. In this way, an element of longitudinal comparison is possible. In effect, this was a pre-test / post-test comparison with participative management as the intervention. This pre / post examination of the 32 items drawn from the 2002 survey was used as a means of assessing the study's first hypothesis (H₁) concerning labor-management relations.

In addition to the questions drawn from the previous union survey, 18 additional items were added to test the study's second and third research hypotheses (H₂ and H₃), as well as the PM Outcomes Model. These questions assessed employee perceptions of participative management, organizational support, organizational commitment, and the Leadership Team. Where possible, questions testing these variables were drawn from previous research in the field. The specific questions and their respective sources are as follows:

PM - Items designed to measure participative management (PM) consisted of three questions drawn from Kim (2003) and three from Kahnweiler and Thompson (2000):

- Within the last 18-months, I have seen a positive change in the management style in this department.
- BAPD managers have made an effort to increase employee involvement in decision-making.
- Within the last 18-months, BAPD managers have made an attempt to allow employees to improve our own work processes.
- I get credit for my ideas.
- I decide how to do my job.
- My ideas get serious consideration.

Internal reliability for theses items, as determined by Cronbach's alpha, was $.84 (\alpha = .84)$.

POS - Four items designed to assess perceived organizational support (POS) were drawn

from work by Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa (1986):

- The BAPD really cares about my well-being.
- The BAPD takes pride in my accomplishments at work.
- The BAPD values my contributions to its well-being.
- The BAPD would grant a reasonable request for a change in my working conditions.

 $(\alpha = .83)$

OC - To measure organizational commitment (OC), four items were taken from the

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), a well validated instrument

developed by Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982):

- I talk up the BAPD to my friends as a great organization for which to work.
- I really care about the fate of the BAPD
- I am glad that I chose the BAPD over other departments I was considering at the time I joined.
- I am proud to tell others that I am part of the BAPD.

 $(\alpha = .82)$

Leadership Team - Four items were added to specifically assess employee perceptions

of the BAPD Leadership Team and provide a baseline for assessment of the impact of

direct participation on the independent and dependent variables (H₃).

- The Leadership Team provides a way for employees to submit issues for consideration.
- The Leadership Team has improved the operations of the Police Department.
- The Leadership Team has authority to make important decisions.
- The Leadership Team is working hard on behalf of employees to make things better.

 $(\alpha = .89)$

A second survey instrument, "Survey B," was devised for the BAPD's non-sworn employees. This survey contained 18 fewer questions than "Survey A" because these items did not appear to apply to civilian personnel. In addition, both survey instruments contained demographic questions. All survey items were scored on a Likert-type fivepoint interval scale with 1 corresponding to "strongly agree" and 5 corresponding to "strongly disagree." Both survey instruments are included in the appendices.

Analysis Protocol

Questions drawn from the original F.O.P. union survey (the first 32 questions) were tabulated as simple mean scores and compared item for item against the 2002 results. These items were then tested for statistical significance (t-test) assuming a normal distribution. The null hypothesis of H_1 predicts no statistical difference in the mean scores between the two surveys.

The remaining survey data were analyzed using multivariate regression. Participative management, perceived organizational support, and organizational commitment were all analyzed for correlation. The null hypothesis of H₂ predicts no significant correlation between the independent, mediating, and dependant variables. Age, gender, rank, tenure, job assignment and Leadership Team involvement were held as control variables. Based on the literature, it was anticipated that age and tenure would emerge as significant control variables. On the other hand, gender has not been found in previous research to be a significant factor in PM, POS, or OC.

Of particular interest was the factor of Leadership Team membership, in consideration of research findings that the nature and degree of employee involvement in PM has a major influence on other variables (H₃). For this reason, employee surveys that indicated direct involvement with the Leadership Team were disaggregated and compared with the rest of the sample. No significant variation between Leadership Team and non-Leadership Team distributions would tend to affirm the null hypothesis of H₃.

Sources of Data

The units of analysis for the study were both individual and organizational. The questionnaires were distributed on an individual basis, while at the organizational level, archival records were examined to gain some sense of overall organizational performance. These archival sources included historical labor grievance statistics, citizen survey data, citizen complaint figures, crime rate statistics, arrest and citation figures. While no correlation with PM can be assumed from these data sources, taken together, this information provided a general picture of organizational performance over time.

Finally, an additional source of data came from my own perspectives and interpretations. As noted in the introduction, such participant observation may have relevance for practitioners who are in the business of managing police agencies. Where possible these observations are balanced against other data sources.

Sampling Technique

This study consisted of a typical site, single case study (Yin 2003). As a typical site, the assumption is that the Broken Arrow Police Department is fairly representative of medium-sized metropolitan municipal law enforcement agencies. As such it is reasonable to assume that the interventions would yield comparable outcomes in similarly situated law enforcement agencies. The BAPD is somewhat atypical in that its workforce may be slightly more educated, with approximately 50% of its officers holding four-year degrees or higher, and 90 percent holding at least associate degrees. The agency may also be more proactive and community-oriented than many police departments due to its early adoption of the community policing philosophy. However,

in other ways, it is expected that the BAPD is typical of medium-sized suburban police agencies.

A single case study design was indicated due to the availability and access to multiple source longitudinal data, the agency's apparent representational features, and its relatively unique status as a participative management site. In addition, a case study format serves an analytic function for contrasting the past and present administration of the Broken Arrow Police Department.

Nearly the entire survey population was sampled for the quantitative research. Surveys were administered to all current full-time BAPD employees, with the exception of those having less than six-months on the job or who were activated for military service at the time of the study. The total sample consisted of 103 officers of all ranks and 40 civilians. Of 143 total questionnaires distributed, 129 were returned for a 90% response quote.

Definition of Terms

<u>Participative Management (PM)</u> – A process in which influence is shared among individuals who are otherwise hierarchical unequals. PM encompasses various employee involvement schemes in co-determination of working conditions, problem solving, and decision-making (Kim 2003).

<u>Perceived Organizational Support (POS)</u> – The general impressions employees form about the degree to which an organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al 1990).

<u>Organizational Commitment (OC)</u> - The relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Mowday et al 1982).

Conduct of the Study

Survey questionnaires were distributed in February, 2005, some 18-months after the first implementation of PM management techniques within the BAPD. A total of 143 questionnaires were distributed in paper format via the internal BAPD mail system, 103 to sworn personnel and 40 to civilian personnel. New employees of less than six months tenure or those currently on military duty were not included in the survey sample, nor were part-time employees. A cover letter explained the purpose of the survey, its voluntary nature, and gave assurances concerning anonymity. Respondents were asked to complete the surveys, seal them in an accompanying envelope and forward to a central collection point in the BAPD for transmittal to the University of Oklahoma – Tulsa for analysis. The surveys were not coded and contained no identifying information of any kind.

An important consideration in the conduct of this research was my position as CEO of the organization under study. Such a relationship has the potential to skew the results and inhibit employee responses. The potential for bias both on my part and that of respondents had to be addressed in the study protocol. To overcome this problem, it was important that respondents be assured of complete anonymity, that the survey results be tabulated by an outside source, and that only aggregate results be available for interpretation. This was accomplished by conducting the study under the auspices of the University of Oklahoma-Tulsa Graduate College. Faculty of the OU-Tulsa Organizational Dynamics program tabulated the data and provided aggregate results.

Archival data on crime rates, arrests, citations, field interview reports, citizen survey data, and citizen complaints were gathered for comparison with the 12-month

period from January 1, 2004 to January 1, 2005 (PM intervention). Historical data varied in depth depending on the availability of information. For instance, statistics on union grievances were not available as anticipated. However, informal estimates of grievance numbers over the last five-years were obtained from both union and administrative officials. In addition, certain other organizational parameters were examined, such as departmental awards, special recognition, and certifications for the same period.

Assessing the Research Hypotheses

The study's first hypothesis predicts that PM contributes to improved labormanagement relations. As noted in the analysis protocol, this was assessed by simply comparing the original 2002 union survey with this study. This longitudinal analysis provided a baseline for measuring change in unionized employee perceptions on a wide range of topics, under the assumption that the new participative management strategies are at least partially responsible for any changes. The limitation here was the lack of any original data set from 2002 – only aggregate mean scores were available. In a general way this longitudinal comparison provides an indication of labor-management relations and overall organizational health in a pre-test / post-test fashion. Participant observation also lent a personal interpretation to the impacts of participative management on labor relations within the agency.

The second hypothesis, which postulates that PM enhances employee perceptions of organizational support and organizational commitment, was evaluated using regression analysis of the survey data. This analysis tested for positive correlation of PM with POS and OC. Multivariate regression was employed to analyze the strength and predictive capability of the relationships between the dependent and independent variables, as well as the control variables. The results of this regression are discussed in the next chapter and compared for congruence with the PM Outcomes Model depicted in Figure 2.1.

The study's third hypothesis presupposes that employees who are most directly involved in PM are likely to have higher scores for perceived organizational support and organizational commitment than employees not so directly involved. This postulate was evaluated by disaggregating the data of employees who have served on or worked with the BAPD Leadership Team and regressing against the data of the rest of the BAPD workforce. These results are discussed in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV: PRESENTATION OF THE DATA

The organizations that will truly excel in the future will be the organizations that discover how to tap people's commitment and capacity to learn at all levels of the organization. Peter Senge (1990)

Three sources of data were utilized for this study of participative management in the Broken Arrow Police Department: quantitative survey data, archival data, and participant observation. The quantitative data will be presented in four sections. The first will compare the results of an internal survey of sworn personnel administered by the Broken Arrow police union in 2002 with the results of identical questions administered to an equivalent workforce in 2005. The second portion of the quantitative section will examine differences in responses by sworn and civilian employees. The third section will address survey data related to the identified variables of interest for this study: participative management, perceptions of the leadership team, perceived organizational support, and organizational commitment. The fourth section of the quantitative data will concern the various control variables: age, gender, tenure, rank, and Leadership Team involvement. The remainder of the chapter will present the archival and participant observation data.

Survey Data

Sworn Personnel: 2002 versus 2005

The 2002 Fraternal Order of Police survey sampled all sworn members of the BAPD. Non-union employees were not surveyed. The original F.O.P. questionnaire consisted of 43 items covering a wide range of work-related issues. Of these, 32 questions were replicated verbatim for the 2005 survey. The survey sample was essentially the same for both studies (paired sample). Only one employee had left the

force in the interim, two others were on military assignment in 2005, while three new officers were eligible to complete the 2005 questionnaire. Employees with less than six months on the department were excluded. Of a total of 100 eligible employees, the F.O.P. survey elicited 70 responses, for a response quote of 70% (n = 70). In 2005, 103 questionnaires were given out to sworn officers and 91 were returned, for a response quote of 88% (n = 91). The original F.O.P. data set was not available for follow-up analysis. Only aggregate mean scores for each survey question were obtainable. For continuity, the same interval Likert-type scale was retained for the 2005 questionnaire. The table (4.1) on page 73 presents the mean values for 32 items that appeared on both the 2002 and 2005 surveys. For comparison, the means are also reversed to reflect a positive scale in which higher values correspond to increasing agreement with the statements on the questionnaire. The complete 2005 data set is available in Appendix 6.

Table 4.1: 2002 / 2005 Sworn Surveys

Question		Reversed		Reversed
	2002	2002	2005	2005
BAPD recognizes employees who do a good job.	3.17	2.83	1.91	4.09
Discipline is administered impartially.	4.06	1.94	2.54	3.46
BAPD rewards officers for providing good service.	3.1	2.9	2.24	3.76
Sufficient incentives are available to encourage good job performance.	3.81	2.19	2.79	3.21
BAPD's mission motivates employees to do their best work.	3.33	2.67	2.46	3.54
The relationship between BAPD and the citizens of BA is good.	2.06	3.94	1.69	4.3
The current hiring process ensures the most qualified applicants are hired.	3.42	2.58	2.38	3.62
BAPD communicates effectively with the community	2.65	3.35	1.88	4.1
Patrol Officers spend most of their time responding to calls for service.	2.28	3.72	2.2	3.
The sworn staffing level of BAPD is adequate.	4.43	1.57	4.03	1.9
Sufficient training is available to all personnel.	3.9	2.1	2.46	3.54
Promotional decisions are made in a fair and equitable manner.	3.15	2.85	2.57	3.4
BAPD Officers are well trained.	2.65	3.35	1.77	4.2
I am proud to work for the BAPD.	1.71	4.29	1.28	4.7
When I provide input, my opinions are seriously considered.	3.64	2.36	2.52	3.4
The Chief of Police ensures that open lines of communication within the Department are maintained	4.21	1.79	2.34	3.6
The Division Commanders (ie. Majors) ensure that open lines of communication within the Department are maintained	3.4	2.6	2.43	3.5
First Line Supervisors (ie. Sgt's & Cpl's) ensure open lines of communication within the Department are maintained	2.1	3.9	2.22	3.7
The Chief of Police is skilled at managing the Department.	4.17	1.83	1.55	4.4
The Division Commanders are skilled at managing their divisions.	2.83	3.17	1.96	4.0
My Supervisor is someone I trust.	2.04	3.96	1.9	4.
The Chief of Police is committed to ensuring community needs are met.	3.1	2.9	1.66	4.3
The Division Commanders are committed to ensuring community needs are met.	2.76	3.24	2.13	3.8
The Watch Commanders are committed to ensuring community needs are met.	2.26	3.74	2.16	3.8
First Line Supervisors are committed to ensuring community needs are met.	1.96	4.04	2.12	3.8
The Chief of Police is committed to ensuring his Officer's professional needs are met.	4.13	1.87	1.85	4.1
The Division Commanders are committed to ensuring their Officer's professional needs are met.	3.24	2.76	2.19	3.8
First Line Supervisors are committed to ensuring their Officer's professional needs are met.	2.14	3.86	2.11	3.8
The Chief of Police places the needs of BAPD as priority over personal agenda.	4.38	1.62	1.85	4.1
The Division Commanders place the needs of BAPD as priority over personal agenda.	3.26	2.74	2.24	3.7
The Watch Commanders place the needs of BAPD as priority over personal agenda.	2.61	3.39	2.25	3.7
First Line Supervisors place the needs of BAPD as priority over personal agenda.	2.32	3.68	2.22	3.7

Table 4.1 reflects a fairly dramatic improvement on nearly all items for sworn personnel in the 2005 survey data. Only 6 of the 32 items did not meet the t-test for statistically significant variance between the two surveys. These included items related to patrol call volume, watch commander attentiveness to community needs, and several questions concerning first line supervisors (communications, trust, and professional needs). In both surveys, patrol officers exhibited consistent perceptions that they have little time to do anything except respond to calls. This is not surprising in light of the agency's historically high call volume versus low staffing ratio. Middle managers (at the rank of Watch Commander) and first line supervisors fared well in both surveys. This finding was predicted by the literature, which suggests that employees tend to value relationships with immediate supervisors and, in most instances, maintain trust and positive views toward these managers (Tepper et al 2004; Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002; Williams 1998; Coyle-Shapiro 1999). While BAPD first line supervisors were consistently evaluated in both 2002 and 2005, assessment of middle and upper management improved significantly in the latter survey.

A number of identifiable trends are evident when comparing the two surveys. Generally, it is apparent that perceptions of the upper echelon of the department have improved considerably. For instance, questions pertaining to the perceived management skill of the Chief and Division Commanders showed dramatic improvement between 2002 and 2005 (Chief: 1.83 vs. 4.45: p < .001; Division Commanders: 3.17 vs. 4.04: p < .001). In addition, officer perceptions of management's ability to meet community needs, concern for officers' professional needs, and willingness to place the BAPD over personal agenda also showed similar progress. Figures 4.1, 4.2, and 4.3 reflect these positive changes in officer perceptions. The respective level of statistical significance for each factor is also noted.

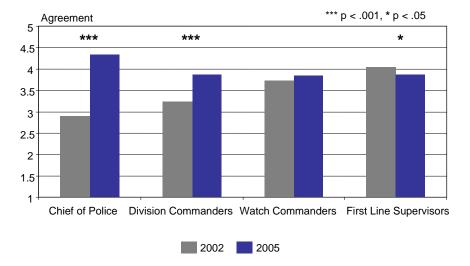


Figure 4.1: Meeting Community Needs

In 2002, there was an inverse correlation between rank and meeting community needs. However, 2005 found this perception by sworn personnel leveling off, and even rising slightly as rank increased. This indicates increasingly positive perceptions of upper management in regard to meeting external responsibilities.

A closely related question tested workforce perceptions of the agency's community-oriented policing mission: "The BAPD's mission motivates employees to do their best work." This item also showed statistically significant improvement in 2005 (3.54) over 2002 (2.76: p < .001). This was somewhat unexpected in that the basic mission and philosophy of the BAPD did not change in the interim between the two surveys. Since 1997, the BAPD has maintained a community policing philosophy that focuses on community collaboration, interaction and problem solving. Yet, employees exhibited far more positive attitudes toward COP in the 2005 survey. By 2005, through participatory strategies, employees were allowed to determine how, when and where this community approach to policing would be implemented. This is in sharp contrast to the

situation in 2002 when all aspects of COP were determined by higher authority and then simply imposed on the rank and file. This finding lends credence to the notion that participation and organizational commitment have the capacity to impact acceptance of organizational priorities. In the present case, not only do officers seem to view the community-oriented policing mission more positively, but as noted in Figure 4.1, their perception of management's performance in this area was also better. Other assessments of management showed similar improvement.

