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COLLEGE OF SOCIAL AND BEHAVIORAL SCIENCES

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Walden University
2011

Abstract

An Examination of the CompStat Management Model on Organizational Health and Job
Satisfaction

by

Richard Scott Freeman

MPA, Walden University, 2008

BS, Mercer University, 2006

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of
the Requirement for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
Public Policy and Administration

Walden University

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Abstract

Law enforcement leaders and researchers have hailed CompStat as a truly revolutionary police management method. Researchers have found that the CompStat management model is highly effective in reducing crime, increasing police effectiveness, and addressing community disorder, but unlike the community policing model, has been heavily criticized for its top-down management style, reinforcement of internal bureaucratic processes, leadership by fear, and its failure to motivate officers. The purpose of this study was to use servant leadership characteristics to examine the effect of the CompStat management model on police departments by assessing organizational health, perceptions of servant leadership characteristics, and overall job satisfaction ratings of police department employees. Using the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) survey, data were obtained from both CompStat and non-CompStat police department employees ($N = 466$). Point biserial correlation analyses found no statistically significant relationships between department type (CompStat and those that are not CompStat) and organizational health, individual servant leadership characteristics, and job satisfaction ratings. This study concludes that CompStat does not have an adverse effect on the organizational health of police departments, which is an important finding for police leaders, scholars, and researchers. This research has significant implications for social change relating to the improvement of America's law enforcement organizations by balancing out the needs to control and reduce crime while also promoting the dignity, worth, value, and development of America's law enforcement officers and the organizations in which they serve.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Background

Over the past 2 decades, American law enforcement agencies have faced a growing expectation to control and reduce crime. As Shane (2002) stated, the chief must not only control the department's budget, the chief must also control the human element of crime (p. 12). Because of the growing expectations of controlling and reducing crime, along with controlling the budget and daily operations, the management of modern police agencies has evolved into a complex and demanding job for law enforcement executives. In today's American police organizations, police executives must lead their departments in changing police culture, operations, and service delivery strategies to control and reduce crime and disorder. One management strategy that has emerged to meet the new, ever changing demands on law enforcement is CompStat.

American police executives face choosing from a wide array of policing strategies to achieve departmental goals with service delivery and crime control. Traditionally, police agencies have been the nonprofit governmental agencies that have had the responsibility of providing services regardless of a lack of budgetary support (Dorriety, 2005, p. 101). With those challenges, some police executives have sought to implement the most current and technologically advanced methods to ensure that their agency operates in the most efficient manner possible while also achieving the goals of crime control and reduction.

American law enforcement has a diverse, eclectic history of goals. The general goals for modern American law enforcement agencies include maintaining order, enforcing laws, and providing services to the citizens, with a major goal being that of

reducing crime (Dorriety, 2005, p. 101). With these goals in mind, both police agencies and police officers face new pressures, challenges, and opportunities for growth (Henry, 2002/2003, p. 151). As these pressures and challenges increase, the demands on police executives to lead their departments also increase. Innovations in modern technology and management principles for policing have provided police executives the tools to collect and analyze crime data and to provide direction to support police officer efforts to control crime.

Of the many different policing strategies, CompStat is one that encompasses a wide array of technology and innovation. CompStat is a widely known and highly successful strategy for controlling and reducing crime (Henry, 2002/2003; McDonald, 2002; Ratcliffe, 2008; Weisburd, Greenspan, Mastrofski, & Willis, 2008a). Since its emergence in the early 1990s, CompStat has become a new, highly effective model for managing and leading a police organization. According to Henry (2002/2003), CompStat has revolutionized the way that some police agencies have operated, and how police officers provide police services in order to realize significant decreases in crime.

The CompStat model combines various policing and managerial strategies into one comprehensive policing paradigm. According to Walsh (2001), “CompStat is a goal-oriented strategic management process that uses technology, operational strategy and managerial accountability to structure the delivery of police services and provide safety to communities” (p.347). CompStat successfully blends all of these elements into a viable paradigm that police executives can utilize to address the element known as crime. According to Henry (2002/2003), CompStat is a hybrid management style that combines the most effective managerial elements and philosophies into one comprehensive

management model (p. 24). With the blending of the best policing strategies and managerial concepts, CompStat provides American law enforcement executives with a new, revolutionary paradigm to lead their police agencies.

While CompStat has rapidly spread (Walsh, 2001) and has proven to be an effective management style that focuses on reducing crime, it has also been criticized for reinforcing the traditional top-down model of policing (Eterno & Silverman, 2006). Eterno and Silverman found that CompStat utilizes a combination of management styles that utilize fear, intimidation, and embarrassment for top police and middle commanders. Eterno and Silverman further posited that, despite the external, positive aspects of crime control and reduction in which CompStat has been highly successful, a number of negative outcomes may emerge in the police organizations that implement and utilize CompStat that include depriving employees of a voice in decision-making, concealment of mistakes, and feelings of alienation.

In addition to the internal problems associated with CompStat, the CompStat paradigm has also created a number of problems within the community. Eterno and Silverman (2006) posited that the very nature of CompStat is a numbers game in which officers fail to seek out crime victims for fear of creating another crime number that would be reported in the Uniform Crime Report (UCR). In addition, CompStat has been more closely aligned to the legalistic approach to policing, which focuses heavily on the police making arrests and issuing summonses (Eterno & Silverman, 2006). While CompStat has been effective at reducing crime and disorder, the impact on the community is often negative in the light of abuse of authority by the police (Eterno & Silverman, 2006). According to Eterno and Silverman, departments that have

implemented CompStat have often realized significant increases in citizen complaints regarding illegal searches, excessive use of force, and the perception that the police were more like an occupying army than a police force as a result of the pressures from CompStat to reduce crime. With the combined internal and external problems associated with CompStat, departments utilizing the CompStat management model could realize problems associated with personnel and staffing.

The demands placed on modern law enforcement agencies have translated into higher recruitment standards that align individual officers with the department's goals and objectives. This is even more apparent in smaller agencies, which have reported extreme difficulties in filling vacancies due to a lack of qualified applicants (Raymond, Hickman, Miller, & Wong, 2005, p. 19). In the past few years, recruitment, hiring, and retention of high quality police officers have become an even larger problem than in the past (Scrivner, 2006). The totality of the negative aspects of CompStat, combined with its wide and rapid adoption by agencies, could adversely affect the organizational health of police agencies; thereby, hindering recruitment efforts, increasing turnover rates, and exacerbating personnel shortages.

While community-policing models may have diverted police organizations away from traditional, centralized decision-making and control, Compstat reportedly refines and reinforces the traditional, hierarchical structures of policing (Weisburd et al., 2008a, p. 12). Despite the overwhelming successes in reducing crime in hundreds of law enforcement organizations, CompStat has been heavily criticized for its top-down management style, reinforcement of internal bureaucratic processes, leadership by fear, and its failure to motivate officers (Eterno & Silverman, 2006). Weisburd et al. (2008)

posited that, although CompStat offers agencies the potential to improve their performance and the way they work, it reinforces the traditional hierarchical structures that have been under attack by scholars for more than 2 decades.

Traditionally, police departments have relied heavily on highly detailed policies and procedures that clearly establish clear internal controls by chief executives (Weisburd et al., 2008a). Traditional supervisory systems have been strongly hierarchical and negative with a heavy reliance on sanctions for violations of policies and procedures (Weisburd et al., 2008b, p. 57). It is under this type of system that police agencies are likely to use negative supervision approaches to reinforce internal accountability (Weisburd et al., 2008b). Weisburd et al. (2008b) posited that it was the bureaucratic organizational model of traditional policing that came under attack as community policing and related policing models gained popularity.

The goals established by CompStat agencies, in contrast to the goals set by community policing agencies, reveal the focus of the department and the chief executive. Research conducted by Weisburd et al. (2008b) indicated that agencies implementing CompStat had the primary goal of reducing serious crime. In the same research, the agencies implementing CompStat gave a much lower priority on improving the skills and morale of the police officers, which had been a higher priority for agencies implementing community policing. Eterno and Silverman explained that “reducing crime, as admirable as that is, is not the most critical goal of policing in democracies; it is incomplete. The most critical goal is to protect Constitutional rights while, at the same time, attempting to reduce crime” (p. 227). In comparing CompStat and community policing departments,

clear distinctions begin to emerge that place each of the models on opposite ends of the spectrum in regards to goals and priorities.

Although CompStat has proven to be effective in reducing crime, there are many unanswered questions about CompStat. Despite the major advantages of crime reduction, the research has not demonstrated a theoretical foundation for explaining how CompStat operates nor the implications for the implementation of CompStat (Willis, Mastrofski, & Weisburd, 2007, p. 147). Walsh (2001) cautioned that the rush to adopt CompStat must be carefully considered because of the change process the organization must undertake to implement CompStat (p. 356). Before CompStat proliferation continues, the organizational effects, especially on the employees, must be researched and understood.