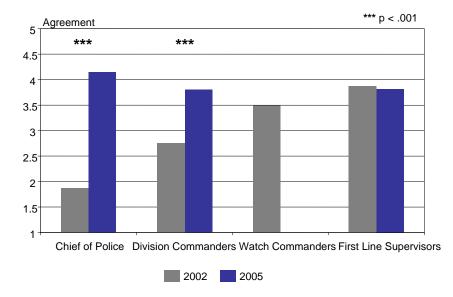


Figure 4.2: Ensuring Officers' Professional Needs

Figure 4.2 depicts a reversal of officers' perception of management's concern for meeting their professional needs (due to a typographical error several items were omitted with respect to the Watch Commanders). The 2002 data revealed an inverse relationship between rank and perceived concern for officer professional needs. Conversely, 2005 displays a positive correlation between rank and concern for officers' professional needs. This would seem to indicate a far more positive view of managerial support for

employees. First line supervisors are positively assessed in both surveys, with nonsignificant statistical differences in the means across all questions relating to immediate supervisors.

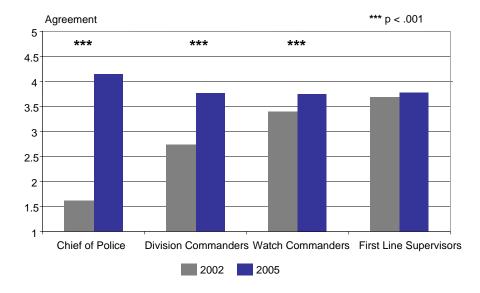


Figure 4.3: Placing BAPD Over Personal Agenda

Once again, Figure 4.3 reveals a similar reversal of formerly negative employee assessments of management. In 2002, officers were very likely to ascribe negative motivations to the actions of management, particularly as rank increased - an inverse correlation. In 2005, this trend has been erased and replaced with positive assessments of the department's upper ranks, equal to or even superior to that of first line supervisors.

Similarly, communication at all levels of the BAPD is better in 2005 versus 2002. Whereas in 2002 internal communication seemed to degrade as it traveled up the chainof-command, in 2005 it seems to have leveled off at positive values across all ranks. Figure 4.4 graphs this change in internal communications.

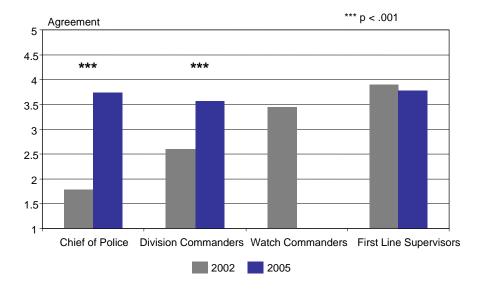


Figure 4.4: Ensuring Open Internal Communications

In both surveys, BAPD officers generally maintained negative opinions concerning their staffing level and call volume; not enough officers and too many calls for service. The fact that these scores remained negative in 2005 tends to strengthen the validity of the responses across all questions. The respondents were telling it like it is. It should be noted that there was statistically significant improvement in their perception of staffing issues in 2005 (p < .002). This may be due to better communication between the top and bottom of the organization in relation to this staffing issue.

With regard to training, respondents felt BAPD officers were well trained in both surveys, but the mean scores improved by a wide margin in 2005. Officers also indicated that training opportunities had dramatically improved in the latter survey. In addition to PM strategies, the agency also embarked on an ambitious workforce development program that doubled the in-service training hours for all officers. This was in recognition of the criticality of a highly trained and mature workforce to employee involvement approaches. Figure 4.5 displays officer opinions about staffing and training.

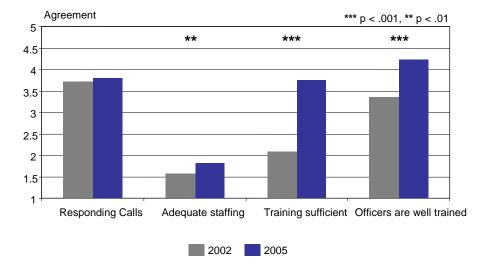


Figure 4.5: Staffing and Training

A wide array of criteria affecting employee relations also showed marked improvement between 2002 and 2005. This was true for issues such as the handling of discipline, promotions, hiring, recognition, rewards and incentives. In 2002, scores on all these indicators fell well below 3.0, indicating negative opinions across the board. However, in 2005, all these indicators scored well above the 3.0 mean, indicating positive employee assessments in these critical areas of employee relations. Further, the changes on all items were statistically significant. This is a particularly important factor in that matters pertaining to hiring, discipline, promotions, and incentives are historically problematic for police agencies and their labor relations (Thibault, Lynch and McBride 1998; Moore 2003). Figure 4.6 depicts the respective means for a variety of issues.

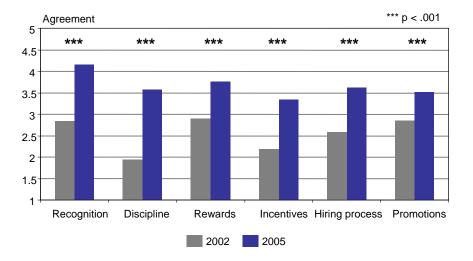


Figure 4.6: Employee Relations

Various motivational factors were examined by the two surveys; all showed unilateral and statistically significant improvement between 2002 and 2005. These factors included the BAPD mission, pride in the agency, trust of supervisors, employee input, and relations with the community. The agency's mission has already been mentioned and will be discussed further in the implications section of the paper. The other two factors which showed the greatest improvement were pride in the BAPD and whether employee opinions are considered in decision-making. Although officers displayed healthy pride in their department in 2002, this factor exhibited a ceiling effect in 2005 (4.72). The data also suggest that employees felt their opinions were not highly valued in 2002, as evidenced by a 2.38 mean score falling well into the negative range. However, the 2005 data indicate that the department's participative management approach has had an impact, as reflected by a positive mean of 3.48. Figure 4.7 compares these motivational aspects of the BAPD workforce for 2002 and 2005.

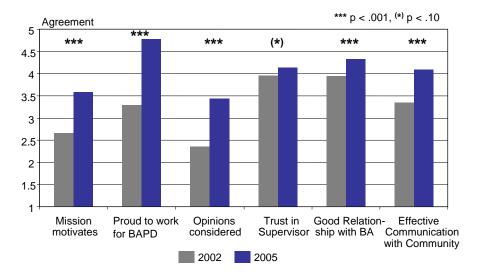


Figure 4.7: Motivational Factors

In summary, with the exception of items relating to the employee's immediate supervisor, call volume, or the watch commanders' attention to community needs, all factors displayed statistically significant improvement. Generally, the 2005 survey data indicate that officer perceptions of the higher echelons of the department improved dramatically, vertical communications improved, critical employee relations were stronger, and employees displayed greater motivation and pride in the agency. Further, the apparent schism between the upper and lower ranks has disappeared. The fact that the police union's own survey questions were used in both instruments strengthens the assumption that union–management relations have improved. The longitudinal comparison between the two surveys therefore supports the study's first hypothesis that PM contributes to improved labor-management relations. This assumption is also supported by archival data relating to formal grievances, as well as participant observations covered in the last section of this chapter.

Civilian versus Sworn

Prior to this study, no surveys had ever been administered to the civilian employees of the BAPD. Consequently, no longitudinal comparison is possible. Of 40 surveys provided to civilian employees, 38 responses were received for a response quote of 95% (n = 38). Generally, survey responses for civilian and sworn personnel were similar. The good news is that, overall, BAPD civilian employees displayed very positive attitudes across all indicators: employee relations, motivation factors, communications, pride, trust, mission, fairness, management, etc. However, nearly all mean scores on these indicators were slightly lower than the officers and in several areas the differences were statistically significant from those of sworn personnel. Figures 4.8 and 4.9 illustrate areas where civilian responses varied significantly from those of sworn officers. All other differences were found to be non-significant. The complete data set for civilian versus sworn groups in available in Appendix 7.

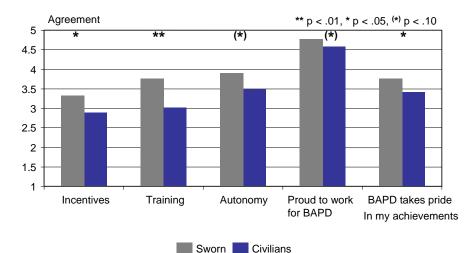


Figure 4.8: Differences between Sworn and Civilians

From this data it appears that civilian employees had less positive views of incentives and rewards, less access to training opportunities, and less autonomy. Although civilians were very proud to work for the BAPD, this value showed a statistical tendency toward negative variance from that for sworn personnel. Of these factors, incentives and training fell slightly into the negative range, indicating immediate areas for attention by agency management.

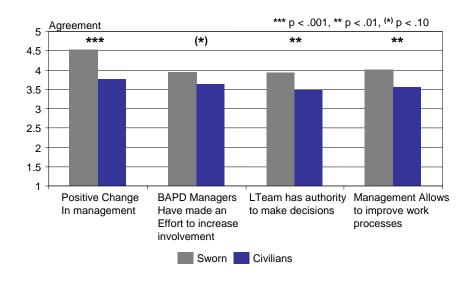


Figure 4.9: Differences between Sworn and Civilians

Figure 4.9 indicates additional areas where civilian responses, although still positive, nevertheless exhibited statistically significant variance from sworn employees. These items suggest that participative strategies have not been fully integrated into certain aspects and functions of the department. Figure 4.10 demonstrates this problem.

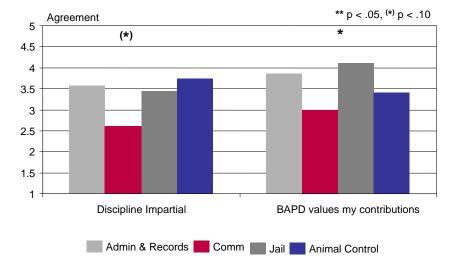


Figure 4.10: Differences Between Units

On these particular criteria, significant variance is apparent between different units within the civilian functions of the agency. This suggests that depending on function, socioemotional issues, and situational factors in the local work setting, employee involvement efforts may have disparate impacts. This finding is also in accordance with what other researchers have found (Armeli et al 1998; Kahnweiler and Thompson 2000; Cotton et al 1988). Of particular note in this case is that the mean scores for the BAPD Communications section fell well below the other civilian units and may require special attention to achieve integration with the rest of the department. However, it should be noted that the samples for these individual units were quite small.

The forgoing differences depicted in Figures 4.8, 4.9, and 4.10 indicate areas where the BAPD could improve opportunities and involvement for civilian employees. Insufficient training for civilian personnel is a problem that is endemic to many police agencies, as far more resources are typically directed toward training of front line officers than support personnel. It is also noteworthy that civilians felt they had less control over their daily work conditions than did officers. To some degree this may be a function of the inherent discretionary nature of police work, which tends to empower police officers. However, the data highlights the necessity of finding ways to involve non-sworn members of the department in workplace decision-making. This, combined with enhancing training opportunities, may be important in erasing the disparity between sworn and non-sworn law enforcement personnel.

PM, POS, OC

Multiple regression analysis was used to analyze 18 questionnaire items intended to assess participative management, perceived organizational support, organizational commitment, and opinions about the Leadership Team (questions are noted in Chapter III, pp. 63-64). Internal validity, as determined by Cronbach's alpha, was satisfactory for all variables. Figure 4.11 graphically displays the levels of PM, POS, and OC within the BAPD. It also notes respondent assessments of the Leadership Team and further compares the responses from sworn and civilian personnel.

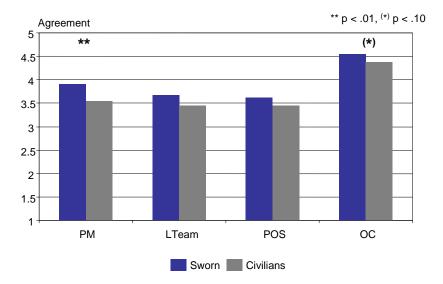


Figure 4.11: Participation, Support and Commitment

The foregoing data reveals high levels of organizational commitment within the BAPD, as well as very positive levels of PM and POS. Further, a positive correlation was found between all factors – PM, POS, and OC. That is, respondents who scored high on items related to participation (PM) also tended to view the organization as supportive (POS) and exhibited a high degree of affective attachment to the department (OC). Similarly, Leadership Team responses were highly correlated with PM, POS, and OC. As with most other components in the survey, the mean values for all these variables were slightly lower for civilian employees than for sworn personnel. However, only PM displayed variance of statistical significance (p < .01), while OC exhibited only a statistical tendency (p < .10).

Regression analysis indicates that PM strongly predicts POS ($r^2 = .62$), which in turn predicts OC ($r^2 = .36$). As hypothesized, the relationship between PM and OC is indirect, as mediated by POS. This finding supports the PM Outcomes Model and the study's second hypothesis (H₂). However, in this instance, PM does not account for all the variance in POS, nor does POS account for all the variance in OC. It is probable that variables other than participative management account for some of the variance in POS and OC. Such variables might include factors such as organizational justice, remuneration, promotional opportunity, peer group identification, education, job challenge, job ambiguity, continuance commitment, individual socioemotional needs, etc. (Armelli et al 1998; Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002; Myers 2004; Mowday et al 1982; Meyer and Allen 1997; Spence-Laschinger et al 2004; Beck 1999). This study did not address these related variables. However, it did address the control variables of gender, age, tenure, rank, and association with the Leadership Team.

Control Variables

It was expected from the findings of prior research that age and tenure would emerge as significant control variables, but that gender would not. Regression analysis revealed no significant variance in independent or dependent variables in association with either gender or age. Tenure did exhibit a negative correlation with organizational commitment, but not with regard to POS or PM. In addition, rank and leadership team involvement were found to vary at a level of statistical significance. Figure 4.12 displays differences in PM, POS, OC and Leadership Team appraisal between the various ranks of sworn personnel. The data set for Leadership Team versus non-Leadership Team members is available in Appendix 8. Control variable regression tables are available in Appendix 9.

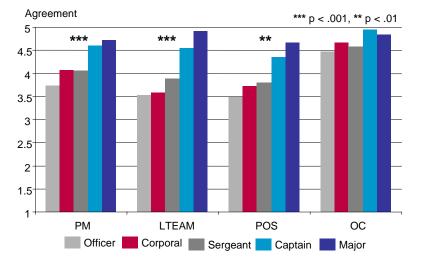


Figure 4.12: Differences Between Ranks

From this data it is evident that PM, POS, and LTeam varied significantly by rank. Specifically, as rank increased so did feelings of participation, organizational support, and positive assessment of the Leadership Team – a positive correlation. Organizational commitment did not vary significantly by rank, further suggesting that PM and POS do not explain all of the variation in OC. Although the means were positive for all variables at all ranks, Figure 4.12 illustrates the tendency for employee perceptions of involvement, support and Leadership Team appraisal to lessen as one moves further down the hierarchy. This may indicate that the ability of representative PM to impact the lower ranks within police organizations is limited. If PM is not able to penetrate the core of the organization, its value as a management tool is somewhat limited. However, this interpretation of the differential between ranks must be balanced against confirmation of the study's third hypothesis – direct involvement in PM.

Leadership Team Involvement

The data generally support the study's hypothesis that employees directly associated with representative PM, in the form of the Leadership Team, tend to exhibit stronger PM, POS and OC (H₃) Figure 4.13 graphs the data.

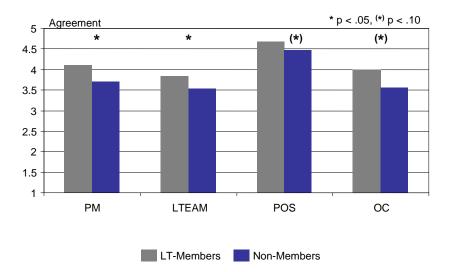


Figure 4.13: Differences LT Members / Non-Members

All variables exhibited either a statistical significance or tendency of variance by degree of involvement with the Leadership Team. This is as predicted by H₃ and has relevance to the observed differences in rank. If direct involvement in decision-making has the capacity to raise feelings of PM, POS and OC, even if only for those most directly involved, then expansion of participation laterally and to the lower ranks may impart similar benefits. There are several ways to accomplish this, including increased use of Leadership Team subcommittees, greater representation on the Team of those at the rank of officer, and the use of more ad hoc or temporary members. All of these strategies may have the capacity to diffuse the benefits of representative PM to the lower levels of the organization to a greater degree.

Another factor that may accomplish diffusion of the benefits of PM may be the simple passage of time. Over time, regular rotation of department personnel through the Leadership Team may help spread the benefits of involvement to a wider segment of the agency's workforce. As reported by Ospina and Yaroni (2003), the benefits of Labor-Management Cooperation schemes tend to linger, in that the attitudes, roles changes, and mental models adopted during LMC persist even after direct involvement ceases. Similar residual effects are to be expected with representative PM.

It should be noted that although the study's third hypothesis is supported by the data, the differences between Leadership Team members and non-members were not as dramatic as anticipated. It was thought that the separation between the two groups would be greater on the assumption that direct involvement in departmental decision-making would tend to foster both POS and OC, while the indirect representative involvement experienced by non-Leadership Team employees would have only a limited effect. The fact the disparity was not greater, in conjunction with generally positive survey assessments of the Team, may indicate that the Leadership Team is doing an effective job of communicating and reaching out to the rest of the department. The complete member vs. non-member Leadership Team data are available in Appendix 8.

Archival Data

Various forms of archival data were gathered and analyzed for this study. However, looking at archival data will not provide empirical evidence of a link between participative management and overall organizational performance. Any such link would be spurious since so many factors may affect organizational performance. For this reason the study did not hypothesize that PM has the capacity to impact police organizational

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performance and draws no such conclusions. However, because the literature suggests that such linkages are possible (Mowday et al 1982; Mowday 1999; LaMastro 2000; Eisenberger et al 1990; Armelli et al 1998), a summary of organizational performance is included for discussion purposes.

Assessment of police performance has received increasing attention in the police literature of late. As several observers have noted, the essential problem with evaluating police performance lies in defining and measuring what it is that the police produce (Moore 2003; Sacco 1998; Brodeur 1998). What constitutes effective organizational performance and quality police service? Do we measure outputs or outcomes, hard statistical data or affective qualities? And where do community expectations fit in?

Brodeur (1998) suggests evaluating police performance based on an agency's use of *expertise* in addressing crime problems, examining how police programs and strategies are *implemented*, and assessing the *impacts* of such strategies. While this is a good general framework for approaching evaluation of police performance, it offers little practical guidance on the sort of measures one should employ. Hoover (1998) recommends evaluation of specific police programs to assess police performance, either through the use of targeted archival data, or pre-post test strategies. This is an excellent approach to determine the effectiveness of specific police tactical interventions, but less useful in assessing holistic performance at the organizational level. Moore (2003) suggests a more comprehensive examination of an agency's performance. He identifies the following criteria as critical police performance factors: *reducing crime and victimization, holding offenders accountable, reducing fear, ensuring civility in public* places, equitable use of force and authority, financial efficiency, and customer satisfaction.

Of the indicators identified by Moore (2003) as critical to organizational performance, this study, through archival documentation, will look at *reduction of crime, equitable use of force and authority, holding offenders accountable, reduction of fear,* and *customer satisfaction*. These choices seem most relevant to the purposes of the study. To assess *reduction of crime* we will use the F.B.I. Uniform Crime reports spanning a five-year period. A look at citizen complaints and use of force and authority within the BAPD. To evaluate *holding offenders accountable,* the study looks at data on arrest and citation rates, field interview reports, and investigatory clearance rates. *Reduction of fear* and *customer satisfaction* will be examined by comparing the results of three BAPD citizen crime surveys over a six-year time span. Taken together, these measures provide a snapshot of the organization's performance.

Reduction of Crime: UCR Crime Rates

Broken Arrow's Uniform Crime Report (UCR) data was analyzed for the period from 2000 to 2004. This is presented to provide a picture of the crime situation in Broken Arrow over time, as an indirect indicator of BAPD performance. No link to PM is assumed. UCR Part I crimes consist of Homicide, Rape, Robbery, Aggravated Assault, Burglary, Larceny, and Auto Theft. Although far from comprehensive, UCR data is frequently used to compare the relative safety of communities and will suffice for the purposes of this study to assess Moore's (2003) *reduction of crime* measure. Table 4.2 presents Broken Arrow's UCR Index from 2000 to 2004.

Table 4.2: Broken Arrow UCR Index

Index Crime Comparison

2000	2224
2001	2310
2002	2281
2003	2507
2004	2382
Dif.	
03-04	-5%

UCR Index crimes dropped 5% in 2004 versus 2003. A five-year comparison reveals one other year that a drop in the crime rate was recorded – 2002 saw a 1% decline from the preceding year. A 5% drop in Broken Arrow's crime rate is noteworthy in consideration of the city's rapid growth during this period. The 2000 U.S. Census estimated Broken Arrow's population at 73,000. A recent Broken Arrow City Planning Department estimate placed the city's population at 91,000, a 24% increase in five years. Such population growth generally tends to correlate with rising crime. Broken Arrow appears to be bucking that trend. In fact, an annual national ranking of cities by Morgan Quinto Press recently named Broken Arrow as the safest city in Oklahoma and among the safest cities in the United States. Morgan Quinto ranks cities over 75,000 based on a crime rate formula. Interestingly, Broken Arrow's immediate neighbor, Tulsa, was ranked as the most crime ridden city in the state and near the bottom nationally.

Equitable Use of Force and Authority: Citizen Complaints

Police departments routinely accept complaints from citizens on any aspect of police service. These complaints may entail relatively minor issues relating to quality of service to serious allegations of false arrest or excessive force. Such complaints may come into the agency via telephone, walk-in reports, mail, or electronic mail. Complainants may file reports anonymously or in-person. Complaints may also come to the attention of police administration through internal channels, such as other police employees or city employees. Medium or larger departments, such as the BAPD, will typically refer all serious complaints to an Internal Affairs unit for investigation. Minor complaints may be investigated either by Internal Affairs or by the affected employee's supervisor. Once complaint investigations are complete, ultimate disposition is usually handled by the chain-of-command and / or the Chief's Office. Smaller departments may have less formal procedures.

A five-year citizen complaint history was compiled from internal affairs documentation of the Broken Arrow Police Department. For the purposes of the study, the calendar year 2004 served a period of comparison with the preceding years. Table 4.3 tracks complaint data from 2000 to 2004, while Figure 4.14 graphs the comparison.

Table 4.3: Complaint Data

Complaints Taken:	
2000	40
2001	28
2002	14
2003	20
2004	11

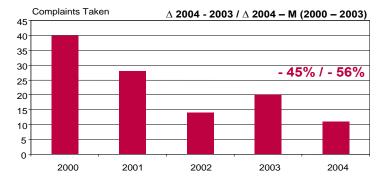


Figure 4.14: Citizen Complaints

The data seem to indicate generally declining citizen complaints over the past five-years, with a 45% decrease from 2003 to 2004. However, these statistics vary widely from year to year and statistical analysis is hampered by small numbers. For instance, 2002 saw a 50% drop in complaints over 2001, followed by a 50% rise in 2003. Given such year to year variation it is difficult to draw any conclusions. Another way to examine the problem might be to compare the aggregated mean of the preceding four years to the control year of 2004. The mean of the preceding four years was 25 citizen complaints per year between 2000 and 2003. In this comparison, 2004 shows a 56% drop. It might be that, on average, fewer complaints are coming in from the BAPD's constituents. However, even this assumption may be spurious. Further longitudinal data involving more years would be required to draw meaningful conclusions about any general trends in citizen complaints.

When considering police complaint data, it is important to look not only at total citizen complaint information, but more specifically at the number of complaints that were found to be substantiated (Moore 2003). Even a large volume of complaints may

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not indicate systematic abuse of authority if such allegations are determined to be predominantly unfounded. Therefore, Table 4.4 provides a five-year breakdown of complaint dispositions.

Table 4.4 Complaint Dispositions

Broken Arrow Police Department Internal Affairs Statistics Comparison 2000 to 2004

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Complaints Taken	40	28	14	21	11
Substantiated Unintentional	4	13	2	7	4
Error	0	0	0	0	1
Policy/Training Failure Unsubstantiate	1	1	0	0	0
d	15	8	5	7	3
Unfounded	9	5	1	4	5
Exonerated	11	8	6	4	1
Total Dispositions:	40	35	14	22	14

The difference between number of complaints taken and total dispositions is due to either multiple employees involved in the complaint or additional infractions coming to light.

As noted with total complaints taken, dispositions and numbers of employees involved varied significantly from year to year. Although 2000 saw 40 total complaints received, only 4 were substantiated (the same as in 2004) and 2002 only had 2 substantiated complaints. Given this data, reliable conclusions concerning citizen complaint trends within the BAPD are difficult.

The BAPD has kept use of force statistics since 1997. However, the criteria requiring officers to file a use of force report changed in 2000. Therefore, use of force data was compiled from 2000 - 2004. Figure 4.15 reflects this data.

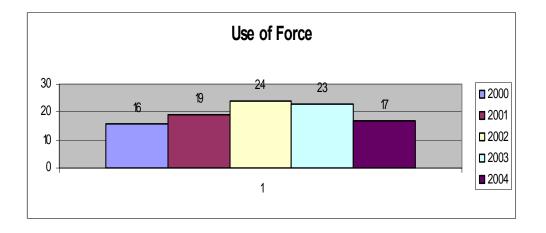


Figure 4.15 Use of Force

Although the numbers for use of force are down in 2004 versus 2003 and 2002, they are roughly equivalent to those of 2000 and 2001. Once again, it is therefore difficult to draw conclusions concerning BAPD officers' use of force, other than use of force reporting is remaining relatively stable. However, it should be noted that arrests were up significantly in 2004, indicating that although BAPD officers are taking more enforcement actions, they are not having to resort to more frequent use of force.

Holding Offenders Accountable: Patrol and Investigative Activity

A five-year comparison of patrol activity was conducted, looking at self-initiated arrests of all types, traffic citations, and field interview reports. In most cases, arrests and citation rates are indicators of discretionary patrol activity. Field interview reports are also considered to be indicative of proactive patrol tactics because they usually denote an officer-initiated contact concerning suspicious activity of one kind or another, but which does not rise to the level of an arrest. One study in San Diego found that field interviews, as a form of proactive tactical patrol, had the capability to significantly impact suppressible crimes (Cordner and Kenney 1998). With regard to investigative activity, the case clearance rate of BAPD detectives was compared over a five-year period. Case clearances can be considered reflective of effective investigative and prosecution techniques. Table 4.5 presents a five-year comparison of arrests, citations, field interview reports, and case clearance rates.

Table 4.5 Patrol / Investigative Activity

Patrol / Investigative Activity 2000 to 2004

Arrests Made	2000 1807	2001 1939	2002 1778	2003 2110	2004 2359	03-04 12%
Citations Issued Field	13240	18046	13511	12353	15090	22%
Interviews Investigative	332	466	443	549	675	24%
Cases Cleared	1757	1836	1667	1861	2369	27%

Table 4.5 illustrates that the BAPD has enjoyed some recent success in *holding offenders accountable*. Arrests of all types increased 12% from 2003 to 2004. If 2004's arrest total is compared with the mean value of the previous four years, it shows a 24% increase. Field interview reports were up 24% in 2004 over the preceding year, and 51% over the mean of 2000 – 2003. With regard to investigations, BAPD detectives cleared 27% more cases in 2004 than they did in 2003, and 34% more than the mean of 2000 – 2003. It appears that during 2004, these critical indicators of proactive, discretionary police action all increased in comparison with 2003 and in comparison with the mean value of the preceding four years. However, some variation is observed year to year, making conclusions tentative. Only future years' numbers will determine whether the apparent increases in 2004 are a temporary spike or will maintain their increased levels. Figure 4.16 graphically represents these findings.

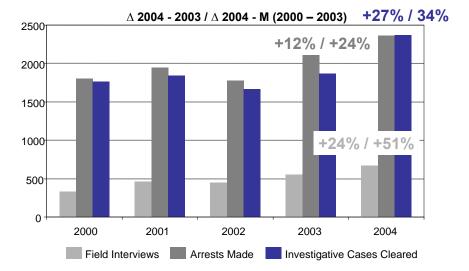


Figure 4.16: Patrol / Investigative Activity

Similarly, traffic citations rose 22% from 2003 to 2004, and 6% over the mean of the preceding four years. Figure 4.17 depicts this rise in discretionary ticket production by BAPD officers. A major spike in ticket production is observed in 2001. Further research revealed a temporary increase in staffing of the traffic unit for that year that may account for this anomaly. The traffic unit carries the primary burden of ticket production for the department. In all other years, staffing of the traffic unit was consistent for the comparison period. A drop in citations occurred in 2003 versus 2002. PM strategies were implemented in the last quarter of 2003. Although citations appear to be sharply rising again, historical fluctuations make firm conclusions concerning this discretionary enforcement activity difficult.

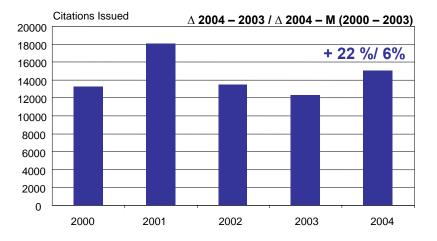


Figure 4.17: BAPD Productivity - Citations

Increases in arrests, citations, field interviews and cases cleared are noteworthy in light of the fact that crime actually *dropped 5%* in Broken Arrow during 2004. In fact, calls assigned to patrol officers for the year dropped 15%, there were 8% fewer E911 emergency calls, and offense reports declined 2%. So, although the workload for BAPD officers was less in 2004, they actually succeeded in arresting more offenders, ticketing more traffic violators, investigating more suspicious behavior, and clearing more cases. The inference is that BAPD officers may be displaying greater motivation to engage in discretionary activity and putting their free time to good use. Most experts will agree that non-reactive police work is highly discretionary and, in most agencies, officers have little incentive beyond their personal work ethic to be productive when not actually answering calls.

Reduction of Fear and Customer Satisfaction: Citizen Surveys

The Broken Arrow Police Department has regularly conducted Citizen Crime Surveys to help assess community expectations and satisfaction. The first survey was conducted in 1998. In that survey, approximately 30,000 citizen surveys were mailed to residents and 1,851 were returned. In 2000, approximately 28,000 surveys were sent to residents, with 2,115 responses. In 2004, 32,000 Broken Arrow Citizen questionnaires were distributed in the mail and made available on the Police Department website. Of these, 2,429 responses were returned, for a response quote of 8%. Distribution of the surveys occurred through inserts in residents' water bills. None of the survey samples were random and all responses were voluntarily returned via U.S. Mail. Therefore, the survey data may not be representative of the larger Broken Arrow population. However, the same methodology was employed across all three surveys and therefore the samples are comparable.

The 1998, 2000, and 2004 surveys were analyzed to compare trends in community perceptions and fear of crime, and to assess citizen satisfaction with police service. Although questions and the wording of items contained in each of the surveys changed slightly from year to year, several key comparisons are possible.

Question / Theme	1998		2000		2004	
Perception of Crime	67% increased		58% increased		73% increased slightly	
Citizens' Fear of Crime	60% feel safe		45% feel safe		95% feel safe	
Top Crime Concerns:						
#1	Traffic		Traffic		Traffic	
#2	Stray Anir	nals	Vandalism		Identity Theft	
#3	Vandalism	1	Stray Animals		Drug Offenses	
#4	Burglary		Juvenile problems		Child Abuse/Neglect	
Victimization	Yes	24%	Yes	30%	Yes	37%
	No	76%	No	70%	No	53%
Satisfaction with Police	Yes	54%	Yes	60%	Yes	87%
Services	No	46%	No	40%	No	13%
Belong to Neighborhood	Yes	19%	Yes	19%	Yes	27%
Watch:	No	83%	No	80%	No	73%

Table 4.6: Citizen Crime Survey Comparison

Over the periods analyzed, citizen perception of crime in Broken Arrow has changed from viewing crime as stable to increasing slightly. However, the vast majority of residents (95%) continue to feel safe in Broken Arrow and, in fact, this indicator showed a significant and rather dramatic improvement in 2004 over previous years. While victimization patterns appear to be on the rise, citizen concerns have tended to revolve around quality of life issues, rather than hard crime. The entry into the top four concerns of identity theft, drug offenses and child abuse for 2004 may be a response to concerted educational efforts undertaken by the Police Department in these areas, as well as greater media attention. At the same time, the Police Department is having greater success with getting citizens to join neighborhood watch programs, demonstrating improved community collaboration in addressing crime and fear of crime. Figure 4.4 graphically displays the foregoing data.

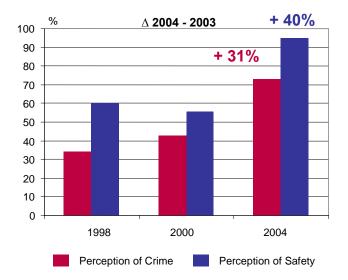


Figure 4.18: Community Perception of Crime / Safety

It appears that there has been a gradual increase in public satisfaction with police service in Broken Arrow. The proportion of respondents who indicated satisfaction with the police has grown from 54% in 1998 to 87% in 2004. This is a significant jump in *customer satisfaction*. Informal discussions with BAPD employees indicated this was probably an outcome of full-blown community policing efforts, increased departmental recognition, positive publicity with local media outlets, and the "happy chicken syndrome" (more satisfied and committed employees turning out quality service). Figure 4.19 depicts this positive change in citizen satisfaction with police services.

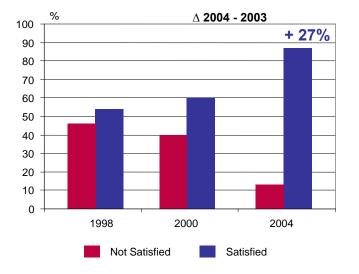


Figure 4.19: Satisfaction with Police Services

Independent Assessments, Awards, Recognition

In addition to archival data retrieved from internal BAPD sources, independent evaluations of the Broken Arrow Police Department bear some relevance to an assessment of the agency. Here too, no direct, or even indirect, correlation with PM can be stated. However, such awards and recognition do provide a holistic snapshot of organizational performance from an external perspective.