The implications of the CompStat reform on the organizational health of police organizations have not been adequately explored or researched. As Walsh (2001) explained, it is only with testing and analysis that CompStat can be evaluated to determine if it is appropriate for the future of American policing (p. 359). This research study was conducted to determine the impact of the CompStat management paradigm on the organizational health of police organizations.

Statement of the Problem

The problem addressed by this study involved understanding how the CompStat management paradigm affected the organizational health of police organizations. Currently, many U.S. police organizations are using the CompStat management model. Critics of CompStat have argued that the CompStat paradigm reinforces traditional leadership model characteristics, which are adverse to a healthy organization. The reinforcement of traditional leadership model characteristics is a problem that affects

police organizations because traditional leadership characteristics have proven adverse to organizational health (Eterno & Silverman, 2006; Weisburd et al., 2008a, 2008b). In contrast, servant-led leadership characteristics have proven optimal to organizational health (Bass & Bass, 1974/2009; Haberfeld, 2006; Laub, 1999; Ledbetter, 2003). Possible factors contributing to adverse organizational health conditions within CompStat departments may include a divergence between the elements of CompStat and the characteristics of a healthy organization, based on servant-led leadership practices. A knowledge gap was identified in the literature relating to the compatibility of the elements of CompStat and the characteristics of a healthy organization.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative study was to use servant leadership characteristics to examine the effect of the CompStat management style (independent variable) on the organizational health (dependent variable) of police departments. Using servant leadership characteristics, the goal of this research was to determine what impact the CompStat management style had on the organizational health of police departments.

Research Questions

The following questions guided this research study:

1. How does the CompStat management model affect the organizational health of police departments?
2. Can individual servant leadership characteristics emerge within police departments that utilize the CompStat management model?
3. How does the CompStat management model affect the overall job satisfaction rating in police departments?

Theoretical Framework

The foundation of this study incorporated the characteristics of servant leadership and the elements of CompStat. This research built upon current research on servant leadership, law enforcement leadership, organizational health of law enforcement organizations, community policing and the CompStat management paradigm. Utilizing the characteristics of servant leadership, this study examined the organizational health of police departments that were using the CompStat management paradigm.

The concept of servant leadership is not new. Robert Greenleaf first conceptualized servant leadership in his publication *The Servant as Leader* (1970/2008), and wrote, “The servant-leader *is* servant first” (p. 15). Servant leadership research and implementation have only recently gained momentum, indicating that there is a growing interest in servant leadership. Laub (1999) posited that there are six characteristics of servant leadership: Values people, develops people, builds community, displays authenticity, provides leadership, and shares leadership. The presence, or absence, of these characteristics in police organizations will serve as the foundation of research for determining the organizational health of police organizations that utilize the CompStat paradigm.

Law enforcement leaders and researchers have hailed CompStat as a truly revolutionary police management method that gets results by reducing crime, increasing police effectiveness, and addressing community disorder (Henry, 2002/2003). CompStat has proven highly effective in addressing crime and disorder in hundreds of law enforcement organizations. The major components of CompStat include four principles: accurate and timely information, effective tactics, rapid deployment of personnel and

resources, and relentless follow up and assessment. When implementing the CompStat principles, Weisburd et al. (2008b) posited that six key elements emerge that include mission clarification, internal accountability, geographic organization of command, organizational flexibility, data driven problem identification and assessment, and innovative problem solving.

If American law enforcement strives to address crime and disorder while also enhancing organizational health, the divergence of the characteristics of a healthy organization and the elements of CompStat raise an interesting challenge within the law enforcement profession. Servant leadership places the needs of the individual within the organization over the needs and successes of the organization (Smith, Montagno, & Kuzmenko, 2004; Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2004). CompStat, on the other hand, places the needs and successes of the organization over the needs of the individual (Weisburd et al., 2008b). This study will investigate whether, despite this dichotomy, if it would be possible for CompStat departments to emerge as healthy organizations based on the characteristics of servant leadership.

Scope of the Study

According to Reaves (2007), the United States has 17,876 state and local law enforcement agencies. In 2004, local police departments employed the largest number of sworn officer, which represented 61% of the nation's law enforcement officers (Reaves, 2007, p. 1). The research study included six police departments from the state of Georgia.

Assumptions

The research study had the following assumptions:

1. All departments that self reported to have implemented CompStat had implemented CompStat and all four of the CompStat principles.
2. No departments that self reported to have adopted a community-policing philosophy had adopted the CompStat management model or any of the CompStat principles.
3. Laub's Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) instrument was a valid and reliable instrument for determining and measuring organizational health of police departments.

Limitations

The proposed research study had the following limitations:

1. Law enforcement organizations not identified as county or municipal police departments were not part of the proposed research study.
2. The Office of Sheriff was not part of the research study.
3. Police departments that did not self report as CompStat or community-oriented policing organizations were not part of the research study.

Delimitations

The research study had the following delimitations:

1. The participating departments and the individual participant's awareness and or understanding of servant leadership and its characteristics were not central to the research study.
2. There was no available measurement to determine the intensity level of the implementation of the CompStat principles; therefore, there were

immeasurable variations for the degree of implementation for each of the CompStat principles between all participating CompStat departments.

3. There was no available measurement to determine the intensity level or degree of the implementation of community-oriented policing; therefore, there were immeasurable variations for the degree of implementation of community-oriented policing goals, projects, and philosophies.
4. Public perceptions regarding servant leadership and an executive's responsibility to hold his/her department accountable for controlling crime were not evaluated as part of this research study.
5. Public desires regarding local policing practice (i.e., crime control vs. community policing) were not evaluated as part of this research study.

Significance of the Study

The CompStat management paradigm has been hailed as a truly revolutionary management method for police managers that get results by reducing crime, increasing police effectiveness, and addressing community disorder (Henry, 2002/2003). Despite the overwhelming successes of CompStat in hundreds of law enforcement organizations, CompStat has been heavily criticized. According to Eterno and Silverman (2006), criticisms of CompStat include its top-down management style, reinforcement of internal bureaucratic processes, leadership by fear, and failure to motivate officers.

A gap emerged in the literature relating to the compatibility of the elements of CompStat and the characteristics of a healthy organization. This study has added additional knowledge to fill the identified knowledge gap. This study has far-reaching implications for American police agencies and the communities that those agencies serve

because it addresses the fundamental needs of the law enforcement officers within police organizations. The findings of this research have significant implications for social change relating to the improvement of America's police organizations by balancing out the needs to control and reduce crime while also promoting the dignity, worth, value, and development of America's law enforcement officers.

Definitions of Terms

CompStat: "CompStat is a goal-oriented strategic management process that uses technology, operational strategy, and managerial accountability to structure the delivery of police services and provide safety to communities" (Walsh, 2001, pg. 347).

Healthy organization: "The healthy organization is an organization in which the characteristics of servant leadership are displayed in the organizational culture and are valued and practiced by the leadership and workforce" (Laub, 2003, p. 12).

Servant-leadership:

The servant-leader is servant first. It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead. That person is sharply different from one who is leader first, perhaps because of the need to assuage an unusual power drive or to acquire material possessions. The leader-first and the servant-first are two extreme types. Between them there are shadings and blends that are part of the infinite variety of human nature.

(Greenleaf, 1970/2008, p. 15)

Summary

CompStat has been proven both effective and efficient in addressing crime and disorder; however, the traditional managerial processes of CompStat have proven adverse

to organizational health. As the proliferation of CompStat continues throughout American law enforcement organizations, CompStat's impact on organizational health remains in question. A knowledge gap emerged in the literature relating to the compatibility of the elements of CompStat and the characteristics of a healthy organization.

This quantitative study examined the impact of the CompStat management paradigm on the organizational health of police departments. The administration of the OLA survey, as developed by Laub (1999), determined the organizational health of CompStat and non-CompStat (community-oriented) police departments. The OLA examination of police departments also determined the leadership style that was present, organizational health, the presence, or absence, of servant leadership characteristics, and job satisfaction ratings. A review of the scholarly literature provided an in depth, critical review of American policing, CompStat, and servant leadership.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study was to use servant leadership characteristics to examine the effect of the CompStat management style (independent variable) on the organizational health (dependent variable) of police organizations.

This literature review represents an overview of the history of American policing, its development, organizational structure, and in depth examination of the most common policing strategies. An understanding of this historical background provides a foundation for the readers' understanding of the complexities and challenges facing American law enforcement leaders. Central to this literature review, both the CompStat management model and the characteristics of a healthy organization, based on servant-led leadership, are examined.

To conduct the literature review, a search for the most relevant literature to this research topic was undertaken. This search included a review of peer reviewed journals, websites, and books. Reference lists from scholarly texts and dissertations were utilized to help direct the literature review to the most relevant and current sources. Online databases were also utilized, to include databases through the Walden University Library, ProQuest Central, and Academic Search Premiere. The areas of focus and search terms for this study included: *police, law enforcement, CompStat, community policing, servant leadership, organizational health, and leadership*.

Policing in a Democracy

Policing in a democratic society carries with it a unique power and duty that is different from that found in a totalitarian government. The differences between policing

in a totalitarian versus democratic society are many; however, differences in the policing of these societies are rooted in whom the police serve and how they carry out that service. Thurman, Zhao, and Giacomazzi (2001) differentiated these two forms of policing in that totalitarian governments enforce laws ensuring protection of the government while democratic governments enforce laws ensuring protection of its citizens (p. 20).

The differences between these two types of governments have created distinctly different policing ideologies (p. 22). Although addressed in different manners, these differing policing ideologies are joined by the fact that policing involves power, authority, and the potential for the restriction of freedom (Thurman et al., 2001, p. 22). In the United States, where the executive branch of the government oversees law enforcement, the police are granted civil authority by the majority of people over the dissent of individuals (Reiman, 1990). Therefore, it is the cornerstone of democratic policing that the police get their power from the people, not the ruling elite. According to Meese and Ortmeier (2004), it is within the framework of democratic policing that the police are granted considerable powers of discretion in carrying out their mission.

In the United States, the first 10 amendments to the Constitution are known as the Bill of Rights. These amendments broadly govern, yet limit the activities of the criminal justice system. The Bill of Rights and the U. S. Constitution highlight the challenges to maintain and enforce the laws while also protecting individual liberties for all persons (Thurman et al., 2001, p. 21)

Democratic policing can be a burdensome undertaking, considering the conflicting roles of the police, their use of power, and their mission of providing public safety services to a free and democratic society. The American policing system, however,

has evolved to meet those burdens and challenges by using strategies that allow the police to balance power and their mission. With a foundation rooted in democratic values and principles, American policing has been in a continuous state of evolution.

History of American Policing

American policing has its historical roots strongly grounded in English history. The history and development of American policing, in structure, organization, and service delivery, closely parallels that of the English model as first envisioned by Sir Robert Peel (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003). During the last 160 years, there has been great change in American law enforcement. According to Thurman et al., (2001), the changes in American law enforcement are recognized in three eras: the political era, the professional era, and the community era.

The Political Era

The first era of American law enforcement began in the mid 1800s when cities began establishing full time police departments (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003). Most police scholars recognize the American policing political era as lasting from 1840 until about 1920 (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003; Roberg et al., 2002). According to Roberg et al. (2002), this era earned its name from the fact that politicians had a major role in law enforcement operations and controlled every aspect of the nation's first police organizations, chiefs, and officers.

In the political era, the policing environment focused on keeping the ruling political party in power, which often resulted in mass corruption of local police organizations (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003). In one such example, in the New York Police Department, rather than trying to stop prostitution and gambling, police officers

would license such activities in order to reap a part of the financial profits of such illegal activities (Thurman et al., 2001). Local ward bosses, who wielded large amounts of power over the local police organization, supported this activity.

As American police agencies began to form throughout the country, the sentiment that government should be controlled at the local level prevailed. Indeed, as the United States government was developed by the founding fathers it was decentralized and the local governments were given the authority that had once been the source of numerous abuses of power in England (Thurman et al., 2001). The impact of politics, local control, and decentralization were common, even in policing. These themes set the stage for local politicians to wield considerable power, influence, and control over the police. As posited by Roberg et al., (2002), the fact that politicians had so much power and influence in police operations would prove problematic as police chiefs would later struggle to wrestle that control away from the politicians.

During the political era, political control of the police exceeded that of any other policing era (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003). This high level of political control was evidenced three areas of policing: police power, political party influence, and the priority of law enforcement (Thurman et al., 2001). In this era, political power wielded considerable control over the police and their actions. While police chiefs answered to the offices of city government, politically powerful ward bosses controlled the city streets and the city police officers. According to Thurman et al. (2001), powerful ward bosses controlled hiring of police officers during this period (p. 73). The power of the ward bosses was indicative of the times during the political era, where the local politics had a large influence on the police and the organizations in which they worked.

Political influence also affected political party affiliations. In the political era, police organizations often represented the ruling political party. In fact, it was a common practice that after a new political party was elected, that all of the police officers were replaced with the supporters of the winning political party (Thurman et al., 2001). With such unstable police organizations, early police organizations focused very little on law enforcement. In fact, according to Gaines and Kappler (1994/2003), law enforcement was not the top priority for early American police organizations.

The function of the police in the political era varied greatly from the objectives of modern law enforcement (Roberg et al., 2002). Many police organizations in the political era were tasked with sweeping city streets, providing welfare services for the unemployed and the orphans, maintaining streetlights, walkways, and providing meals to prisoners (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003; Thurman et al., 2001). According to Thurman et al. (2001), the function of crime control was the least important due to the low crime rates found throughout American cities in the 19th century.

The focus on the theoretical framework for American policing in the political era is important in understanding how, and why, the police are organized and function in modern American law enforcement. This framework can be tied back to the very foundation of our nation, in that American government is decentralized and the majority of the governing authority rests with local governments (Thurman et al., 2001, p. 74). This underlying political theory, relating to the framework for the police, still exists in American law enforcement.

The broader role of the government dominated the development of police responsibilities rather than the organizational design of police organizations. During the

political era, the theoretical framework was not focused on the organizational and functional design of the police force, but rather served as a guide for the role of police in a democratic society (Thurman et al., 2001, p. 74). The organizational designs of police organizations would come about in the professional era, only after the roles and responsibilities of the police in a democratic society had been debated and established during the political era.

In analyzing the outcomes of police performance in the political era, the police were mainly judged by the quality and quantity of services that they provided to an area (Thurman et al., 2001). Ironically, as was consistent for the era, these services were rated by local ward bosses, not the citizens themselves (Thurman et al., 2001). Although ward bosses had considerable influence, many police organizations did reach out to the individual citizens to gauge their satisfaction with the police organization. However, the assessment of police satisfaction took place, there was no single, systematic measure of performance for the police.

During the political era, the police were to maintain order and provide services to the public in a politically charged and influenced environment (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003; Roberg et al., 2002). During the political era, corruption of the police became a major problem for many police departments (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003). The weaknesses of the political era soon became too much and reform efforts began to take hold in American police organizations (Roberg et al., 2002). It was the move to reform American policing that prompted the next era of policing: the professional era.

The Professional Era

Around 1900, government at all levels was criticized for its inefficiency and ineffectiveness. One major catalyst for change was The Progressive Movement, which was comprised of middle and upper class people that sought large-scale reform in city politics, the courts, schools, and urban institutions (Thurman et al., 2001). The Progressive Movement, which also focused on policing, was based on the principles of: (a) honesty and efficiency in government, (b) more authority for public officials, and (c) the use of experts to respond to problems (Thurman et al., 2001). These principles would come to dominate the professional era of policing, which lasted from around 1920 until the late 1960s and early 1980s.

Although many police scholars disagree on when exactly the professional era began, it is certain that the cause for change in police reform took hold because of the weaknesses and corruption that had taken hold during the political era. This reform seemed not to just target police organizations, but to target all of government in its entirety. According to Thurman et al., (2001), the problems associated with law enforcement had become so persistent, that President Herbert Hoover created a commission to examine the American law enforcement system and to make recommendations for improvement.

President Herbert Hoover established the National Commission on Law Observance in 1929 to examine American law enforcement and to make recommendations (Roberg et al., 2002, p. 48). The Wickersham Commission identified a number of problems within American law enforcement. According to Roberg et al. (2002), the most prevalent problems were “excessive political influence, inadequate

leadership and management, police lawlessness and brutality, ineffective recruitment and training, and insufficient use of the latest in science and technology” (p. 48). The commission also set the stage for many of the policing models and strategies that are in use by American law enforcement agencies today. As a result of the Wickersham Commission, there was a general consensus that American policing needed to be directed toward professionalization.

To move American policing toward professionalization, several key recommendations emerged from the Wickersham Commission that would guide American law enforcement. According to Roberg et al., (2002),

The reform themes that were to characterize law enforcement for the next several decades included (1) organizational centralization, (2) professional standards of behavior and the development of policies and procedures, (3) more education and training, (4) selection and promotion based on merit, (5) commitment to the goal of fighting crime, and (6) the use of the latest in science and technology. (p. 49)

It was these recommendations for law enforcement that prompted significant change and reform. Through an examination of the same indicators as in the political era, a general awareness that policing should be transformed into a profession clearly emerges. During the professional era, many of the previously aforementioned areas of theoretical framework and organizational design began to be addressed for the first time.