During 2004, the BAPD was re-accredited by the Oklahoma Association of Chiefs of Police as meeting 192 national standards for police agencies. In this regard, the agency is one of only a handful of Oklahoma law enforcement agencies meeting these standards. Also during 2004, the BAPD crime lab was accredited by the American Society of Crime Lab Directors, becoming the first and only municipal crime lab in Oklahoma to achieve recognition by a crime lab national certifying body.

In terms of leadership in the law enforcement field, during 2004 the Broken Arrow Police Department was featured in five national or international police journals for innovative approaches to narcotic investigations, SWAT operations, traffic clearance techniques, and community policing efforts. Broken Arrow PD personnel also presented at one regional and two state conferences on agency approaches to code enforcement issues, community policing, and volunteer programs. In addition, the Broken Arrow Police Department and its employees received several awards from various state and national entities for excellence in the areas of traffic enforcement, seatbelt education, youth safety initiatives, narcotic interdiction, website design, and accident trauma response.

Participant Observation

Occasionally, it is not possible to separate the roles of researcher and participant. Such was my situation with this case study. It therefore makes sense to mine this experience for additional insights. The following discussion will present some personal perspectives concerning the Broken Arrow Police Department and participative management. These are my observations and interpretations of events. Where possible they are balanced against other data developed by the study. These observations can be broken down into Leadership Team performance, labor-management relations, workforce impacts, and lessons learned.

Leadership Team Performance

From all points of view, including my own, the BAPD Leadership Team appears to be a highly functioning group. Its members display the classic qualities of effective teams: knowledge, skill, motivation and coordination (Thompson 2000). In assessing team performance, Thompson (2000) urges managers to look particularly at *team productivity, team satisfaction, individual growth,* and *organization gains.*

In terms of *productivity* and *organizational gain*, the first 18-months of the BAPD Leadership Team have produced a number of important policy decisions. During this time frame the Team has researched and debated the following issues and initiatives:

- Employee disciplinary policy
- Promotional policy
- Use of force
- Citizen complaints policy
- Personnel evaluations
- Minimum staffing system
- Recruitment and selection practices (including minority recruiting)
- Uniform and equipment standards
- Police Department awards system
- Field training program and related manuals

The foregoing are all weighty issues. How police organizations recruit, train, supervise, evaluate, value, promote, and discipline their members are all critical to overall agency performance. Further, how police agencies handle use of force issues and citizen complaints directly impact community relations and questions of equity. Yet, these very issues have traditionally proven to be the most vexing to law enforcement organizations and are frequently at the root of labor-management problems and community tension (Thibalt, Lynch and McBride 1998; Moore 2003). During its inaugural year, the Leadership Team took on these dilemmas and succeeded in implementing policies that were well received by the BAPD command staff, City administration, the police union,

and the membership of the department. My assessment of the Team's work is also corroborated by positive evaluations of the Team in the employee survey data, which showed a 3.56 mean for non-Leadership Team respondents. Interestingly, this mean did not vary significantly from the mean for Leadership Team members, indicating that the Team is generally perceived in a positive way both internally and externally.

With regard to Thompson's (2000) team satisfaction and personal growth factors, it is particularly interesting to note the personal attachment exhibited by Leadership Team members toward their involvement in the project. For example, members have regularly forgone conflicting assignments, training opportunities, and even days-off in order to make Team meetings, suggesting a strong sense of commitment and satisfaction. At one point, a proposal was floated to reduce terms of service for Team members from two years to one year in order to involve more employees in the process. This suggestion was vigorously and unanimously resisted by the Team. Although they cited concerns about continuity and unfinished work for their opposition to the proposal, no doubt their sense of pride, importance and satisfaction was also a motivation. Further, informal conversations with Team members revealed common themes revolving around personal growth, greater appreciation of the "bigger picture," more openness to diverse viewpoints, improved communications and team skills, and greater concern for career development. No doubt, training has played an important role in this personal and professional growth aspect for Leadership Team members.

Wellins, Byham and Wilson (1991) identify training in the early stages of team development as a critical factor for consideration. This is particularly true of high involvement teams of the Leadership Team variety (Lawler 1993). This issue was

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recognized at the outset and assistance was sought through the University of Oklahoma. Representatives of the OU-Tulsa Organizational Dynamics program provided specialized training to the BAPD Leadership Team in team dynamics, problem solving, communications, diversity, and mission / vision statements.

From that first training, the Team seemed to jell. The group chose the phrase "Unity from Within" as its motto, a reflection of a shared vision and attention to the larger organization. No doubt, the initial training and the group's success in tackling difficult issues have helped foster a positive, winning mindset. Although its interactions can, at times, become quite heated, members appear to respect each other even as they debate and disagree. More importantly, they appear to respect the decisions of the group, which signifies cohesion and synergy (Thompson 2000).

Aside from important policies, the BAPD has gained valuable affective benefits from the work of the Leadership Team. Principally, the Team has helped set a positive, can-do tone for the agency. It has helped demonstrate and inculcate shared mental models (Senge 1990) throughout the BAPD. By continually exhibiting willingness to set personal agendas aside for the greater good, Leadership Team members have helped the entire organization embrace a spirit of involvement, innovation and common values. Their personal growth has facilitated organizational growth.

Labor-Management Relations

As part of its duty, the Leadership Team has taken on labor issues that previously might have resulted in formal grievances and / or costly arbitrations. In addition, the makeup of the team is centered on a balanced representation of union and administrative interests. To date, there have been no formal grievances filed since inception of the

Leadership Team. This bucks the historical trend for the department. Although complete grievance data was not available, both union and administration officials agreed that, on average, approximately four formal union grievances would typically have been initiated in any given year. In 2002, the year immediately preceding the participative management changes, labor relations were further marred by particularly divisive grievance arbitrations.

The fact that no grievances have been filed during the term of the Leadership Team is a remarkable milestone for the agency. I would attribute this to improved interaction and collaboration between the police union and police administration, primarily through the vehicle of the Leadership Team. Importantly, these benefits seem to have filtered beyond just the union and administrative personnel who actually sit on the Team. In daily interactions between managers and union officials outside the bounds of the Leadership Team, a more conciliatory mindset is evident at every level of the organization.

As noted with other labor-management cooperation studies, a role exchange process may be at work here (Ospina and Yaroni 2003; Kearney and Hays 1994). Open lines of communication, appreciation of divergent viewpoints, and confidence in a winwin outcome, have improved labor-management relations throughout the department. Rank and file, as well as mid-level, employees are thinking like senior managers, while executive officers are looking at issues from the perspective of line troops. This has been my experience in daily interactions with union officials and rank and file employees. This conclusion is also supported by the survey data that indicates improved participation, support, communication, commitment, and assessments of the agency's administration.

Workforce Impacts

The quantitative data gathered by this study suggest some important workforce outcomes in terms of commitment, communication, and involvement resulting from the participative philosophy adopted by the BAPD. Heretofore, we have primarily been discussing measurable impacts. However, for the moment, my interests are those impacts which are less measurable, but no less important.

Leading up to this study, it was my belief that that there was a general improvement in employee morale in our organization as a result of the new involvement strategies. This seemed apparent in people's outlook, mood, and cohesiveness. There was also a feeling of greater interest and input from front line employees in both internal and external issues related to the department. This observation was based on a steady rise in the number and quality of ideas filtering into the Chief's office and the Leadership Team from the rank and file of the agency. These suggestions involved issues related to working conditions, process improvement, service delivery, and specific problem - solving. At first, initiatives came directly from the Leadership Team, but then they started trickling in from the field.

The trend within the BAPD toward greater employee input and involvement has been gradual. I suspect that as it became apparent that the Leadership Team was indeed empowered to undertake real change, all our employees were thereby encouraged. The warm reception such initiatives received from both the Leadership Team and the administration helped foster an inclusive culture that, in turn, increased the volume of ideas from the field. Such multi-level involvement is crucial to organizational learning and change management (Senge 1990; Mohrman and Mohrman 1993; Watkins and Marsick 1993). Within the BAPD, the momentum toward greater involvement has been unmistakable and, to date, has not abated.

Employee suggestions typically come in the form of simple e-mails, memos, or word of mouth. Usually, the idea is forwarded to the Leadership Team and an invitation is floated to the sender to address the Team and work toward implementation if the change is adopted. A cautionary note here is that suggestion systems should be kept as simple as possible. Overly complicated systems which require large amounts of documentation in the early stages tend to dissuade involvement. Formal systems can often appear daunting to first line employees whose job responsibilities are traditionally not change oriented. Although formal project management systems may be necessary in large organizations to ensure initiatives are heard and tracked, smaller organizations, such as the BAPD, can accomplish much more with less. This, at least, has been our experience.

It is in exactly this manner that a number of award winning initiatives have come to pass for the BAPD. For instance, "Project Under-21" is an educational and enforcement campaign that targets underage drinking. The Broken Arrow program was initiated and implemented by three patrol officers without any solicitation from management. The program has subsequently been recognized by the Oklahoma Highway Safety Office as an award winning initiative. "Operation Community Pride" was the brainchild of a detective who saw a need to address crime by abating code violations in certain neighborhoods, in the spirit of Kelling and Cole's (1996) "Broken Windows" theory. The program has received statewide and regional attention, has been featured in the media and at statewide conferences. "Operation Don't Meth Around" is an award winning project that targets methamphetamine labs by enlisting the community's help in identifying individuals who purchase methamphetamine precursors. The program, which was launched by BAPD narcotics detectives, has been featured in three international police publications and attracted attention from the COPS Office of the U.S. Department of Justice, the International Association of Chiefs of Police, and the Community Policing Consortium.

The foregoing are some notable examples of important programs that have bubbled up from front line employees. There are numerous other examples that have impacted internal process improvement, organizational efficiency, working conditions, and employee productivity. Cotton et al (1988) point out that a culture receptive to involvement can be either formal or informal. Further, informal systems can be highly successful in promoting participation and making employees feel empowered. The structure of the Leadership Team is a formal system, but it is backed up by an informal philosophy committed to systemic listening.

The key to increased employee involvement and organizational learning is communication and systems for capturing knowledge and experience (Senge 1990). This is where the Leadership Team has been invaluable. Simply stated, people feel their opinions are valued. This is evident in the quantitative data, but is also apparent in the interest and willingness of people to step forward and be heard. The Leadership Team stands as both a vehicle for input and a symbol of the organization's receptivity to employee involvement. It also demonstrates the administration's determination to "walk the talk," rather than merely pay lip service to employee empowerment. When people believe their opinions matter, they are much more likely to offer them. Further, the nature of the discourse tends to be more positive and problem-solving, and less complaint oriented. This improved flow of information enhances the organization's ability to solicit and capture the knowledge and creativity of its human assets. It is not rocket science, but relatively few organizations seem to grasp the concept.

Interestingly, it seems there has been a progression of the participatory process within the BAPD; an evolutionary process that has moved from administrative initiatives to self-generation at all levels. Whereas a great deal of effort was required in the early stages of PM implementation, these strategies appear to eventually take on a life of their own. People seem to feed on the activity of others and a general cultural change ensues. It is what Townsend and Gebhardt (1997) refer to as "leadership at every level." Everything from self-initiated projects to crime fighting and community volunteerism has improved within the BAPD. The quantitative and archival data appear to support this assertion, as evidenced by the improved workforce motivation factors. Judging from their behavior, employees seem to have internalized the goals and values of the agency and are embracing the concept that their ideas and leadership are valued by the organization.

Lessons Learned

Probably the most difficult aspect of undertaking a participative approach to management is making the personal commitment to accept the decisions of others. Paradoxically, police chiefs who have spent most their careers taking orders from others in the best military traditions, find it troubling to once again share their authority. Police

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leaders are capable, even gifted, warriors adept at surviving both street battles and political battles. To expect that once on top they should turn around and relinquish a good portion of their power is perhaps asking too much. Yet, this is exactly should happen if American policing is to step into the 21st Century.

I think it was critical to the success of the BAPD participative management strategy that the Chief's Office totally supported decisions coming out of the Leadership Team. This has not always been easy to do. In a couple of instances, I did not necessarily agree with the decisions and could have vetoed them. However, I gritted my teeth and went with it, because to do otherwise would have undercut the legitimacy of the Team and ultimately our commitment to PM. As things turned out, the Team's wisdom was vindicated and, to date, no fault has been found with any Leadership Team decision or policy. The flip side of this is that the Leadership Team has to be willing to evaluate their work and make necessary adjustments.

There were certain milestones in the department's PM philosophy that defined whether the program would be successful or not. Ironically, each of these involved situations in which I doubted the Team. By confidentially expressing my contrary opinions to the Team, but publicly supporting their decisions, trust and confidence was fostered on both sides. At this point I am confident that any Leadership Team decision will be carefully researched, thought out, discussed, and implemented. Their decisionmaking capabilities exceed my own, or even that of the entire senior management. This is true because their decisions directly incorporate the first-hand knowledge and insights of those closest to the work. For their part, they know they have the support of the Chief's Office. It is also somewhat ironic that this level of reciprocal trust inclines them to give power back to the Chief's Office. Efforts to devolve power to others frequently results in its return, but with the added impetus of support.

As in other respects, trust and empowerment of the Leadership Team has paid dividends far beyond just the Team. It became apparent that every instance of power sharing had a multiplying effect on the rest of the department. The larger organization came to understand that a new culture was taking hold, one in which they had a stake and a say. The paradigm shifted, first with the Leadership Team, and then in a ripple effect throughout the organization.

It is important to note that participative management is not really bottom-up management. Rather, it is management from the center. In structuring the Leadership Team, we were careful to involve *every* level of the organization – rank and file, sworn and non-sworn, first-line supervisors, middle managers, and senior executives. Each level and function has knowledge, skills and abilities that add value to the decision-making process. This is also important in terms of fostering buy-in from the heart of the organization. High involvement participation works best when it emanates from the center, rather than the top or bottom.

This brings us to the issue of the nature of the workforce. I have been discussing PM from a generic police perspective. Certainly, these strategies may not be appropriate to all police organizations in terms of size, function, or workforce makeup. PM calls for a mature workforce, one that is composed of knowledgeable, seasoned and well-intentioned employees. As Kahnweiler and Thompson (2000) note, certain demographic characteristics are also more conducive to participation, such as education and mid-level tenure. And, with respect to labor unions, probably only a "mature union," as defined by

Douglas (1990), would be prepared to handle the power-sharing arrangements of PM. For the Broken Arrow Police Department, all these pieces of the puzzle fell into place. It is unknown just how PM strategies as described here might work in a larger police department. Size creates challenges to communication, involvement, accountability, etc. that may make participative management untenable.

Historians are fond of pointing out the folly of fighting the next war with the tactics of the last war. If police managers continue to fight today's battles with the management tactics of yesterday's war, they will face an adaptive challenge that will threaten their ability to fulfill their mission. Ronald Heifetz (1994) points out that, "The roads of evolution are strewn with the bones of creatures that could not thrive in the next environment" (p. 28). From a police perspective, success in the new environment will be defined by those who recognize the shared quality of power and leadership.

CHAPTER V: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

We become the most powerful when we give our own power away. James Kouzes and Barry Posner (1995)

Discussion and Implications

This study set out to assess the adoption of participative management practices within the Broken Arrow Police Department. The immediate purpose was to provide feedback to the agency's administration on the workforce impacts of these new approaches. In the larger context, it was also anticipated that conclusions drawn from the present case study may have implications for other similarly situated law enforcement agencies. Generally, the study hoped to provide some insight into whether participative management is any more effective than traditional approaches to managing police organizations. More specifically, the study sought to determine whether participative management contributes to improved employee commitment and labor relations in police organizations. Based on a search of the literature, the study set out three hypotheses. All three of these propositions are supported by the data.

Labor-Management Relations

Previous research suggested that labor-management cooperation (LMC) has the capacity to improve labor relations in both private and pubic enterprise. Therefore, the study's first hypothesis (H_I) proposes that participative management practices can be expected to have a positive effect on labor-management relations in police organizations. This hypothesis was tested by comparing longitudinal data of two identical surveys given to a paired sample of the BAPD workforce in 2002 and 2005. The police union's own survey instrument, which assessed union member attitudes toward a wide array of workplace issues, was used for both surveys. With participative

management as the intervention, it was possible to compare longitudinal results in a pretest / post-test fashion.

The results of this analysis revealed rather dramatic improvement in unionized police officer attitudes on nearly all factors in 2005. The data indicated statistically significant improvement in officer assessments of management, organizational communications, employee relations, motivation, participation, support, and commitment. All mean values reached well into the positive range and exhibited a near ceiling effect in some areas. This stands in stark contrast to the 2002 data. It is obvious that a positive change has occurred. Multiple regression analysis suggests that this change is at least partially due to the agency's PM strategies, which strongly predicted employee feelings of organizational support ($r^2 = .62$). Unionized employee involvement in decision-making has apparently enhanced their sense of support from, and commitment to, the organization. This conclusion is also supported by the absence of any union grievances for the period of the PM intervention, an anomaly for the agency. Participant observation further supports the conclusion that PM has positively affected labor-management relations within the BAPD in terms of communication, conciliation, role reversal, and adoption of win-win perspectives by both labor and management representatives.