During the professional era, some major changes began to take place in American law enforcement. According to Thurman et al. (2001), the police began to reject local politics as their major source of authorization. This was a major turning point in American law enforcement. It brought about a social mandate for change in government,

especially in law enforcement. The shift away and the reduction from political influence required major changes in the authority of the police. According to Thurman et al. (2002), this was accomplished by shifting the very foundation for the existence and foundation of power of the police away from political power, over to the power of the law, especially criminal law (p. 77). With the shift of authority to criminal law, and away from politics, the law enforcement function began to change.

The police, now grounded in the legitimacy of the law, began to focus on crime control and apprehending criminals (Roberg et al., 2002). While the reforms were underway, scholars note that this transition was not easy nor was it achieved overnight (Roberg et al., 2002). In fact, most scholars estimate that change took almost 40 years to achieve; however, by the late 1930s, the police had established themselves as crime fighters (Thurman et al., 2001). Many of the services that traditionally had been provided by the police were no longer the responsibility of the police. According to Roberg et al. (2002), the police finally were able to focus on crime control and crime fighting as their main function.

Two events took place during the professional era that had a significant impact on law enforcement in the professional era. The first event was the passage of the Eighteenth Amendment, which began the American Prohibition of alcohol. Prior to Prohibition, police tended to enforce criminal laws haphazardly as they encountered criminal activity (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003). During the Prohibition, however, police became more proactive and began enforcing many of the laws that the citizens opposed, to the detriment of police-citizen relations (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003). The second event was that of the Depression of the 1930s. During the Depression, many people had to

resort to crime simply to survive. In fact, many criminals were revered as heroes during the Depression (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003). During this period that government officials realized the significance of the crime problems and shift began that would focus police less on the miscellaneous services and more on crime fighting (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003, p. 89). These two events set the stage for continued change in American law enforcement.

With a change in authority and function, significant changes and reform began to emerge in the theoretical framework in police organizations. Two significant theoretical perspectives had a profound impact on American policing during the professional era. The first was the Progressive Movement, which was previously discussed. The Progressive Movement's impact on the patronage system in government was profound in law enforcement (Thurman et al., 2001). According to Thurman et al. (2001), during the Progressive Movement, a clear distinction between politics and administration, or management, emerged and the recognition that daily operations for police organizations should not be subverted by local politics took a firm hold.

As a result of the Progressive Movement, the patronage system was replaced by a merit system. Under the merit system, the most qualified applicants for police positions were chosen as opposed to the historical selection based on political affiliation (Thurman et al., 2001, p. 78). This had a profound impact on policing, as it removed politics from the daily administration of the department. In addition, police chiefs were then able to select, hire, and promote based on the qualifications of police personnel instead of political party affiliation.

The second, and long lasting, development came from educators and theorists who had studied organizations. During the professional era, influences from Max Weber, Frederick Taylor, and Luther Gulick made their impact on police organizations (Bennett & Hess, 2001; Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003; Thurman et al., 2001). These theorists would have a long, profound impact on the theoretical framework of law enforcement organizations. Understanding the impact of each of these theorists is critical in understanding the theoretical frameworks that emerged, and ultimately defined law enforcement leadership, organizational structure, and change.

Max Weber, who is considered the founder of modern sociology, was a major contributor to law enforcement organization. Max Weber coined the term *bureaucracy*, which has become the cornerstone for almost every police organization (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003; Roberg et al., 2002). According to Gaines & Kappeler (1994/2003), Weber stressed the importance of policies and regulations as a vital part of the managing police organizations and officers (p. 167). Even to this day, American police organizations still operate on this initial foundation of bureaucracy.

Weber's bureaucracy had certain characteristics that included a division of labor among the workforce, a hierarchy of authority where each lower office was responsible to a higher office, a set of specified rules uniformly applied, maintenance of impersonal relationships, and selection and promotion based on competence (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003; Roberg et al., 2002). It can be best described that

Bureaucratic management is management bound to comply with the detailed rules and regulations fixed by the authority of a superior body. The task of the bureaucrat is to perform what these rules regulations order him to do. His

discretion to act according to his own best conviction is seriously restricted by them. (von Mises, 1944/1983, p. 50)

Each of these characteristics was successfully applied to law enforcement organizations in various ways with the goal of increasing efficiency and effectiveness of the organization. The basic ideals of bureaucracy took shape in law enforcement organizations with the implementation of policies and procedures.

Other significant contributions came from Frederick Taylor, whose contributions to law enforcement organization and structure emerged in the late nineteenth century (Roberg et al., 2002). The most significant contributions from Frederick Taylor involved scientific management, which focused on methods that would increase worker productivity. To become more effective and productive, Taylor focused extensively on the selection, training, and development of employees. This intense focus steered law enforcement organizations to focus on hiring and promotional practices in order to find the most qualified people. According to Roberg et al. (2002), Taylor believed that organizations should have a strict hierarchy of authority that comprised highly specialized personnel.

Luther Gulick made significant contributions to the administration of law enforcement, which are still taught in law enforcement management courses. Gulick posited that the management function consisted of seven components: planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting (POSDCORB) (Thurman et al., 2001). According to Gulick, all of the various parts of the organization must work toward a common mission, which is achieved through administration (Gaines

& Kappeler, 1994/2003, p. 161). Through the use of POSDCORB, law enforcement organizations were broken down into specific administrative and managerial functions.

With the significant changes in the theoretical framework in law enforcement, organizational design in police organizations also underwent tremendous change and reform. During the professional era, the centralization of police personnel, as well as the professional development of personnel, were central themes (Thurman et al., 2001, p. 79). In the area of centralization, a chain of command became recognized whereby the most senior, qualified personnel held the highest ranks within the police organization. The chain of command was a quasi-military orientation for the organization, and one that was first adopted in law enforcement by Sir Robert Peel (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003). The chain of command was yet another concept of organization that was posited by Max Weber, and one that law enforcement organizations adopted in the professional era (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003). In addition, professional development focused on the specific functions, or specialties within police organizations.

A significant impact on centralization and professional development came in the form of yet another reform, which was that of civil service reform. As a result of the Pendleton Act in 1883, which was originally enacted for federal positions, local departments began implementing civil service requirements (Thurman et al., 2001). As a result of civil service reform, local police jobs were not affected by patronage. Instead, local police positions were dependent on a merit system. According to Thurman et al. (2001), this reform was a positive, long lasting change in several areas that included ensuring job security for qualified police officers, eliminated political party influence and

control over job positions, and reduced the influence of the city's top administrator in daily operations of the line level police officer.

As a result of the elimination of the patronage system, police officers were hired and retained based on what they could do, not who they knew or based on their political party affiliation. In fact, these changes had a profound impact on policing. According Thurman et al. (2001), the changes made by the police conformed to the bureaucracy model of Max Weber, forced an unprecedented expectation of efficiency and rationality in American law enforcement.

With all of the changes and reforms in the previous indicators, the environment of the police was impacted on a large scale. During the professional era, the role of the police drastically changed toward crime control and moved away from order and service (Thurman et al., 2001). During the professional era, the police finally achieved their goal of becoming known as true crime fighters (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003). The move toward crime control meant that the police were no longer responsible for social services such as running soup kitchens, finding jobs for people, or constantly being visible in neighborhoods (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003). During this era, the police broke away from the community and began to isolate themselves from the community in which they were serving. In essence, the police became reactive agents in the new policing environment.

As a result of this new environment, the police began to become involved only when they were called to an area to intervene in a problem that someone could not resolve on their own. It was the culmination of all of the change and reforms in which the professional era saw the role of the police reduced from public servants to more formal

agents of social control (Thurman et al., 2001). It was this change, the reduction of the public to the role of victim, witness, or criminal, that would come to alienate the police from the public in the years to come.

During the professional era, two operational strategies emerged that would become a mainstay for police organizations even to this day. The first strategy was preventive patrol, while the second was criminal investigation (Thurman et al., 2001). Preventive patrol was seen as having two benefits. First, preventive patrol allowed police officers to randomly patrol; thereby being available to more readily respond to crimes and increase the apprehension of offenders (Thurman et al., 2001). Second, preventive patrol would deter criminals who faced the possibility of the police of discovering their actions at any time (Thurman et al., 2001). Criminal investigations were seen as bringing scientific knowledge, skills, and tools to bear on the criminal element in order to increase the efficiency of apprehending criminals (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003). These two operational strategies would become the mainstays for police operational strategies for decades, and are still major operational strategies for today's police organizations.

During the professional era, the outcomes of the police centered on crime control. Measurements of recorded crime levels were central to the perceived effectiveness of the police during this time. While many large police departments collected and analyzed their own data relating to crimes and arrests, no formal, centralized database collected this information until the 1930s. During the 1930s, the formal collection of crime data by the Federal Bureau of Investigation, through the implementation of the Uniform Crime Report (UCR), began to collect crime data from all over the United States (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003). The UCR database provided for a centralized method for

measuring police performance relating to levels of crime and arrests by the police. While few agencies participated in the UCR in its early inception, the UCR would become the standard measure for police organizations.

During the professional era, progressive reformers such as August Vollmer, who proposed the UCR as a measure of police effectiveness and who also introduced the lie detector, attempted to increase the efficiency of the police as crime fighters (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003). While many of the reforms allowed the police to advance technologically and introduced scientific processes for solving crimes, the professional era had a detrimental impact on officer-citizen relations (Thurman et al., 2001). In essence, the police had accomplished their original goal of removing themselves from the temptations of corruption, but had also alienated the public in the process, creating a situation in which the public distrusted the police.

One of the key turning points during the professional era was the American Civil Rights Movement of the 1960s (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003). During the Civil Rights Movement, the police, who were mostly white and middle class, were seen as the primary source of institutional racism through their use of aggressive tactics to suppress minorities (Thurman et al., 2001, p. 35). The Civil Rights Movement would serve as a major turning point for American law enforcement organizations, which would lead American law enforcement into the community era.

The Community Era

Throughout the 1960s and mid 1980s, the professional era began its decline. The professional era, while resolving many of the problems associated with the political era, saw an increase in distrust and alienation from the public (Roberg et al., 2002). While the

professional era ushered in new, innovative crime fighting tools that increased the efficiency of the police, these same innovations had disastrous consequences for police-citizen relations (Thurman et al., 2001). In fact, the core principles of the professional era, while serving to make the police more efficient and effective crime fighters, served to distance the police from the public (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003). According to Roberg et al. (2002), the professional era subjugated the needs and concerns of the citizenry in order to professionalize the police.

With the subjugation of citizen needs and concerns, the professional era created a high level of dissatisfaction with the police. “These and other criticisms of the police were the result of three important historical developments: urban riots, the civil rights movement, and the perception of an increasing crime rate” (Roberg et al., 2002, p. 51). In fact, the situation in America had become so dire that two national commissions were created that addressed the growing problems within American law enforcement. “These were the President’s Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of justice, established by President Johnson in 1965; and the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders, established by Johnson in 1967” (Roberg et al., 2002, p. 51). Both of these commissions would make several recommendations for American law enforcement.

The President’s Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice published a final report in 1967, *The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society*, in which over 200 recommendations were made for addressing crime (The President’s, 1967). One recommendation that had the most impact was the recommendation to decentralize police operations in an effort to improve relations between the police and the public. This one recommendation sharply contrasted with the Wickersham Commission,

which recommended the centralization of police operations, and would have a far reaching impact on police organizations as they sought new policing strategies to address the communities in which they served.

The era saw a resurgence of police-citizen interaction and a new, more involved level of communication. In the community-policing era, the police turned toward the community as a vital role in developing police-public partnerships to help focus police services and resources (Thurman et al., 2001, p. 85). This was a drastic deviation from police attitudes and practices of the former eras of American policing, but would serve to forge a new level of interaction and expectation from police organizations and police officers.

During the community era, the police steered away from the law as their sole authority. Looking to encompass the public, and mend years of alienation from the public, the police looked toward the public for their authority (Roberg et al., 2002). In the community era, the police turned the local communities to help identify problems, allocate resources, and evaluate police services (Thurman et al., 2001, p. 85). It is during the community era that the police no longer espouse themselves as the sole experts, but begin to look toward the entire community to provide input and resource to address crime (Roberg et al., 2002). It is during the community era that police-public partnerships are formed to address community crime; thereby, in some communities, allowing the citizens to have a direct influence on police services and strategies.

As the police slowly turned their focus away from the law as their sole authority toward one of community based, the function of the police also changed (Thurman et al., 2001). During the community era, police organizations moved away from crime control

as the highest priority. Instead, police organizations began to focus on social disorder and community disorganization that lead to crime within the community, making them the highest priority for the department (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003). It is during this era that the police, while still relying on patrol, taking reports, answering calls for service, and investigating crimes, begin to implement proactive policing measures that focused on preventing crimes (Thurman et al., 2001). As a result, the term *coactive policing* emerged as a term that recognizes the formation of police-citizen partnerships with the goal of solving crime and community problems (Thurman et al., 2001). This coactive policing would become a cornerstone for community policing.

The community era of policing introduces two major theoretical frameworks in understanding organizational leadership and change in America policing. The first is the idea of co production, which recognizes the importance of citizens in helping the government (Thurman et al., 2001). The second idea is the perspectives of the behavioral school, which focus on the role of the employee within the organization (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003; Thurman et al., 2001). These ideas offer some progress toward making the police more community based and responsive to their local communities. Each of these ideas requires further understanding in the context of government, especially in law enforcement.

Co production, which is central in the community era, is an understanding and acceptance of the limited abilities of the police to deliver public safety services (Thurman et al., 2001). In fact, coproduction is defined “as the cooperative relationship between government, on the one hand, and citizens, neighborhood associations, community organizations, or client groups, on the other, for the delivery of public services”

(Thurman et al., 2001, p. 86). This concept permeates the community era within law enforcement organizations, which is a central theme in the policing strategy of community-oriented policing.

The second idea in the theoretical framework focused on the role of the employee within the police organization. During the professional era, Max Weber's bureaucratic model posited that workers (officers) should be controlled, mostly by policies and procedures that dictated what they could do. In the community era, behavioral school perspectives began to emerge. The behavioral school focused on each employee as a vital contributor to the effectiveness of an organization. Thurman et al. (2001) noted that individual employees serve as the primary contributors to organizational success under the behavioral school perspective (Thurman et al., 2001). In fact, and in direct opposition to the professional era, behavioral school theorists posited that too much control on police officers would destroy moral and stifle motivation, thereby hindering organizational performance and success.

With the numerous changes in the theoretical framework of American policing, organizational design changes followed a similar path of change. The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice had called for the decentralization of police operations, which became a major theoretical framework for community-oriented policing (Thurman et al., 2001). Organizations adopting community-oriented practices saw a flattening of their organizational structures, thereby minimizing the importance and reliance on the once formalized chain of command. In fact, according to Ratcliffe (2008), line level officers were empowered to begin making decisions on their own, reinforcing their ability to impact the local communities.

While the numerous changes taking place in American policing had an impact on the overall authority, organization, and theoretical framework, the environment of the police organization was also undergoing significant changes (Thibault, Lynch, & McBride, 2004). In the community era, no longer was it accepted for police organizations to be siloed from their citizens. Instead, police executives all the way down to the line level police officers were expected to interact with the community and its members on a regular and consistent basis (Thibault et al., 2004). It is within this environment that the police interacted and empowered the citizens through engagement in the criminal justice system (Henry, 2002/2003). The community era was extremely different from the professional era, and police organizations, from the chief down to the line officer, began to listen and respond to the citizens' concerns. This type, and level, of communication began to bridge the gap of police-citizen relations, and would become a mainstay for the community era.

During the community era, the operational strategies of many police departments changed. Much of that change included the change of including citizens and residents into the decision making processes of the police organization. During the community era, departments began utilizing community-oriented policing strategies, which called on residents to volunteer, staff storefront precincts, make phone calls, help patrol neighborhoods, and help with other tasks that would benefit the community (Thurman et al., 2001). The operational strategies also placed more officers in the community, removing the officers from the patrol cars that had once isolated the police from the public during the professional era.

Measuring the outcomes of the police during the community era focused less on the efficiency of the police. In fact, during the community era the effectiveness of the police relied upon the ability of the police to impact community problems, concerns, or quality of life issues rather than on crime control (Thurman et al., 2001). With this shift away from efficiency measurement to gauge police success, the police were measured much more differently than in the professional era. According to Ratcliffe (2008), during the community era, a ‘satisfied community,’ along with an increase in perceived legitimacy for the police, were the major measurements of law enforcement.

Modern Policing Models and Strategies

American law enforcement continues to struggle with identifying the best model for policing in a democratic society. In lieu of the perfect policing model, American law enforcement has adopted, in whole or in part, various dimensions of policing models and strategies. With the increase in technological solutions for addressing crime, managing information has become a central focus for many police agencies in bridging the gaps between effectiveness and ineffectiveness in addressing and controlling crime. Many of the common crime control models have similar dimensions, but each too has some unique dimensions that set each model apart. To better compare and contrast the differences between each of the major policing models, each major model of policing must be succinctly identified and defined within the realm of American policing.