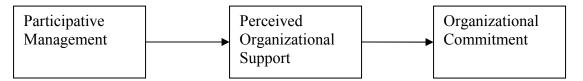
The study's finding that PM practices contribute to improved labor-management relations affirms previous research by Nurick (1982), Ospina and Yaroni (2003), and Kearney and Hays (1994). The study further demonstrates that the same sort of successful LMC strategies found in private industry and in some elements of the public sector have the capacity to impart similar benefits to police organizations. Inasmuch as

the extent and scope of police unionism has been growing in recent years, it is important for police administrators to consider the implications of the present research. Police labor grievances and arbitrations are not necessarily unavoidable. Certainly, their frequency and impact can be limited through collaborative power sharing arrangements of the type depicted in this case study. As Flynn (2004) and Skogan (2004) note, police unions are a major power broker in the law enforcement arena. They can support or thwart any police initiative. They deserve and demand to be consulted on a wide range of matters affecting police organizations and their employees.

Participative Management Model

The study's second hypothesis (H_2) holds that participative management practices have a positive effect on police employee perceptions of organizational support, which, in turn, results in improved commitment to the organization. This proposition was supported by examination of the data through multiple regression analysis. Analysis revealed that PM predicted 62% of the variance in POS and POS, in turn, predicted 36% of the variance in OC. The study's theoretical mediator model is therefore affirmed:

PM Outcomes Model



The PM Outcomes Model suggests that participative management practices in police organizations can contribute to employee perceptions of organizational support. Further, out of a reciprocity response, improved POS can trigger greater affective organizational commitment. This finding supports research, in part or in whole, by Armeli et al (1998), LaMastro (2000), Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002), Meyer and Allen (1997), Eisenberger et al (1990), Lau and Lim (2002), and Van Yperen et al (1999). However, in the present context it should be noted that PM did not predict all of the variation in POS, nor did POS predict all of the variation in OC. It is likely that other variables also impact POS and OC as well, such as organizational justice, pay and promotions, peer group, education, job enrichment, job ambiguity, continuance commitment, individual socioemotional needs, etc. (Armelli et al 1998; Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002; Myers 2004; Mowday et al 1982; Meyer and Allen 1997; Spence-Laschinger et al 2004; Beck 1999).

Archival Data

As measured by Moore's (2003) criteria, the Broken Arrow Police Department is either doing well or holding its own in terms of *reduction of crime, equitable use of force and authority, holding offenders accountable, reduction of fear,* and *customer satisfaction.* Independent assessments, accreditations, awards and recognition seem to confirm this level of solid organizational performance.

Although not part of the study's hypotheses, it was suggested by previous research that PM and OC have the capacity to enhance organizational citizenship behavior, productivity, and job performance (Mowday et al 1982; Mowday 1999; Eisenberger et al 1990; Lau and Lim 2002; Huang 1997: Mohrman et al 1995; Ming 2004; Ledford 1993; LaMastro 2000; Van Yperen et al 1999). Some archival records indicate that a number of productivity markers improved roughly contemporaneously with the implementation of PM. A five-year longitudinal analysis revealed significant increases in BAPD discretionary productivity – arrests, field interviews, and

investigations cleared. In addition, citizen / customer satisfaction surveys showed improvement from 1998 - 2004. Citizen complaint, use of force, traffic citation, and UCR data all showed positive recent trends, but were ultimately inconclusive due to yearly fluctuations. Ultimately, the link between improved work product outcomes and PM cannot be established. However, to the same degree, the findings are not inconsistent with such a thesis.

In the public sector there is relatively little opportunity for providing employee incentives. Public enterprise generally lacks the ability to offer monetary rewards in the form of raises, bonuses, or profit sharing. Consequently, public managers are limited in their tools to motivate subordinates. They must rely on affective factors, such as pride, duty, and commitment to instill a positive work ethic in public employees. Unions, civil service protections, and the inherent discretionary nature of police work tend to insulate police officers to a far greater degree from both sanctions and incentives than is the case in private industry or in many areas of the public sector. If police officers choose to work hard, they do so out of their individual work ethic and group motivations.

In the case of the Broken Arrow Police Department, what is clear is that officer morale is evidently much improved over 2002, as are levels of participation, feelings of support, and commitment to the organization. We know from analysis of the survey data that PM is at least partially responsible for some of this variation in POS and OC. What is not clear is whether these factors are responsible for increases in some BAPD discretionary activity?

Representative Participation

It was anticipated from the literature (Cotton et al 1988; Nurick 1982; Coyle-Shapiro 1999) that clear differences would emerge in the data between Leadership Team members and non-members. The study's third hypothesis (H_3) suggests that the degree of improvement in police employee perceptions of organizational support and their feelings of organizational commitment are proportional to their actual involvement in participative management activities. This proposition was generally supported by the data, although not as strongly as anticipated.

The data indicated that variance between Leadership Team members and nonmembers for PM was statistically significant, while POS and OC exhibited only a statistical tendency toward variance (p < .10). The study's conclusion that representative participation is more meaningful for actual participants than non-participants is in line with other research and supports the notion that direct participation has the ability to enhance employee perceptions of involvement, and contributes somewhat to POS and OC. This has implications for the study's concurrent findings that the independent and dependent variables tended to degrade as rank decreased.

Integrating the Lower Ranks

Disaggregating the data by rank revealed significant disparities between the upper and lower levels of the organization in terms of PM, LTeam, POS, and OC. Although mean values remained positive across all levels, the statistically significant differences indicate the limited ability of representative PM to penetrate the culture of a police organization. Officers generally felt less autonomous, less involved in decision-making, less supported, and slightly less committed than their superiors. However, the fact that Leadership Team membership emerged as a predictor of variance indicates that representative PM still has potential to impact the lower ranks if ways can be found to integrate front line officers into the process of job involvement. As noted, this might be accomplished through the use of Leadership Team subcommittees, more ad hoc committee members, and greater representation of the base officer rank on the Team. In addition, informal participative strategies may prove equally effective in promoting integration of the lower ranks.

Integrating Civilian Personnel

Beyond the study's hypotheses, other conclusions can be drawn from the research. One of the most important of these relates to the disparities between civilian and sworn personnel in police agencies. Some statistically significant differences surfaced in this regard. Civilian mean values for all factors tended to be slightly lower than those for officers. In particular, incentives, training, autonomy, and evaluations of the Leadership Team all varied to a significant degree from sworn personnel (p < .05). These are warning flags for the administration. Ways should be devised to allow non-sworn personnel to participate in decisions affecting their daily work lives. Perhaps additional civilian positions on the Leadership Team should be created. More resources should be funneled into training initiatives for civilians. As noted, officers saw their inservice training hours double during 2004. A similar arrangement for civilians may pay comparable dividends.

The problem of comparatively lower indicators within the civilian ranks of police agencies is fairly common. Lower pay, less union protection, less recognition, lack of career tracks, and less training all contribute to this situation. This study only confirms what most police administrators already know – they face a continual challenge in motivating and rewarding their civilian personnel. However, on the positive side, most indicators for the civilians were strongly positive and most differences between civilian and sworn personnel were non-significant. Although no longitudinal comparison was possible, the positive correlations between PM, POS and OC held for civilian employees as well as sworn. This suggests a viable strategy for police administrators to help motivate civilian employees through job involvement initiatives and an alternative for addressing the historical discrepancy between officers and civilians in police organizations.

Scope and Limitations of the Study

External Threats

Human organizations arise out of complex interactions between internal and external factors, between individuals, and between individuals and systems. Lacking an experimental design, there is no hope in the present context of accounting for every possible variable that may affect the data. Those variables which were obvious at the outset, identifiable from the literature, or which emerged during the data gathering process were acknowledged and an effort was made to account for them. Certain assumptions with regard to dependence and independence of variables are also inevitable.

One problem with regard to research in the area of organizational behavior is that many of the constructs, and instruments designed to test them, are very closely related. In fact, in some cases, it appears to be more a matter of semantics than distinction. To some degree, this may simply be a language problem. For instance, the constructs of organizational support, organizational justice, and supervisory support appear to be synonymous and would be difficult to separate in the minds of those experiencing them. Yet, each construct bears significantly different treatment in the literature. Further definitional issues arise in connection with participative management (as noted by Cotton et al 1988) and organizational commitment (Meyer and Allen 1991, 1997; Mowday et al 1999). Various researchers have attempted to delineate theses constructs into distinct components, with attendant variation in measurement and outcome. With respect to this study, no attempt was made to deal with these definitional issues. PM, POS and OC were treated as unitary concepts. It may have been more useful to attempt to refine the definitional issues more acutely, as well as the instruments used to test them. Future research may wish to address this problem.

As several researchers have noted, all of the constructs investigated here are, at least to some degree, affected by the unique contextual issues of the local environment and the individual participants (Kahnweiler and Thompson 2000; Cotton et al 1988; Huang 1997; Tepper et al 2004; Robert et al 2000; Somech 2002; Williams 1998). The PM practices which were implemented in the BAPD are wholly dependent upon these contextual factors for the outcomes. It cannot automatically be assumed that the same interventions in another organization would have the same results. There is always a leap of faith in this regard with case study research, particularly with single case study methods. That is why multiple site research is to be preferred (Yin 2003). Therefore, extrapolating the results to other police settings may be spurious and highlights the need for further research and replication. This is a problem of external validity for the study.

There are other obvious threats to external validity when drawing conclusions from a small sample, as is the case here. The BAPD is a small to medium sized police agency. The sample was only n = 129. While the response quote of 90% is certainly sufficient to draw valid conclusions concerning the BAPD, it is difficult to extrapolate the conclusions to all law enforcement agencies or all police officers. In some cases, conclusions are drawn about units and functions within the BAPD with responses from just a handful of people. The statistical margin for error is quite large when trying to extrapolate the results beyond the BAPD.

Internal Threats

A number of internal threats to validity must also be acknowledged. First, there is the vexing issue of personality and leadership. This research was not able to control for the fact that a change of leadership had occurred at the top of the BAPD at the same time that participative management approaches were implemented. This study is not able to separate which outcomes may have been due to a simple change in personality in the Chief's Office and which were due to the PM interventions. The potential for personality effects or "rebound effects" to confound the results is quite high.

At the time the participative management approaches were implemented morale was low, labor-relations were poor, motivation and productivity were sagging. Almost any intervention could be expected to have positive outcomes. To put it in a sporting perspective, this is why baseball managers will sometimes change pitchers, football coaches will switch quarterbacks, or why team owners will change coaches like they change their socks. It often has less to do with physical ability than it does team psychology. Leadership, or more precisely a change in leadership, could be expected to have a confounding influence on the results in this study. However, a noteworthy detail in the data with respect to personality effects is the dramatic shift in the mean scores on all items relating to the Chief and Division Commanders. I was a member of the department both prior to and following the adoption of the PM management philosophy. In 2002, as one of three Division Commanders, I received very lackluster evaluations in the F.O.P. survey, with many of the means falling well into the negative range. Yet, in 2005, as Chief, the scores were vastly improved. Nothing in my personality or leadership ability changed during the interim. What did change was my management style.

In 2002, most significant decisions were made at the Chief's level. It only fell to the Division Commanders, Watch Commanders, and Squad Leaders to implement those decisions. Very little discretionary authority was offered at any level of the chain-ofcommand. My management style in 2002, and that of the entire command structure, was determined by the dictates of the Chief's Office. There was little opportunity or incentive to solicit input or subordinate participation.

However, under the new administration, the paradigm shifted to a philosophy of shared leadership that seeks to disperse authority throughout the organization. Management style (PM) was the only variable that changed. The same results are observable with respect to the other Division Commanders. The same individuals, in the same positions and essentially doing the same jobs, were rated far more positively in 2005 than in 2002. Further, all changes were statistically significant (p < .001). As in my case, the only notable difference for the Division Commanders between the two surveys was implementation of PM. Although we can't be sure that a rebound effect is not still at work, perhaps it is important to make the point that a leader's style defines the

leader. In other words, leadership is expressed through one's management style and perhaps that is how subordinates come to know and experience the leader. If BAPD officers are experiencing the same leaders differently today than in 2002, it must be due to a fundamental change in their management approach.

Another internal validity concern arises in regard to the limited survey questionnaire upon which conclusions are drawn about the independent and dependent variables. In an attempt to keep the survey instrument manageable for respondents, only four items each were incorporated to evaluate POS, OC and LTeam, and only six for PM. When combined with the 32-item original 2002 F.O.P. instrument, the questionnaire consisted of 50 questions plus some demographic background. This was felt to be the upper limit on questionnaire length that would not impair the study's response quote. The original instruments in the PM, POS and OC literature from which questions were drawn were much more extensive. Although the internal reliability among the items, as measured by Cronbach's alpha, was satisfactory, a more in-depth instrument may have drawn different results.

Finally, an internal threat to validity exists with regard to the third hypothesis, which predicts that employee levels of POS and OC will be proportional to the degree of direct involvement in PM. Certainly, significant variances were observed in PM and statistical tendencies were observed in POS and OC for BAPD employees who had Leadership Team involvement. However, it is possible that any differences in the data for Leadership Team employees versus the rest of the department may be a function of the added attention, training, and prestige afforded these members, independent of their participatory functions. This is a phenomenon known as the "Hawthorne effect" (Hagan

2000). To some degree, this is to be expected since the Hawthorne effect, in itself, helps explain the positive associations with PM. Participative management is a form of attention that is often perceived by employees as bestowing an element of trust, confidence and importance, thereby eliciting a reciprocity response in terms of organizational support and commitment.

Further Research

In an academic sense, this research may be the first exploration of the link between participative management, perceived organizational support, and organizational commitment in a police setting. The study also expands the existing body of research in the area of labor-management cooperation (LMC) to include police organizations. However, as with all research, the insights offered here create more questions than answers and open new opportunities for further inquiry.

The study's many limitations suggest areas for future research. Concerns for internal validity could be ameliorated by developing more extensive survey instruments that more thoroughly test the constructs of PM, POS and OC. Further, replication of the study in an organization that has not undergone revolutionary change, as was the case here, could control for the potentially confounding effects of labor union upheaval and "rebound effects." In addition, qualitative research might help explain some of the data produced by this study. For instance, interviews conducted with members and non-members of the BAPD Leadership Team might offer additional insights into the effects of PM and LMC interventions. Replication of the study in a traditionally managed police department of similar demographics, but otherwise healthy, would also offer a good point of comparison between traditional and PM management approaches. Research is also

needed to determine what effects PM might have in law enforcement organizations of different size and demographic makeup. In addition, with an established baseline of longitudinal data, replication within the same agency may yield a fuller understanding of the impacts of PM over time.

Shared Leadership and Police Administration

This study produced several findings of consequence for the Broken Arrow Police Department. First, it validated the agency's participative management practices in terms of employee morale, union-management relations, and productivity. Second, the data illuminated areas for improvement in terms of finding ways to enhance involvement for sworn personnel at the lower ranks, as well as offering more autonomy and training for civilian employees. In this connection, greater officer level and civilian representation on the Leadership Team is recommended. Finally, the study affirms the importance of ongoing assessment and organizational learning for the agency. However, the study also has implications beyond just the Broken Arrow Police Department.

With respect to the larger law enforcement audience, the present research suggests alternative approaches to police administration. It demonstrates that the participatory practices in use in many other fields have applicability to the police profession, and offer many of the same advantages in terms of workforce morale, commitment, and labor relations. In this connection, it should be noted that the BAPD's shared leadership philosophy is not relegated to just representative participation as embodied in the Leadership Team. Although that Team is the centerpiece of the initiative, the participative culture it symbolizes is practiced at the staff, division, unit and squad level of the department as well. Managers and supervisors at every point in the organization are encouraged to adopt an inclusive style that solicits input, encourages initiative, fosters communication, incorporates feedback, and listens intently. This approach is further supported by a human resource development strategy that strongly encourages education and training.

Given that the resources for developing motivation in public sector employees are limited, the advantages of participative management loom all the more significant. The present findings should be of interest to police practitioners concerned with building high involvement organizations, improving relations with their labor unions, or implementing community-oriented policing more effectively.

Community Policing

Numerous observers have noted the problems associated with the adoption of community-oriented policing in the U.S. (Friedell 2004; Goldstein 1990; Kelling and Coles 1996; Mastrophski 1998; Peak and Glensor 2002; Sparrow, Moore and Kennedy 1990; Skogan 2004). For the most part, these commentators have placed the nexus of the problems at the apparent disconnect between traditional hierarchical police management and the COP imperative for line officer empowerment. The other major obstacle for COP involves getting beat officer buy-in for a more holistic problem-solving approach to police work. PM may be a useful strategy for dealing with both issues.

Whether through formal structures such as the Leadership Team, or more informal approaches, inclusion has the potential to improve decision-making, foster ownership, and overcome line officer resistance to community policing and change in general. This was demonstrated by the quantitative data indicating very positive assessments of Leadership Team decisions and a statistically significant improvement in employee internalization of the department's community policing mission. Participation provides officers greater latitude and authority, while commitment fosters greater acceptance of agency goals, including COP.