Traditional Model of Policing

One of the first modern models of American policing is the traditional model, also known as the standard model of policing (Ratcliffe, 2008). Since its inception, the traditional model of policing has relied on reactionary measures by the police to the

address crime. According to Weisburd and Eck (2004), the traditional model of policing includes random patrols, rapid response to crimes already committed, investigation of crimes already committed, administrative proficiency and a reliance on the criminal justice system to control crime. By modern accounts of policing, the traditional model is not proactive. Instead, as Ratcliffe (2008) posited, the traditional model relies on responding to the immediate crime or crisis, restoring order, and then withdrawing until the next incident required police attention.

Community-Oriented Policing

A second model of policing is Community Oriented Policing (COP). The COP model is the most elusive in terms of definition by scholars and practitioners (Ratcliffe, 2008; Thurman et al., 2001). The inability to concretely define COP has often challenged scholars and practitioners, but there seems to be some agreement that COP has two important distinctions as a policing model. According to Thurman et al. (2001), the first distinction is that policing is done better than the traditional model, while the second distinction is that programs are added that benefit and involve the community as a whole.

While community-oriented policing certainly exists, its definition oftentimes is elusive and not concrete. According to Ratcliffe (2008), community policing defies definition (p. 66). Despite the reluctance, or capability, to attach a firm definition for the COP model, the overarching objective of community policing has been increase police legitimacy (Ratcliffe, 2008, p. 66). Furthermore, according to Ratcliffe, studies have found commonalities in organizations that have implemented community-oriented policing that include decentralization, autonomy to line officers, greater responsiveness to the citizenry and citizen input, and increased local capacity to resist crime.

The commonalities of community-oriented police can serve as a foundation for empowering line officers, improving employee attitudes, and enhancing organizational goals (Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008). Research conducted on community-oriented policing organizations reveals that community-oriented policing can have a strong, positive impact on police officer job satisfaction (Brody, DeMarco, & Lovrich, 2002). Interestingly, and along the concept of community-oriented policing, the COP model focuses on the capacity to resist crime rather than to control and reduce crime. This singles out community-oriented policing from other models that do have some objective toward controlling and/or reducing crime.

Problem-Oriented Policing

A third model of policing is Problem-Oriented Policing (POP). The POP model has evolved over time into a well defined policing model that

Calls for recognizing that incidents are often merely overt symptoms of problems . . . and requires they [police] recognize relationships between incidents (similarities of behavior, location, persons involved, etc.); and (2) it requires that they take a more in depth interest in incidents by acquainting themselves with some of the conditions and factors that give rise to them. (Goldstein, 1990, p. 33)

The POP model has emerged as a policing model that goes beyond simply responding to crime and police incidents.

CompStat

A fourth model of policing is CompStat, which is short for Computer Statistics. Introduced in 1994 by then commissioner William Bratton of the New York City Police Department, CompStat has been recognized as a major innovation in American policing

(Weisburd et al., 2004, p. 1). With the success of CompStat in major American police agencies like New York, Los Angeles, and others, CompStat has become an integral part of many American police departments. According to Walsh (2001), “CompStat is a goal-oriented strategic management process that uses technology, operational strategy and managerial accountability to structure the delivery of police services and provide safety to communities” (p.347). According to Henry (2002/2003), CompStat is easily defined based on its four main principles: timely and accurate intelligence, effective tactics, rapid deployment, and relentless follow up and assessment.

Intelligence-led Policing

A fifth model of policing is intelligence-led policing, which was developed in the United Kingdom (Ratcliffe, 2008). By definition,

Intelligence-led policing is a business model and managerial philosophy where data analysis and crime intelligence are pivotal to an objective, decision-making framework that facilitates crime and problem reduction, disruption and prevention through both strategic management and effective enforcement strategies that target prolific and serious offenders. (Ratcliffe, 2008, p. 6)

Intelligence-led policing is recognized as a proactive policing model that utilizes crime analysis and criminal intelligence.

Policing Dimensions

Each of the five policing models has distinct dimensions that clearly separate each model from one another (Ratcliffe, 2008). While some of the models have variations, they too have similarities or an alleged identified dependence on one another. These dimensions include those of the hierarchical structure within an agency, priority

determination, target determination, criteria for success identification, and the expected benefits from the specific policing model (Ratcliffe, 2008). Through an understanding of each of these dimensions, a clearer understanding of each policing model will emerge. To begin, the hierarchical focus will be examined for each policing model.

Hierarchical Focus

Every organization is comprised of individuals and groups, and how those individuals and groups interact with one another is a critical component of every policing model. These individuals and groups make up an organization, which are brought together to accomplish the organizational mission (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003, p. 159). The organizational structure is one of the dimensions of each policing model. While each model has similarities, each policing model has slight differences in its approach in organizational structures.

The organizational structure of most police departments is a paramilitary, pyramid shaped hierarchy with authority flowing from the top down to the bottom (Bennett & Hess, 2001, p. 13). This structure is often referred to as the chain of command within a police organization, and most decisions are made at the top and are relayed to the bottom for implementation (Bennett & Hess, 2001). Most American police agencies demonstrate this hierarchical, highly bureaucratic organizational structure (Bennett & Hess, 2001). As different policing models have emerged in America, so too have variances in the traditional bureaucratic organizational structures in policing.

Almost all of the major American policing models utilize a top-down approach, or some variation, with the exception of community-oriented policing, which utilizes a bottom up approach (Ratcliffe, 2008). In the standard model of policing, the top-down

approach is utilized. Under the top-down approach to policing, decisions are made by top administrators through a level a bureaucracy that is a well-established and accepted form of organizational structure in policing. The standard model of policing shares many of the features of the top-down hierarchal focus with both the CompStat and intelligence-led policing models. Some of these models not only include top-down and bottom-up structures, but also emphasize vertical structures.

The traditional structures mostly resemble the rigid bureaucracies that have been created in most governments. The bureaucratic structure enhances efficiency, standardization, and accountability in most policing models. Under the traditional bureaucracy of police agencies, standards of authority, power, conduct, and behavior are heavily regulated by the department's policies and procedures. Under such top-down organizational structures, communication can be severely hindered and obstructed due to the heavy reliance on a formal chain of command and strict lines of communication. It can be best described that

Bureaucratic management is management bound to comply with the detailed rules and regulations fixed by the authority of a superior body. The task of the bureaucrat is to perform what these rules regulations order him to do. His discretion to act according to his own best conviction is seriously restricted by them. (von Mises, 1944/1983, p. 50)

Deviating considerably from the traditional policing model is the community-oriented policing model. Community-oriented policing is unique from all of the policing models in that its hierarchal focus is one that is bottom-up (Ratcliffe, 2008). Utilizing the bottom-up structure, the community-oriented policing model is designed to enhance the

decision-making abilities of officers at the lowest levels of the police organization. It is with the understanding of the bureaucratic organization, as previously defined, that a clear hindrance to innovation and initiative can be foreseen in comparison with the goals of community-oriented policing in establishing police legitimacy.

These differences create a dichotomy between police service delivery and structure in American policing management. According to Thurman et al. (2001), an important aspect of community policing is the decentralized decision-making processes that allow police officers to more effectively address the needs of the community by granting them more decision-making abilities. The bottom-up approach required for community policing requires fundamental changes within the traditional police chain of command. In fact, 95.4 percent of police chiefs surveyed indicated bureaucratic forms of management in policing should be replaced with participatory management styles that help police officers do their job (Thurman et al., 2001, p. 127). This concept is a far deviation from the traditional models of policing, and relies on officers to engage in decision-making processes that were often left to top administrators in the standard model.

Different from the community-oriented policing model, the problem-oriented model offers a different concept in hierarchal structure. Problem-oriented policing is unique, but often creates a problematic organizational structure for agencies implementing POP as compared to the traditional model of policing. One of the central tenets of problem-oriented policing is that line level officers should be granted greater freedom and flexibility in decision-making and problem-solving (Ratcliffe, 2008). This tenet contrasts to the traditional model in that police officers are viewed as a valuable

resource in identifying community problems. While this tenet calls for a bottom-up structure, several problems have been created in implementing problem-oriented policing.

One such problem in the problem-oriented model that separates itself from community-oriented policing is the lack of control that officers actually have over adequate resources or mechanisms to solve community problems (Ratcliffe, 2008). Unlike community-oriented policing, where police officers are given discretionary powers to address community concerns, the problem-oriented model generally fails to provide the same level of authority over resources. Without adequate resources or controls, line level officers are forced to defer to management to resolve problems. As a result, Ratcliffe (2008) posited that problem-oriented policing has a unique hierarchal structure that purports to retain the flexibility to adjust to the problem that is to be addressed by using a top-down or a bottom-up approach as needed and appropriate to address the specific problem.