Morale and Organizations

This case study of the Broken Arrow Police Department suggests that participative approaches to police administration can cause employees to feel more valued and supported by their organization, more committed to their organization and its goals, and can cultivate better labor-management relations. It also suggests that inclusion promotes communication at all levels and helps bridge the schism between management and line officers. These are all impressive potential benefits. But, even if inclusion and empowerment did nothing more than raise morale, it would be worth the investment.

In many ways, this study is really about how we nurture workforce morale and thereby create a more effective law enforcement organization. Morale is a fairly simple construct to define, but more difficult to operationalize. Webster's (1972) would express it this way, "...the mental and emotional attitudes of an individual to the function or tasks expected of him by his group and loyalty to it; a sense of common purpose with respect to a group" (p. 550). Morale is an intangible and often fragile construct. It nearly always defies measurement, yet you know it when you see it. You see it in championship teams, in the fighting spirit of elite military units, and in high performance organizations of every description. In the workplace it is expressed in the smiles and laughter of one's co-workers, in their work ethic, and in their work product. You know when morale rises and when it sinks. All collective human endeavors ultimately ride on morale. Whether

through shared leadership or other strategies, police administrators are advised to attend to the affective and intangible factors that define morale in their organizations.

APPENDICES

- Appendix 1 Survey Cover Letter
- Appendix 2 Survey Instruments (A and B)
- Appendix 3 BAPD Policy and Procedure: Leadership Team
- Appendix 4 Leadership Team Brochure
- Appendix 5 Original 2002 F.O.P. Lodge 170 survey results
- Appendix 6 BAPD Survey Report: 2002-2005
- Appendix 7 Group Statistics: Sworn vs. Civilian
- Appendix 8 Group Statistics: Leadership Team Members vs. Non-Members
- Appendix 9 Regression Tables

APPENDIX 1

SURVEY OF BAPD MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

Dear BAPD employee:

The Broken Arrow Police Department and the University of Oklahoma – Tulsa are cooperating on a project to evaluate the management practices of the BAPD. We invite you to take part in this study entitled, "Shared Leadership: An Assessment of Participative Management in a Police Organization." Participation in this study is open to all full-time employees of the Broken Arrow Police Department.

Your participation will entail completing a questionnaire and should not take more than 20 minutes of your time. Each full-time employee of the BAPD is being provided with one copy of the questionnaire. Sworn and non-sworn employees are receiving slightly different versions of the survey. Your involvement in this research is entirely voluntary, is totally anonymous, and you may withdraw at any time. No identifying information of any kind is associated with these questionnaires. Refusal to participate, or withdrawal at any time, will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

The findings from this project will provide data to better understand the affects of shared leadership techniques in police agencies. The information will also provide feedback to improve the administration of the BAPD.

Should you choose to participate in the survey, seal the completed questionnaire in the attached envelope and place it in the container marked "Mail" located behind Tracy Lee's desk, near the front entrance of BAPD Headquarters. The completed surveys will be forwarded to the University of Oklahoma – Tulsa, where they will be tabulated in aggregate form to ensure anonymity. If the results of the study are published, all results will be presented in summary form.

If you have any questions about this research project, please feel free to contact either Chief Todd Wuestewald or Dr. Brigitte Steinheider at (918) 660-3476 or <u>bsteinheider@ou.edu</u>. Questions about your rights at a research participant or concerns about the project should be directed to the Office for Human Research Participant Protection at the University of Oklahoma – Norman at (405) 325-8110 or <u>irb@ou.edu</u>.

Thank you for your consideration and help with this project.

Sincerely,

Dr. Brigitte Steinheider, MBA, Ph.D. Assistant Professor Department of Psychology University of Oklahoma, Tulsa Graduate College

Todd Wuestewald Chief of Police Broken Arrow Police Department

APPENDIX 2

Broken Arrow Police Department

Employee Survey (A)

The Broken Arrow Police Department and the University of Oklahoma are cooperating to conduct a survey of the Broken Arrow Police Department, designed to assess employee perceptions of the Department. The responses you provide will remain anonymous and will only be used to evaluate the operations of the Broken Arrow Police Department. Please seal the completed questionnaire in the attached envelope and place it in the container marked "Surveys" located behind Tracy Lee's desk, near the front entrance of BAPD Headquarters.

I. Please answer the following questions according to how strongly you agree or disagree with the statement:

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1.	BAPD recognizes employees who do a good job.			Disagree		
2.	Discipline is administered impartially.					
3.	BAPD rewards Officers for providing good service.					
4.	Sufficient incentives are available to encourage good job performance.					
5.	BAPD's mission motivates employees to do their best work.					
6.	I am proud to work for the BAPD.					
7.	The relationship between BAPD and the citizens of BA is good.					

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
8.	The current hiring process ensures the most qualified applicants are hired.			Disagree		
9.	BAPD communicates effectively with the community.					
10.	When I provide input, my opinions are seriously considered.					
11.	Patrol Officers spend most of their time responding to calls for service.					
12.	The sworn staffing level of BAPD is adequate.					
13.	Sufficient training is available to all personnel.					
14.	Promotional decisions are made in a fair and equitable manner.					
15.	BAPD Officers are well trained.					
16.	Open lines of communication within the Department are maintained.					
17.	The Division Commanders (Majors) ensure that open lines of communication within the Department are maintained.					

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
18.	First Line Supervisors (Sgt's & Cpl's) ensure that open lines of communication within the department are maintained.			Disagree		
19.	The Chief of Police is skilled at managing the Department.					
20.	The Division Commanders are skilled at managing their Divisions.					
21.	My Supervisor is someone I trust.					
22.	The Chief of Police is committed to ensuring community needs are met.					
23.	The Division Commanders are committed to ensuring community needs are met.					
24.	The Watch Commanders are committed to ensuring community needs are met.					
25.	First Line Supervisors are committed to ensuring community needs are met.					
26.	The Chief of Police is committed to ensuring his Officer's professional needs are met.					
27.	The Division Commanders are committed to ensuring their Officer's professional needs are met.					

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
28.	First Line Supervisors are committed to ensuring their Officer's professional needs are met.			Disagree		
29.	The Chief of Police places the needs of BAPD as priority over personal agenda.					
30.	The Division Commanders place the needs of BAPD as priority over personal agenda.					
31.	The Watch Commanders place the needs of BAPD as priority over personal agenda.					
32.	First Line Supervisors place the needs of BAPD as priority over personal agenda.					
33.	The Leadership Team provides a way for employees to submit issues for consideration.					
34.	The BAPD really cares about my well-being.					
35.	I talk-up the BAPD to my friends as a great organization for which to work.					
36.	Within the last 18-months, I have seen a positive change in the management style in this department.					

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
37.	I get credit for my ideas.			Disagree		
38.	The Leadership Team has improved the operations of					
39.	the Police Department. The BAPD takes pride in my accomplishments at work.					
40.	I really care about the fate of the BAPD.					
41.	BAPD managers have made an effort to increase employee involvement in decision-making.					
42.	The Leadership Team has authority to make important decisions.					
43.	The BAPD values my contributions to its well- being.					
44.	I am glad that I chose the BAPD over other departments I was considering at the time I joined.					
45.	Within the last 18-months, BAPD managers have made an attempt to allow employees to improve our own work processes.					
46.	I decide how to do my job.					
47.	The Leadership Team is working hard on behalf of employees to make things better.					

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
48.	The BAPD would grant a reasonable request for a change in my working conditions.			Disagree		
49.	I am proud to tell others that I am a part of the BAPD.					
50.	My ideas get serious consideration.					
II.	Please provide the following	; informatio	on:			

1. Please indicate rank:

Officer	
Corporal	
Sergeant	
Captain	
Major	
T (1 CO	

2. Length of Service:

0 to 5 years 6 to 10 years 11 to 15 years 16 years or more			
3. Male 🗌 Fei	nale	Age:	

4. Are you a member of the Leadership Team or have you ever worked with the Leadership Team?

Yes	No	

Broken Arrow Police Department

Employee Survey (B)

The Broken Arrow Police Department and the University of Oklahoma are cooperating to conduct a survey of the Broken Arrow Police Department, designed to assess employee perceptions of the Department. The responses you provide will remain anonymous and will only be used to evaluate the operations of the Broken Arrow Police Department. Please seal the completed questionnaire in the attached envelope and place it in the container marked "Surveys" located behind Tracy Lee's desk, near the front entrance of BAPD Headquarters.

I. Please answer the following questions according to how strongly you agree or disagree with the statement:

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1.	BAPD recognizes employees who do a good job.			Disagree		
2.	Discipline is administered impartially.					
3.	Sufficient incentives are available to encourage good job performance.					
4.	BAPD's mission motivates employees to do their best work.					
5.	I am proud to work for the BAPD.					
6.	The relationship between BAPD and the citizens of BA is good.					
7.	BAPD communicates effectively with the community.					
8.	When I provide input, my opinions are seriously considered.					
9	The civilian staffing level of BAPD is adequate.					

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
10.	Sufficient training is available to all personnel.			Disagree		
11.	Promotional decisions are made in a fair and equitable manner.					
12.	Open lines of communication within the Department are maintained.					
13.	The Chief of Police is skilled at managing the Department.					
14.	My Supervisor is someone I trust.					
15.	The Leadership Team provides a way for employees to submit issues for consideration.					
16.	The BAPD really cares about my well-being.					
17.	I talk-up the BAPD to my friends as a great organization for which to work.					
18.	Within the last 18-months, I have seen a positive change in the management style in this department.					
19.	I get credit for my ideas.					
20.	The Leadership Team has improved the operations of the Police Department.					
21.	The BAPD takes pride in my accomplishments at work.					
22.	I really care about the fate of the BAPD.					

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
23.	BAPD managers have made an effort to increase employee involvement in decision-making.			Disagree		
24.	The Leadership Team has authority to make important decisions.					
25.	The BAPD values my contributions to its well-being.					
26.	I am glad that I chose the BAPD over other departments I was considering at the time I joined.					
27.	Within the last 18-months, BAPD managers have made an attempt to allow employees to improve our own work processes.					
28.	I decide how to do my job.					
29.	The Leadership Team is working hard on behalf of employees to make things better.					
30.	The BAPD would grant a reasonable request for a change in my working conditions.					
31.	I am proud to tell others that I am a part of the BAPD.					
32.	My ideas get serious consideration.					
Ple	ease provide the following information	on:				
1	1. Please indicate Unit or Division:					
	Administrative A Communications	re you a s	upervisc	or: Yes	🗌 No [

II.

	Jail Records Animal Control			
2.	Length of Service:			
	0 to 5 years 6 to 10 years 11 to 15 years 16 years or more			
4.	Male 🗌 Femal	e 🗌	Age:	
_			1	

5. Are you a member of the Leadership Team or have you ever worked with the Leadership Team?

No	
	No

APPENDIX 3

BAPD POLICY 212: LEADERSHIP TEAM

The Leadership Team has been established to help make decisions on issues affecting working conditions, policy, process and problem solving. The Leadership Team operates independently of the chain-of-command and with the authority of the Chief's Office.

DEFINTIONS

None

VISION

The Leadership Team will serve as a collective voice for the Department providing direction and leadership, promoting excellence throughout the Department.

MISSION

The Leadership Team will serve all employees of the Broken Arrow Police Department by providing fair and balanced leadership, responsive to changes in the Department and police community as a whole. By developing credible and accepted policies and procedures, the team will insure positive morale and a feeling of pride in our Department.

REGULATIONS

- 1. The Leadership Team will research, discuss, reach consensus, and submit a written recommendation on matters referred to it by the Chief's Office. Any member of the Department may submit an issue to the Chief of Police for possible consideration by the Leadership Team. However, only the Chief may refer items to the Leadership Team for consideration.
- 2. The F.O.P. President and a Divisional Major (as appointed by the Chief) will Co-Chair the Leadership Team
- 3. The remaining nine (9) members will consist of the following:
 - A. F.O.P. Board member (appointed by the F.O.P. President)
 - B. Administrative Captain
 - C. Department Policy Writer
 - D. At-Large member of the Department (appointed by the F.O.P. President)

- E. At-Large member of the Department (appointed by Co-Chair Major)
- F. Elected sworn member
- G. Elected non-sworn member
- H. At-Large member appointed by the Chief of Police
- I. At-Large member appointed by the Chief of Police
- J. The Co-Chairmen may appoint one ad hoc member if the need arises.
- 4. Major policy issues, matters affecting working conditions, significant procedural issues, conflict and problem resolution, awards and uniforms are all appropriate subject matter, which the Leadership Team may be asked to consider. In addition, the Team may be asked to offer advice and help inform decisions on strategic matters. Personnel or disciplinary matters do not fall within the purview of the Leadership Team.
- 5. The Leadership Team will determine the method of its own decision-making process. The Co-Chairmen will determine meeting times and discussion format. Every effort should be made to encourage vigorous discussion of issues and reach group consensus before making recommendations.
- 6. Co-Chairmen are encouraged to submit issues to Team members and solicit their written opinions prior to meetings.
- 7. Leadership Team members are encouraged to seek input from employees throughout the Department on relevant issues and should accurately represent peer opinions to the Team.
- 8. Some matters may be appropriate to seek input and / or a mandate from the entire Department. When this is done, a majority vote format is appropriate.
- 9. Minutes of Leadership Team meetings will be kept at the direction of the Co-Chairs. However, discussion minutes will not be kept to facilitate open and honest discourse.
- 10. Upon recommendation of the Co-Chairmen, any member of the Leadership Team may be dismissed from further participation if it is felt to be in the best interests of the Leadership Team and the Department. Examples of circumstances, which might necessitate such action, would be repeated failure to attend meetings, failure to complete assignments, derogatory commentary about other Team members, etc.

11. Each member of the Leadership Team, excluding F.O.P. representatives, will serve a two-year term before new appointments are made.

PROCEDURES

- 1. Eight (8) of the twelve (12) members of the Leadership Team must be present in order to establish a quorum.
- 2. A sixty-five percent (65%) vote in reference to any issue must be made, by the members present, in order for the issue to be approved.

APPENDIX 4



their motto. This captures the spirit of their methods and represent all ranks and most opportunity throughout the Department for important for the development of a healthy chosen the phrase "Unity from Within" as organization, which values the talent and I am extremely proud of the team When I became Chief, one of the With this in mind, the Leadership empowered to make important decisions individiuals were chosen by a variety of mission, but will only be effective if you jobs within our agency. They are your first things I wanted to do was provide that has been assembled. They have Chief Todd Wuestewald input and participation. I felt this was give them your ideas, opinions and Team was created. These twelve representatives and have been concerns of its employees. on behalf of all of us.

support.

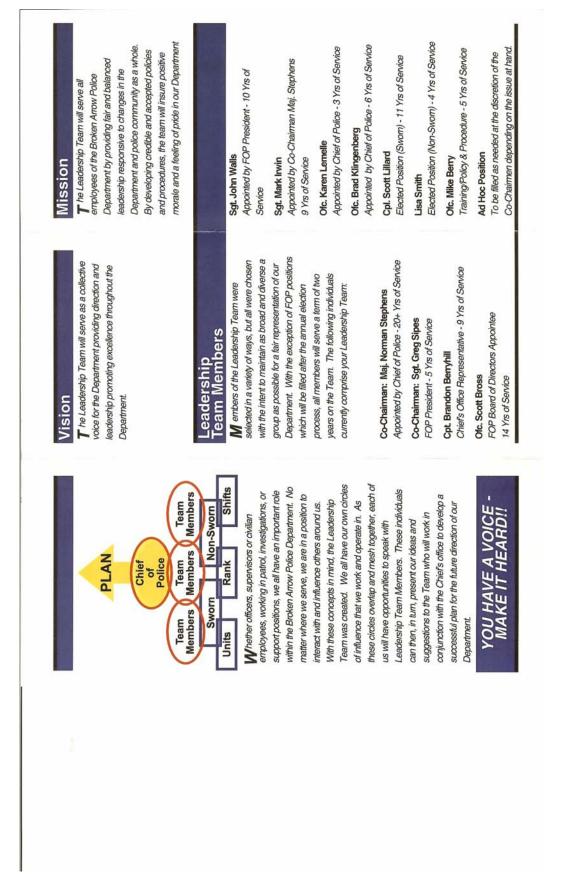
Team Operations

From the Chief

before the Team by the Chief of Police will some of the areas that may be addressed be properly addressed. The following are set by the Chief of Police. The Team will The Leadership Team's agenda will be committee. Any issues that are brought replace current committees such as the awards committee and the uniform by the Team:

- Policy Issues
- Working Conditions
 - Problem Solving
- Process Improvement Grievance Issues
- Strategic Recommendations

The Chief has agreed that decisions made ${\boldsymbol{A}}$ II employees of the Department are encouraged to submit ideas and concerns on issues brought before the Team will be consideration by the Leadership Team. binding, barring any conflict with local, to the Chief's Office for possible state or federal law.



APPENDIX 5

Broken Arrow Fraternal Order of Police – Lodge 170 Department Survey

- I. Please Supply the following: (color in the corresponding letter)
 - 1. Division / Shift Currently Assigned -
 - A. First Shift Patrol <u>11 responses</u>
 - B. Second Shift Patrol <u>19 responses</u>
 - C. Third Shift Patrol 15 responses
 - D. Headquarters Division 22 responses
 - E. Support Division 4 responses
 - 2. Length of Service: (color in the corresponding letter)
 - A. -0 to 2 years -6 responses
 - B. -2 to 5 years -20 responses
 - C. -5 to 10 years -12 responses
 - D. 10 to 15 years 13 responses
 - E. 15 years or more 19 responses
 - 3. Present Rank: (color in the corresponding letter)
 - A. Officer <u>47 responses</u>
 - B. Corporal 3 responses
 - C. Sergeant 11 responses
 - D. Captain 6 responses
 - E. Major <u>3 responses</u>

II. Please answer the following questions:

 BAPD recognize do a good job. 	es employees who	Strongly Agree 1	3.17	Strongly Disagree 5
5. Discipline is adn	ninistered impartially.	1	4	<u>.06</u> 5
6. BAPD rewards of good service.	officers for providing	1	3.10	5
7. Sufficient incent encourage good		1	<u>3.81</u>	5
8. BAPD's mission to do their best w	motivates employees ork.	1	<u>3.33</u>	5
9. The relationship l citizens of BA is	between BAPD and the good.	1	2.06	5

10. The current hiring process ensures the	Strongly Agree 1	Strongly Disagree <u>3.42</u> 5
most qualified applicants are hired.		
11. BAPD communicates effectively with the community.	1 <u>2.65</u>	5
12. The community has all the facts related to staffing and issues with the BAPD.	1	<u>4.49</u> 5
13. Patrol officers spend most of their time responding to calls for service.	1 <u>2.28</u>	5
14. Officers have sufficient time to police and carry out their duties properly.	1 3	<u>3.43</u> 5
15. The sworn staffing level of BAPD is adequate.	1	<u>4.43</u> 5
16. The civilian staffing level of BAPD is adequate.	1 <u>3.</u>	<u>40</u> 5
17. Sufficient training is available to all personnel.	1	<u>3.90</u> 5
18. Promotional decisions are made in a fair and equitable manner.	1 <u>3.1</u>	<u>5</u> 5
19. BAPD officers are well trained.	1 <u>2.65</u>	5
20. BAPD should explore the idea that seniority should be a factor in assignments & transfers.	1 <u>1.68</u>	5
21. I am proud to work for the BAPD.	1 <u>1.71</u>	5
22. When I provide input, my opinions are seriously considered.	1 <u>3.0</u>	<u>64</u> 5
23. The FOP is doing an effective job in representing its membership.	1 <u>2.29</u>	9 5

24.	The Chief of Police ensures that open lines of communication within the department are maintained.	Strongl Agree 1	y	Strongly Disagree <u>4.21</u> 5
25.	The Division Commanders (ie. Majors) ensure that open lines of communication within the department are maintained.	1	<u>3.40</u>	5
26.	The Watch Commanders (ie. Captains) ensure that open lines of communication within the department are maintained.	1	<u>2.56</u>	5
27.	First Line Supervisors (ie. Sgt's & Cpl's) ensure that open lines of communication within the department are maintained.	1	<u>2.10</u>	5
28.	The Chief of Police is skilled at managing the department.	1		<u>4.17</u> 5
29.	The Division Commanders are skilled at managing their divisions.	1	<u>2.83</u>	5
30.	My supervisor is someone I trust.	1	<u>2.04</u>	5
31.	I receive sufficient guidance from my supervisor.	1	<u>2.10</u>	5
32.	The Chief of Police is committed to ensuring community needs are met.	1	<u>3.10</u>	5
33.	The Division Commanders are committed to ensuring community needs are met.	1	<u>2.76</u>	5
34.	The Watch Commanders are committed to ensuring community needs are met.	1	_2.26	5
35.	First Line Supervisors are committed to ensuring community needs are met.	1	<u>1.96</u>	5
36.	The Chief of Police is committed to ensuring her officer's professional needs are met.	1	<u>4</u>	<u>.13</u> 5

III. Leadership & Management of the Broken Arrow Police Department.

37.	The Division Commanders are committed to ensuring their officer's professional needs are met.	1	<u>3.24</u>		5
38.	The Watch Commanders are committed to ensuring their officer's professional needs are met.	1	<u>2.51</u>		5
39.	First Line Supervisors are committed to ensuring their officer's professional needs are met.	1	<u>2.14</u>		5
40.	The Chief of Police places the needs of BAPD as priority over personal agenda.	1		<u>4.38</u>	5
41.	The Division Commanders place the needs of BAPD as priority over personal agenda.	1	<u>3.26</u>		5
42.	The Watch Commanders place the needs of BAPD as priority over personal agenda.	1	<u>2.61</u>		5
43.	First Line Supervisors place the needs of BAPD as priority over personal agenda.	1	2.32		5

		BAPI	D Survey	Report				
		N ₂₀₀₂	M ₂₀₀₂	N ₂₀₀₅	M ₂₀₀₅	t	df	р
1	BAPD recognizes employees who do a good job.	70	2.83	91	4.15	17.694	90	0
2	Discipline is administered impartially.	70	1.94	89	3.57	16.826	88	0
3	BAPD rewards Officers for providing good service.	70	2.9	91	3.76	10.503	90	0
4	Sufficient incentives are available to encourage good job performance.	70	2.19	91	3.34	12.069	90	0
5	BAPD's mission motivates employees to do their best work.	70	2.67	91	3.59	11.823	90	0
6	I am proud to work for the BAPD.	70	3.29	91	4.78	10.574	90	0
7	The relationship between BAPD and the citizens of BA is good.	70	3.94	91	4.33	6.427	90	0
8	The current hiring process ensures the most qualified applicants are hired.	70	2.58	91	3.62	9.688	90	0
9	BAPD communicates effectively with the community.	70	3.35	91	4.09	12.338	90	0
10	When I provide input, my opinions are seriously considered.	70	2.36	91	3.44	9.95	90	0
11	Patrol Officers spend most of their time responding to calls for service.	70	3.72	90	3.8	1.029	89	0.306
12	The sworn staffing level of BAPD is adequate.	70	1.57	91	1.81	3.118	90	0.002
13	Sufficient training is available to all personnel.	70	2.1	91	3.76	16.918	90	0

14	Promotional decisions are made in a fair and equitable manner.	70	2.85	91	3.51	6.444	90	0
15	BAPD Officers are well trained.	70	3.35	91	4.23	12.277	90	0
		N ₂₀₀₂	M ₂₀₀₂	N ₂₀₀₅	M ₂₀₀₅	t	df	р
16	The Chief of Police ensures that open lines of communication within the department are maintained	70	1.79	91	3.74	21.102	90	0
17	The Division Commanders (Majors) ensure that open lines of communication within the Department are maintained.	70	2.6	91	3.57	10.965	90	0
18	The Watch Commanders (ie. Captains) ensures that open lines of communication within the department are maintained	70	3.44					
19	First Line Supervisors (Sgt's & Cpl's) ensure that open lines of communication within the Department are maintained.	70	3.9	90	3.78	-1.495	89	0.139
20	The Chief of Police is skilled in managing the Department	70	1.83	91	4.46	39.357	90	0
21	The Division Commanders are skilled at managing their Divisions.	70	3.17	91	4.04	13.599	90	0
22	My Supervisor is someone I trust.	70	3.96	91	4.14	1.679	90	0.097
23	The Chief of Police is committed to ensuring community needs are met.	70	2.9	91	4.34	22.216	90	0
24	The Division Commanders are committed to ensuring community needs are met.	70	3.24	91	3.87	9.171	90	0

25	The Watch Commanders are committed to ensuring community needs are met.	70	3.74	91	3.84	1.559	90	0.123
26	First Line Supervisors are committed to ensuring community needs are met.	70	4.04	91	3.88	-2.587	90	0.011
		N ₂₀₀₂	M ₂₀₀₂	N ₂₀₀₅	M ₂₀₀₅	t	df	р
27	The Chief of Police is committed to ensuring his Officer's professional needs are met.	70	1.87	91	4.15	31.214	90	0
28	The Division Commanders are committed to ensuring their Officer's professional needs are met.	70	2.76	91	3.81	13.782	90	0
29	The Watch Commanders are committed to ensuring their officer's professional needs are met.	70	3.49					
30	First Line Supervisors are committed to ensuring their Officer's professional needs are met.	70	3.86	91	3.82	-0.445	90	0.658
31	The Chief of Police places the needs of BAPD as priority over personal agenda.	70	1.62	91	4.15	29.642	90	0
32	The Division Commanders place the needs of BAPD as priority over personal agenda.	70	2.74	91	3.76	12.029	90	0
33	The Watch Commanders place the needs of BAPD as priority over personal agenda.	70	3.39	91	3.75	1.352	90	0
34	First Line Supervisors place the needs of BAPD as priority over personal agenda.	70	3.68	91	3.78	1.195	90	0.235

	G	roup St	atistics((Sworn	Vs. Civi	lian)					
Item	Ver	N	Mean	SD	SEM	F	Sig	t	df	р	
BAPD recognizes employees	1	91.00	4.15	0.71	0.075	0.109	0.742	1.664	127	0.099	
who do a good job.	2	38.00	3.92	0.75	0.122			1.631	66.442	0.108	
Discipline is administered	1	89.00	3.57	0.92	0.097	2.154	0.145	2.188	123	0.031	
impartially.	2	36.00	3.17	1.00	0.167			2.107	60.018	0.039	
BAPD rewards Officers for	1	91.00	3.76	0.78	0.082						
providing good service.	2	0 ^a									
Sufficient incentives are	1	91.00	3.34	0.91	0.095	0.589	0.444	2.416	127	0.017	
available to encourage good job performance.	2	38.00	2.89	1.06	0.172		_	2.268	60.875	0.027	
BAPD's mission motivates	1	91.00	3.59	0.75	0.078	0.075	0.784	1.175	127	0.242	
employees to do their best work.	2	38.00	3.42	0.79	0.129			1.145	65.641	0.256	
I am proud to work for the	1	91.00	4.78	0.44	0.046	12.659	0.001	2.114	127	0.036	
BAPD.	2	38.00	4.58	0.60	0.097			1.87	54.617	0.067	
The relationship between BAPD	1	91.00	4.33	0.58	0.061	0.21	0.648	0.563	127	0.574	
and the citizens of BA is good.	2	38.00	4.26	0.66	0.111			0.525	60.112	0.601	
The current hiring process	1	91.00	3.62	1.02	0.107						
ensures the most qualified applicants are hired.	2	0 ^a									
BAPD communicates effectively	1	91.00	4.09	0.57	0.060	7.804	0.006	-1.109	127	0.27	
with the community.	2	38.00	4.21	0.58	0.094			-1.104	68.681	0.273	
When I provide input, my	1	91.00	3.44	1.04	0.109	0.545	0.462	-0.779	126	0.438	
opinions are seriously considered.	2	38.00	3.59	0.99	0.162		-	-0.795	69.95	0.429	
Patrol Officers spend most of	1	90.00	3.80	0.74	0.078						
their time responding to calls for service.	2	0 ^a									

The sworn staffing level of	1	91.00	1.81	0.07	0.078	13.54	0	-3.144	127	0.002	
BAPD is adequate.	2	38.00	2.34	1.12	0.182			-2.672	51.136	0.01	
Sufficient training is available to	1	91.00	3.76	0.94	0.098	7.804	0.006	3.667	127	0	
all personnel.	2	38.00	3.03	1.24	0.201			3.269	55.345	0.002	
Promotional decisions are made	1	91.00	3.51	0.97	0.102	0.179	0.673	1.312	127	0.192	
in a fair and equitable manner.	2	38.00	3.26	0.92	0.149			1.341	72.839	0.184	
	1	91.00	4.23	0.68	0.072						
BAPD Officers are well trained.	2	0 ^a									
	1	91.00	3.57	0.08	0.089	3.916	0.05				
The Division Commanders (Majors) ensure that open lines of communication within the Department are maintained.	2	0 ^a									
First Line Supervisors (Sgt's &	1	91.00	3.78	0.78	0.082						
Cpl's) ensure that open lines of communication within the Department are maintained.	2	0 ^a									
The Chief of Police is skilled at	1	91.00	4.46	0.64	0.067	1.356	0.246	0.311	127	0.757	
managing the Department.	2	38.00	4.42	0.76	0.123			0.289	59.955	0.773	
The Division Commanders are skilled at managing their	1	91.00	4.04	0.61	0.064						
Divisions.	2	0 ^a									
My Supervisor is someone I	1	91.00	4.14	1.04	0.109	3.766	0.55	1.878	126	0.63	
trust.	2	37.00	3.73	1.33	0.218			1.695	54.847	0.096	
The Chief of Police is committed to ensuring community needs are	1	91.00	4.34	0.62	0.065						
met.	2	0 ^a									
The Division Commanders are	1	91.00	3.87	0.65	0.068						

committed to ensuring community needs are met.	2	0 ^a								
The Watch Commanders are committed to ensuring	1	91.00	3.84	0.58	0.061					
community needs are met.	2	0 ^a								
First Line Supervisors are committed to ensuring	1	91.00	3.88	0.59	0.062					
community needs are met.	2	0 ^a		ļ						
The Chief of Police is committed	1	91.00	4.15	0.70	0.073					
to ensuring his Officer's professional needs are met.	2	0 ^a		 						
The Division Commanders are committed to ensuring their	1	91.00	3.81	0.73	0.076			T		
Officer's professional needs are met.	2	0 ^a								
First Line Supervisors are	1	91.00	3.82	0.77	0.081					
committed to ensuring their Officer's professional needs are met.	2	0 ^a								
The Chief of Doligo plagos the	1	91.00	4.15	0.08	0.085					
The Chief of Police places the needs of BAPD as priority over personal agenda.	2	0ª								
	1	91.00	3.76	0.81	0.085			1		
The Division Commanders place the needs of BAPD as priority over personal agenda.	2	0 ^a								
The Watch Commanders place	1	91.00	3.75	0.78	0.082					
the needs of BAPD as priority over personal agenda.	2	0 ^a			~					
First Line Supervisors place the needs of BAPD as priority over personal agenda.	1	91.00	3.78	0.80	0.084					
personal agenua.	2	0 ^a		<u> </u>						

Leadership Teams provides a way	1	91.00	3.70	1.03	0.108	0.657	0.419	0.236	127	0.813	
for employees to submit issues	2	38.00	3.66	0.91	0.147			0.249	77.912	0.804	
BAPD really cares about my well	1	91.00	3.60	0.87	0.091	0.011	0.915	0.213	126	0.831	
being	2	38.00	3.57	0.93	0.153			0.207	62.891	0.837	
I talk up BAPD as a great	1	91.00	4.31	0.69	0.073	0.932	0.336	1.402	127	0.163	
organization to work for	2	38.00	4.11	0.86	0.140			1.283	57.946	0.205	
In the last 18 months I have seen a	1	91.00	4.52	0.75	0.079	13.695	0	4.464	126	0	
positive change in management style	2	38.00	3.76	1.13	0.183			3.813	51.54	0	
I get credits for my ideas	1	91.00	3.52	0.82	0.086	0.989	0.322	0.875	127	0.383	
T get credits for my lucas	2	38.00	3.37	1.00	0.162			0.808	58.961	0.423	
Leadership Team has improved	1	91.00	3.51	1.03	0.108	4.411	0.038	1.433	127	0.154	
operations for department	2	38.00	3.24	0.82	0.133			1.571	86.089	0.12	
BAPD takes pride in my	1	91.00	3.76	0.82	0.086	1.44	0.232	2.03	127	0.044	
accomplishments	2	38.00	3.42	0.95	0.154			1.913	61.331	0.06	
I really care about the fate of BAPD	1	91.00	4.58	0.50	0.052	4.616	0.034	0.52	127	0.604	
	2	38.00	4.53	0.69	0.111			0.456	53.794	0.65	
BAPD managers have made an effort to increase employee	1	91.00	3.95	0.82	0.086	1.358	0.246	1.955	127	0.053	
involvement	2	38.00	3.63	0.85	0.138			1.925	67.156	0.058	
Leadership Team had authority to	1	91.00	3.92	0.84	0.088	1.159	0.284	2.714	126	0.008	
make important decisions	2	38.00	3.47	0.89	0.145			2.645	65.856	0.01	
	1	91.00	3.58	0.83	0.087	0.25	0.618	0.656	127	0.513	
BAPD values my contributions	2	38.00	3.47	0.92	0.150			0.628	63.337	0.532	
I am glad I chose BAPD over other	1	91.00	4.59	0.58	0.060	8.065	0.005	1.623	127	0.107	
departments	2	38.00	43.90	0.76	0.122			1.455	55.889	0.151	
In last 18 months managers have attempted to allow employees to	1	90.00	4.02	0.75	0.079	5.202	0.024	3.021	126	0.003	

important work processes	2	38.00	3.55	0.92	0.149			2.778	58.653	0.007	
I decide how to de my ich	1	91.00	3.91	0.83	0.087	12.252	0.001	2.264	127	0.025	
I decide how to do my job	2	38.00	3.50	1.18	0.191			1.962	52.76	0.055	
Leadership team is working hard to	1	91.00	3.59	1.00	0.105	1.567	0.213	0.284	126	0.777	
make things better	2	38.00	3.54	0.84	0.138			0.306	79.267	0.761	
BAPD would grant a reasonable	1	91.00	3.55	0.82	0.086	1.265	0.263	0.608	127	0.544	
request for change in conditions	2	38.00	3.45	0.98	0.159			0.566	59.795	0.574	
I'm proud to tell others I am part of	1	91.00	4.70	0.51	0.053	6.896	0.01	1.864	127	0.065	
BAPD	2	38.00	4.50	0.69	0.112			1.646	54.432	0.106	
My ideas get serious consideration	1	91.00	3.53	0.85	0.090	0.818	0.367	0.573	125	0.567	
	2	38.00	3.43	1.02	0.167			0.533	57.845	0.596	
Rank/ Division	1	87.00	1.74	1.14	0.122	0.141	0.708	-3.577	120	0.001	
	2	35.00	2.57	1.24	0.210			-3.441	58.063	0.001	
Are you a supervisor?	1	0 ^a									
	2	35.00	1.69	0.47	0.080						
Length of service	1	87.00	2.44	1.14	0.122	1.022	0.314	3.557	123	0.001	
	2	38.00	1.66	1.10	0.178			3.609	73.006	0.001	
Gender	1	88.00	1.13	0.33	0.035	35.151	0	-6.365	122	0	
	2	36.00	1.61	0.49	0.082			-5.419	48.491	0	
Age	1	58.00	36.14	7.75	1.017	5.83	0.018	-0.375	86	0.709	
	2	30.00	36.90	11.15	2.036			-0.335	43.884	0.739	
Member of Worked w/ Leadership	1	87.00	1.79	0.41	0.044			-0.936	122	0.351	
team	2	37.00	1.86	0.35	0.057	3.918	0.05	-1	79.287	0.321	
РМ	1	91.00	3.88	0.63	0.066			2.704	127	0.008	
	2	38.00	3.52	0.81	0.131	1.823	0.179	2.448	56.879	0.017	

POS	1	91.00	3.62	0.66	0.069			1.295	127	0.198	
F05	2	38.00	3.45	0.81	0.132	1.181	0.279	1.186	58.11	0.24	
oc	1	91.00	4.55	0.47	0.049			1.685	127	0.095	
	2	38.00	4.38	0.59	0.096	1.12	0.292	1.531	57.257	0.131	
LTEAM	1	91.00	3.67	0.86	0.090			1.379	127	0.17	
	2	38.00	3.45	0.74	0.120	1.512	0.221	1.467	79.988	0.146	

a= t cannot be computed because at least one of the groups is empty.