According to Ratcliffe (2008), problem-oriented policing uses the best structure, top-down or bottom-up, to address the problem that has been identified. Through this flexibility in structure, line level officers are recognized as being in the best position to identify community problems; however, they may not be in the best position to resolve or address the community problems (Thurman et al., 2001). As a result of this structure, Ratcliffe (2008) posited that the entire agency as a whole, including the community, become part of the problem resolution process.

The last two models, CompStat and intelligence-led policing, are similar with the traditional model in that they both have top-down structures. While both of these models

have top-down structures, each have unique ways for decentralizing areas, where appropriate, to focus on crime control and reduction. According to Ratcliffe (2008), in comparing community-oriented policing to intelligence-led policing, a series of differences yield that intelligence-led policing is the antithesis of community-oriented policing.

In comparing community policing and intelligence-led policing, a major distinction is apparent. “Where community policing aims primarily for police legitimacy and is organisationally [sic] bottom-up and community centered, intelligence-led policing aims for crime reduction, is top-down and hierarchical, and uses crime intelligence to focus on offenders” (Ratcliffe, 2008, p. 87). In intelligence-led policing, decision making is top-down, with managers controlling all available resources and how those resources are deployed (Ratcliffe, 2008, p. 86). The differences in the hierarchical structure between these two have profound impacts on many other areas of each policing model. These differences set these two models aside as having the widest ranging differences between all of the models examined.

While the CompStat model is considered top-down, it combines an interesting and unique approach to the hierarchical structure in policing. “In the context of the Compstat paradigm management, an important part of the bureaucracy entails determining which functions, responsibilities, and decision-making processes should remain the province of the central bureaucracy and which should be decentralized” (Henry, 2002/2003, p. 90). Under the CompStat model, functions such as payroll, budgeting, procurement, employee benefits remain centralized; however, key crime control functions are often decentralized

(Henry, 2002/2003). Under CompStat, some processes and decision-making remain centralized while others become fully decentralized.

The decentralization of some of these decision-making processes relating to crime control creates a shift in police departments in which accountability is placed on middle management. CompStat is a police managerial accountability mechanism, whereby police commanders are made accountable to the chief executive for crime control and reduction within their areas of responsibility (Ratcliffe, 2008, p. 76). CompStat, while remaining top-down, creates a shift in the hierarchical structure of police departments as compared to the traditional policing model. In the CompStat model, the decision-making processes for crime control are neither at the top nor at the bottom, but rather in the middle of the organization.

Determining Priorities

One of the main dimensions of all policing models is that of determining priorities for the department and the officers. Among the various policing models, differences exist in how priorities are set and derived. These priorities are often determined and dependent on the hierarchical focus that the department is utilizing, whether it is top-down or bottom-up. Priorities can be determined by police management, line level officers, the community, crime analysts, and/or from a combination of all areas (Ratcliffe, 2008). Determining how a department goes about identifying and determining priorities reveals a lot about the department and the policing model in use by that department.

According to Ratcliffe (2008), the traditional model of policing has priorities set by police management. The traditional model of policing, being hierarchically focused, is top-down. Under the traditional model of policing, the management of the police

organization sets policing priorities within the department, often negating any other input from line level officers or the community. Under the traditional model, valuable resources such as line officer knowledge and community concerns are not utilized in setting departmental priorities.

In the traditional model of policing, police officers are most likely viewed as automatons in which police administrators are more concerned with strict accounting for their work and discretion (Goldstein, 1990). This view of police officers demonstrates the long history and development of policing in America, and is a key dimension for the traditional policing model. Not only does the traditional model stifle line officer involvement in setting priorities, it also has the same effect with community involvement and input. While the traditional model allows line level officers to have decision-making responsibilities, it too restricts the decision making from community members. According to Goldstein (1990), the traditional model of policing restricts the community from any decision-making involvement in police operations.

In the traditional policing model, there is a distinct difference in how priorities are set. Instead of seeking input from the community on problem identification and desired services, the traditional model emphasizes organizational efficiency rather than service and order, which means that the police have less contact with the citizens (Thurman et al., 2001). Thurman et al. (2001) posited that it is with these differences that the police have lessened their role as public servants and became more of an agency of and for social control.

In comparison to the traditional model, community policing takes a completely different path to setting departmental priorities. In community policing, local

communities become a main source for identifying problems, allocating resources, and evaluating police services (Thurman et al., 2001, p. 85). It is under the community policing model that the police form partnerships with the community that help define the role of the police as well as dictate the services provided by the local police (Thurman et al., 2001). Ratcliffe (2008) agreed and posited that, unlike the traditional model of policing, the community-policing model has the priorities set based on the needs and/or demands of the community.

In the community-policing model, unlike the other models, the police recognize that they are not the sole experts on crime (Thurman et al., 2001). In sharp contrast to other policing models, community policing takes an entirely different approach to setting priorities and allocating police resources. According to Thurman et al. (2001), under the community-policing model, the police actively seek community input and the citizens become an integral ally in determining where police resources are allocated.

Not all policing models have such distinct differences between setting departmental priorities as do the traditional and community-policing models. Other models, such as the problem-oriented policing model, the CompStat model, and the intelligence-led policing model, all have major similarities in how priorities are established. In these models, the foundation for setting police priorities is determined by the analysis of crime data, information, and/or criminal intelligence (Ratcliffe, 2008). Through the use of crime and/or intelligence analyses, priorities are set by police management to address crime and disorder. Under this priority setting process, the top-down approach is utilized; however, management is relying on the analysis of data and

information by trained analysts to set priorities for addressing crime and disorder within the community.

Among problem-oriented, CompStat, and intelligence-led policing models, there too are differences in how the analyses are utilized to identify the priority for the department and its officers. According to Ratcliffe (2008), each policing model has different levels of information, which are differentiated as analysis or intelligence. It is how information and/or intelligence is created that can determine the priority for the department. The meaning of crime analysis and crime intelligence are often misunderstood and associated with one another; however, the two terms are very different and are applied with equal difference in each policing model. Cope (2004) states that crime analysis is best defined as identifying patterns and relationships between crime data and other relevant data sources in order to allocate police resources.

The CompStat policing model utilizes crime analysis to determine priorities. It is this analysis of information that defines one of CompStat's key principles of timely and accurate intelligence (Henry, 2002/2003). According to McDonald (2002), CompStat relies on mapped crime data as the main source of intelligence in order to allocate police resources (p. 76). The crime data is then reviewed to identify troublesome or recurring hot spots, and crime patterns (McDonald, 2002, p. 11). This analyzed data then becomes the catalyst for setting police priorities.

In comparison to the CompStat model, more broad definitions for intelligence are utilized in both problem-oriented and intelligence-led policing models. "Intelligence has traditionally been used in police departments for case support, and not for strategic planning and resource allocation. The move from investigation-led intelligence to

intelligence-led policing is the most significant and profound paradigm change in modern policing” (Ratcliffe, 2008, p. 88). To understand the distinction,

A clear and general understanding of the meaning of the term ‘intelligence’, and an acceptance that it involves wider interpretations than perhaps traditional police-oriented explanations have, is essential. This would include the interpretation of crime and incident data through analysis, and community information on a range of issues, as well as more commonly used information gleaned from various sources on the activities of known or suspected active criminals. (Oakensen, Mockford, & Pascoe C, 2002, p. 7)

It is the difference in the use of crime analysis and crime intelligence that draws the most distinct contrasts between the CompStat and intelligence-led policing priorities. Under the CompStat paradigm, the priorities are set by police management through the CompStat principles of timely and accurate intelligence, effective tactics, rapid deployment, and relentless follow up and assessment. Intelligence-led policing priorities are set by police management based on crime intelligence. As previously defined, the priorities then can be very different between the two models.

One of the key differences between problem-oriented policing, CompStat, and intelligence-led policing is the use of both analysis and intelligence in the identification of problems. Problem-oriented policing goes beyond crime analysis and intelligence in the identification of problems. Ratcliffe (2008a) posited that problem-oriented policing requires a much deeper inspection of problems that may affect community safety and security (p. 71). Ratcliffe (2008) further posited that while problem-oriented policing

requires the police to have a broad role in the community, it is not as broad as required under the community-oriented policing model.

Targets of Policing Models

One of the most important aspects of any policing model is that which is determined to be the target of the police. Each of the various models of policing has very distinct differences in this area, while some have similarities. Identifying the targets for police directly relates to the hierarchical structure and who determines the priorities of the police. Targets for each policing model are reliant on the how the priorities are identified. Ratcliffe (2008) asserted that in determining or identifying targets, policing models often utilize offense detection, crime, disorder, hot spots, prolific offenders, crime problems, and/or a combination of several of these targets.