1= Sworn

2= Civilian

Group Statistics (Member Vs Non Member)											
Item	Ver	N	Mean	SD	SEM	F	Sig	t	df	р	_
BAPD recognizes	1	23	4.30	0.703	0.147	1.609	0.207	1.489	122	0.139	
employees who do a good job.	2	101	4.08	0.643	0.064			1.408	30.941	0.169	
Discipline is	1	23	3.65	1.191	0.248	1.819	0.180	0.992	118	0.323	
administered impartially.	2	97	3.43	0.889	0.090			0.829	28.078	0.414	
BAPD rewards Officers	1	18	4.11	0.583	0.137	4.077	0.047	2.081	85	0.040	
for providing good service.	2	69	3.70	0.792	0.095			2.484	35.246	0.018	
Sufficient incentives are	1	23	3.43	0.992	0.207	0.000	0.999	1.015	122	0.312	
available to encourage good job performance.	2	101	3.21	0.962	0.096			0.995	332.117	0.327	
BAPD's mission	1	23	3.74	0.752	0.157	0.150	0.700	1.285	122	0.201	
motivates employees to do their best work.	2	101	3.51	0.756	0.075			1.290	32.929	0.206	
I am proud to work for	1	23	4.83	0.388	0.081	6.202	0.014	1.146	122	0.254	
the BAPD.	2	101	4.69	0.524	0.052			1.383	42.531	0.174	
The relationship	1	23	4.35	0.573	0.119	0.065	0.799	0.357	122	0.722	
between BAPD and the citizens of BA is good.	2	101	4.30	0.625	0.062			0.377	34.992	0.708	
The current hiring process ensures the most	1	18	3.83	0.786	0.185	3.478	0.066	0.839	85	0.404	
qualified applicants are hired.	2	69	3.61	1.060	0.128			0.999	35.001	0.325	
BAPD communicates	1	23	4.13	0.694	0.145	0.347	0.557	0.013	122	0.990	
effectively with the community.	2	101	4.13	0.560	0.056			0.011	28.852	0.991	
When I provide input,	1	23	3.96	0.928	0.194	2.635	0.107	2.397	121	0.018	
my opinions are seriously considered.	2	100	3.42	0.976	0.098			2.475	34.127	0.018	
Patrol Officers spend most of their time	1	18	3.89	0.676	0.159	0.079	0.780	0.479	84	0.634	
responding to calls for service.	2	68	3.79	0.764	0.093			0.514	29.569	0.611	

The sworn staffing level	1	23	1.65	0.714	0.149	0.115	0.735	- 1.861	122	0.065	
of BAPD is adequate.	2	101	2.04	937.000	0.093			- 2.205	41.251	0.033	
Sufficient training is available to all	1	23	3.70	1.105	0.230	0.024	0.877	0.681	122	0.497	
personnel.	2	101	3.52	1.083	0.108			0.672	32.325	0.506	
Promotional decisions are made in a fair and	1	23	3.70	0.974	0.203	0.328	0.568	1.325	122	0.188	
equitable manner.	2	101	3.41	0.940	0.094			1.296	32.006	0.204	
BAPD Officers are well	1	18	4.50	0.514	0.121	0.001	0.978	1.936	85	0.056	
trained.	2	69	4.17	0.663	0.080			2.246	33.367	0.031	
Open Communication in	1	23	3.96	0.928	0.194	1.002	0.319	1.584	122	0.116	
Department	2	101	3.61	0.938	0.093			1.595	33.022	0.120	
The Division	1	18	3.89	0.758	0.179	0.710	0.402	1.665	85	0.100	
Commanders (Majors) ensure that open lines of communication within the Department are maintained.	2	69	3.52	0.851	0.102			1.782	29.207	0.085	
First Line Supervisors (Sgt's & Cpl's) ensure	1	18	3.94	0.539	0.127	4.031	0.048	0.886	84	0.378	
that open lines of communication within the Department are maintained.	2	68	3.76	0.813	0.099			1.118	39.912	0.270	
The Chief of Police is skilled at managing the	1	23	4.57	0.590	0.123	0.948	0.332	0.824	122	0.411	
Department.	2	101	4.44	0.699	0.070			0.917	37.473	0.365	
The Division Commanders are skilled	1	18	4.11	0.583	0.137	0.000	0.994	0.493	85	0.624	
at managing their Divisions.	2	69	4.03	0.641	0.077			0.521	28.701	0.606	
My Supervisor is	1	23	4.30	0.926	0.193	2.276	0.134	1.300	121	0.196	
someone I trust.	2	100	3.96	1.188	0.119			1.519	40.53	0.137	

The Chief of Police is committed to ensuring	1	18	4.50	0.618	0.146	0.042	0.838	1.029	85	0.306	
community needs are met.	2	69	4.33	0.610	0.073			1.021	26.315	0.316	
The Division Commanders are	1	18	3.94	0.725	0.171	0.327	0.569	0.508	85	0.612	
committed to ensuring community needs are met.	2	69	3.86	0.648	0.078			0.476	24.549	0.639	
The Watch Commanders are committed to	1	18	3.94	0.539	0.127	1.691	0.197	0.852	85	0.397	
ensuring community needs are met.	2	69	3.81	0.601	0.072			0.908	29.032	0.371	
First Line Supervisors are committed to	1	18	3.83	0.514	0.121	0.182	0.670	- 0.409	85	0.683	
ensuring community needs are met.	2	69	3.90	0.622	0.075			- 0.458	31.287	0.650	
The Chief of Police is committed to ensuring	1	18	4.22	0.808	0.191	2.885	0.093	0.417	85	0.678	
his Officer's professional needs are met.	2	69	4.14	0.670	0.081			0.374	23.455	0.712	
The Division Commanders are	1	18	3.89	0.758	0.179	0.028	0.867	0.467	85	0.642	
committed to ensuring their Officer's professional needs are met.	2	69	3.80	0.739	0.089			0.460	26.071	0.650	
First Line Supervisors are committed to	1	18	3.94	0.639	0.151	3.140	0.080	0.711	85	0.479	
ensuring their Officer's professional needs are met.	2	69	3.80	0.815	0.098			0.820	32.994	0.418	
The Chief of Police	1	18	4.28	0.826	0.195	0.060	0.807	0.557	85	0.579	
places the needs of BAPD as priority over personal agenda.	2	69	4.16	0.797	0.096			0.545	25.88	0.590	
The Division	1	18	3.83	0.924	0.218	1.299	0.258	0.373	85	0.710	
Commanders place the needs of BAPD as priority over personal agenda.	2	69	3.75	0.775	0.093			0.337	23.615	0.739	
The Watch Commanders	1	18	3.83	0.786	0.185	0.144	0.705	0.534	85	0.595	

place the needs of BAPD as priority over personal agenda.	2	69	3.72	0.756	0.092			0.525	26.038	0.604	
First Line Supervisors place the needs of BAPD as priority over	1	18	4.11	0.471	0.111	10.347	0.002	2.039	85	0.045	
personal agenda.	2	69	3.70	0.828	0.100			2.783	47.651	0.008	
Leadership Teams provides a way for	1	23	4.09	1.164	0.243	1.135	0.289	1.952	122	0.053	
employees to submit issues	2	101	3.65	0.910	0.091			1.673	28.43	0.105	
BAPD really cares about	1	23	3.78	0.736	0.153	2.062	0.154	0.955	121	0.342	
my well being	2	100	3.59	0.900	0.090			1.083	38.723	0.286	
I talk up BAPD as a great	1	23	4.43	0.662	0.138	0.084	0.772	1.232	122	0.220	
organization to work for	2	101	4.22	0.782	0.078			1.368	37.369	0.179	
In the last 18 months I have seen a positive	1	23	4.70	0.559	0.117	10.659	0.001	2.302	121	0.023	
change in management style	2	100	4.20	995.000	0.099			3.235	58.828	0.002	
I get credits for my ideas	1	23	3.83	0.937	0.195	0.059	0.809	2.150	122	0.034	
	2	101	3.40	0.849	0.085			2.021	30.774	0.052	
Leadership Team has improved operations for	1	23	3.91	1.083	0.226	0.472	0.493	2.547	122	0.012	
department	2	101	3.37	0.891	0.089			2.253	29.151	0.032	
BAPD takes pride in my	1	23	3.87	0.869	0.181	0.002	0.968	1.202	122	0.232	
accomplishments	2	101	3.63	0.845	0.084			1.181	32.175	0.246	
I really care about the fate	1	23	4.74	0.449	0.094	7.705	0.006	1.747	122	0.083	
of BAPD	2	101	4.51	0.576	0.057			2.043	10.365	0.048	
BAPD managers have made an effort to increase	1	23	4.17	834.000	0.174	0.006	0.936	1.903	122	0.059	
employee involvement	2	101	3.81	0.821	0.082			1.884	32.436	0.069	
Leadership Team had authority to make important	1	23	4.26	0.810	0.169	0.032	0.859	2.765	121	0.007	
decisions	2	100	3.72	0.854	0.085			2.858	34.183	0.007	

BAPD values my	1	23	3.96	0.706	0.147	6.463	0.012	2.404	122	0.018	
contributions	2	101	3.50	0.856	0.085			2.714	38.26	0.010	
I am glad I chose BAPD	1	23	4.74	0.449	0.094	10.157	0.002	1.588	122	0.115	
over other departments	2	101	4.50	0.673	0.067			2.035	47.508	0.047	
In last 18 months managers have attempted	1	23	4.13	0.757	0.158	0.004	0.950	1.525	121	0.130	
to allow employees to important work processes	2	100	3.84	0.838	0.084			1.625	35.503	0.113	
I decide how to do my job	1	23	4.00	0.853	0.178	4.324	0.040	1.124	122	0.263	
	2	101	3.75	0.974	0.097			1.222	36.298	0.229	
Leadership team is working hard to make	1	22	3.95	1.133	0.242	1.727	0.191	1.880	121	0.063	
things better	2	101	3.54	0.878	0.087			1.596	26.755	0.122	
BAPD would grant a reasonable request for	1	23	3.74	0.964	0.201	0.000	0.984	1.219	122	0.225	
change in conditions	2	101	3.50	0.844	0.084			1.121	30.155	0.271	
I'm proud to tell others I am	1	23	4.78	0.42	0.088	5.734	0.018	1.207	122	0.230	
part of BAPD	2	101	4.62	0.598	0.059			1.496	44.657	0.142	
My ideas get serious	1	23	3.78	0.795	0.166	0.964	0.328	1.548	120	0.124	
consideration	2	99	3.46	0.907	0.091			1.680	36.558	0.101	
Rank/ Division	1	23	2.39	0.795	0.166	3.112	0.800	1.786	118	0.077	
	2	97	1.89	0.907	0.091			1.566	29.189	0.128	
Are you a supervisor?	1	5	1.60	0.548	0.245	0.391	0.536	- 0.385	32	0.703	
Are you a supervisor?	2	29	1.69	0.471	0.087			- 0.345	5.072	0.744	
Length of service	1	23	2.52	1.039	0.217	1.189	0.278	1.370	121	0.173	
	2	100	2.15	1.201	0.120			1.501	36.828	0.142	
Gender	1	23	1.26	0.449	0.094	0.032	0.858	- 0.088	121	0.930	
	2	100	1.27	0.446	0.045			- 0.088	32.755	0.930	
Age	1	15	36.73	7.658	1.977	0.482	0.489	0.158	86	0.875	

	2	73	36.33	9.290	1.087			0.179	23.334	0.859	
PM	1	23	4.10	0.572	0.119	0.650	0.422	2.408	122	0.018	
	2	101	3.71	0.723	0.072			2.788	39.741	0.008	
POS	1	23	3.84	697.000	0.145	0.012	0.912	1.850	122	0.067	
FU3	2	101	3.54	0.688	0.068			1.834	32.492	0.076	

0.082

0.053

0.209

0.074

2.888

3.157

0.395

0.536

1.003

0.739

0.081

0.039

0.018

0.057

122

42.707

122

27.688

1.758

2.126

2.404

1.988

0.092

0.078

1=	Member
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ос

LTEAM

2= Non Member

1

2

1

2

23

101

23

101

4.67

4.47

4.00

3.56

Independent variables	Unstandardized regression coefficient (β)	Standardized regression coefficient (β)	Standard error	t
POS	0.225	0.320	0.104	2.160 *
PM	0.210	0.281	0.120	1.750
Leadership Team	0.003	0.005	0.073	0.044
Control variables				
Sworn/Civilian	-0.231	-0.220	0.121	-1.909
Rank/ Division	0.05	0.139	0.041	1.352
Length of Service	0.110	-0.252	0.054	-2.043 *
Gender	0.135	0.125	0.108	1.259
Age	0.005	0.098	0.007	0.780
Member of/ worked with Leadership Team	-0.05	-0.042	0.123	-0.447
Intercept	3.031		0.457	0.0001***
R ²	0.430			
Adjusted R ²	0.363			
F				6.378***
N=129				
*p < 0.05				
^{***} p < 0.001				

Results of multiple Regression analysis with Organizational Commitment as dependent and Perceived Organizational Support (POS), Participative Management (PM) and Leadership Team as independent variables as well as control variables

Independent variables	Unstandardized regression coefficient (β)	Standardized regression coefficient (β)	Standard error	t
PM	0.814	0.764	0.093	8.704 ***
LTeam	0.119	0.129	0.079	1.508
Control variables				
Sworn/Civilian	0.103	0.069	0.132	0.782
Rank/Division	0.02	0.041	0.045	0.514
Length of Service	0.02	0.039	0.059	0.412
Gender	-0.03	-0.024	0.118	-0.315
Age	-0.01	-0.135	0.007	-1.419
Member of/r worked with Leadership	0.112	0.060	0.135	0.832
Team				
Intercept	0.08		0.501	0.166
R ²	0.659			
Adjusted R ²	0.623			
F				18.570***
N=129				
***p < 0.001				

Results of multiple Regression analysis with Perceived Organizational Support (POS) as dependent and Participative Management (PM) and Leadership Team as independent variables as well as control variables.

Independent variables	Unstandardized regression coefficient (β)	Standardized regression coefficient (β)	Standard error	t
PM	0.636	0.551	0.114	5.594***
Control variables				
Sworn/Civilian	-0.214	-0.132	0.189	-1.136
Rank/Division	0.111	0.182	0.063	1.764
Length of Service	-0.007	-0.011	0.085	-0.084
Gender	0.04	0.028	0.169	0.271
Age	-0.005	-0.064	0.011	-0.511
Member of/ worked with Leadership Team	-0.06	-0.031	0.194	-0.319
Intercept	1.538		0.697	2.293*
R ²	0.389			
Adjusted R ²	0.335			
F				7.105***
N=129				
*p<0.05				
***p < 0.001				

Results of multiple Regression analysis with Organizational Commitment as dependent and Perceived Organizational Support (POS), Participative Management (PM) and Leadership Team as independent variables as well as control variables.

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