In the standard model of policing, targets were the detection and reporting of offenses (or incidents) committed within the community (Ratcliffe, 2008). Under the traditional model of policing, the police focused on three primary tactics for preventing crime: routine patrol, rapid response, and reactive investigations (Moore & Braga, 2003; Ratcliffe, 2008; Roberg et al., 2002). Under the traditional model of policing, law enforcement relied heavily upon offense detection, criminal investigation, and the legal system as the primary method of trying to reduce crime (Weisburd & Eck, 2004). Goldstein (1979) asserted that the traditional model of policing, and the identification of targets, are far too reactive and rely on those crimes and incidents that have already taken place.

In comparison to the traditional model of policing, which is highly reactive, the CompStat model is considered highly proactive. The main target under the CompStat

model is that of crime and disorder hot spots (Ratcliffe, 2008). Unlike the standard model of policing, CompStat utilizes computer data to pinpoint mapped locations of crime and disorder for police managers (Henry, 2002/2003). These maps form the second element of the CompStat policing model in that they allow for the identification of crime and disorder hot spots within an agency's jurisdiction. Police departments using CompStat get data from as many sources as possible in order to properly identify crime hot spots (McDonald, 2002, p. 121). Through the CompStat model, these hot spots become the focus of policing efforts.

The standard model and CompStat policing models contrast differently in how the data and information from crimes are utilized. With the standard policing model, the target becomes solving crime by utilizing reactive investigations and the criminal justice system; however, the CompStat model focuses an entire department and its resources to crime and disorder hot spots, which are detected through the analysis of crime data. It is with the identification of these hot spots that the police target an area to control and reduce crime through every viable option.

While the CompStat model targets crime and disorder hot spots, the problem-oriented policing model goes beyond hot spot detection and policing. Problem-oriented policing requires that police look at incidents as most likely symptoms to underlying problems (Goldstein, 1990, p. 33). The problem-oriented policing model goes beyond both the standard model and the CompStat model of policing by attempting to identify underlying community problems that contribute to crime and disorder. According to Goldstein (1990) this requires that the police recognize relationships between incidents and that it requires them to conduct an in depth evaluation into the conditions and factors

that are at the root of the problem. According to Ratcliffe (2008), unlike the CompStat model, the problem-oriented model of policing targets crime and disorder problems and other areas of concern for the police that lead to crime, not just crime hot spots.

The intelligence-led policing model has some similarities between the standard, problem-oriented, and CompStat models in that it too targets crime problems through analysis of information (Ratcliffe, 2008). The similarities between these models are readily identified as the use of hot spot and disorder targets, linking crimes and incidents, and the application of preventive measures to address crime and disorder (Ratcliffe, 2008). One major distinction, however, is that intelligence-led policing targets specific prolific offenders in its model (Ratcliffe, 2008). The focus on offenders, while unique to intelligence-led policing, is also being adopted by other policing strategies as an effective component.

One of the key distinctions of community-oriented policing, in comparing it to the rest of the policing models, is that the community-oriented policing model has no clear, well-defined target (Ratcliffe, 2008). While other models concentrate on specific areas to target in order to achieve crime control and reduction, community-oriented policing lacks a concrete set of targets. Instead, it eludes target identification in as much as it eludes a concrete definition for the model itself. According to Ratcliffe, community policing continuously changes to align itself with the concerns of the community, which may be outside of the traditional criteria for successes of police organizations.

Criteria for Success

Each policing model has the common dimension of having a criterion for success. These criteria allow police executives to demonstrate the legitimacy and effectiveness of

the police organization. Each policing model gauges success differently. In a critical comparison between the different policing models, it is apparent that the dimensions of success vary tremendously between the policing models. These variances that further define and separate the policing models from one another.

In the traditional model of policing, criteria for success were generally based on increased detections of crimes and overall arrests for crimes (Ratcliffe, 2008). The criterion for success of the traditional policing model raises many questions about its success in preventing crime due to the reactive nature of the traditional model. Relying on random patrol, rapid response, deployment of officers to investigate crimes and offense detection, the traditional model gauges its success on the numbers of crimes solved by arrests (Ratcliffe, 2008). The traditional model relies on reactive responses and does not advocate proactive policing measures. According to McDonald (2002), individual police officer performance was historically rated on numbers such as number for arrests or citations (p. 78). Based on this reactive philosophy, police effectiveness is determined mainly by arrests for crimes that have already been committed, not for crimes prevented.

In a stark comparison to the standard model, the community-oriented policing model gauges its success on a satisfied community (Ratcliffe, 2008). Community-oriented policing by far has the unique distinction of focusing more on service in which community perceptions of safety are a priority (Ratcliffe, 2008, p. 68). The concept behind focusing on community perception and satisfaction has its roots in the historical development of American policing, and has evolved because of the growing dissatisfaction with the police and police-community relations (Thurman et al., 2001). As

a result of these historical roots, police agencies, struggling to establish police legitimacy, turn to community-oriented policing to help fulfill those demands and reestablish positive police-community relations as well and reestablish police legitimacy.

For those agencies implementing community-oriented policing, some of the key goals are to improve police-community relations, improve trust between the police and the community, and to reduce social disorder (Thurman et al., 2001). This is a key distinction between community policing and all of the other models of policing in that crime control and reduction are not identified as goals for the organization under community policing. In fact, Thurman et al. (2002) posited that the primary purpose of community-oriented policing is the success a department demonstrates in achieving successful partnerships with the community, implementing community programs, and building trust.

While community-oriented policing does not have crime control and reduction as a main goal, research has indicated that crime can be effectively addressed under community policing programs. According to Zhao, Scheider, & Thurman (2002), community policing initiatives, such as the Community Oriented Policing Services (COPS) hiring program, in both large and medium sized agencies has had significant impacts of both violent crime and property crime. In addition, Zhao et al., (2002), found that crime had reached an all time 30-year low and that decrease coincided with the increase in the number of community oriented police officers and programs in America. According to Zhao et al. (2003), the decline in crime proved that community policing was working by reducing crime and that citizen were benefiting from the programs.

In comparison to the traditional model of policing, in which efficiency could be considered a key goal over effectiveness, community-oriented policing espouses effectiveness over efficiency (Thurman et al., 2001, p. 88). Then, effectiveness in community policing is defined not as controlling or reducing crime, but in how the department addresses a problem or quality of life issue (Thurman et al., 2001). In the community-oriented model, crime reduction and control are deemphasized compared to all other policing models (Thurman et al., 2001). Ratcliffe (2008), affirming Thurman et al., posited that inasmuch that community-oriented policing defies definition, community-oriented policing fails to establish crime reduction and control as its primary gauges for success.

In contrast to both the traditional and community policing models, CompStat and intelligence-led policing models gauge their success criteria on reducing crime and/or disorder (Ratcliffe, 2008). Unlike the traditional model of policing, both CompStat and intelligence-led policing rely on real time analysis of data, information, and/or intelligence to set priorities in order to achieve crime control and crime reduction. This foundation, then, serves to identify how departments use these models to gauge success.

In the CompStat model, lower crime rates are the criteria for success. CompStat focuses more reducing crime and disorder than on specific offenders (Ratcliffe, 2008, p. 79). Intelligence-led policing, while sharing the crime reduction goal with CompStat, is more comprehensive in determining success. In fact, intelligence led policing success is gauged by the detection, reduction or disruption of criminal activity or problem, and includes the arrests of serious or prolific offenders (Ratcliffe, 2008). In an analysis of

intelligence-led policing, the model combines the best gauges of success between the CompStat and problem-oriented policing models.

Both intelligence-led policing and CompStat have many similarities, but yield one very strong difference. While the two models have similar strategies, the strategic approach to combating specific offender behavior is different (Ratcliffe, 2008, p. 87). One of the major contrasting differences is the use of data and criminal intelligence, which allows the intelligence-led model to focus on serious and prolific offenders. While CompStat focuses on the analysis of crime data, intelligence-led policing focuses on both the use of crime data and criminal intelligence (Ratcliffe, 2008). The combination of crime analysis and criminal intelligence forms a contrasting difference in how success is gauged between the two models.

The distinction between the use of crime analysis (CompStat) and crime intelligence (intelligence-led) is a critical distinguishing point when comparing success criteria. In the intelligence-led policing model, its success is gauged on a broader scale than any other policing model. Success, utilizing the intelligence-led policing model, is based on the detection, reduction or disruption of criminal activities or problems, as well as reduced crime rates (Ratcliffe, 2008). Unlike other models of policing, intelligence-led policing utilizes one of the key dimensions of the traditional model of policing, arrests, that is not generally recognized as a criterion for success in the other models. In the intelligence-led model, arrests would be considered one indication of success (Ratcliffe, 2008).

In contrast to the other models of policing, the problem-oriented policing model focuses its success criteria on the reduction of problems in a community (Ratcliffe,

2008). There are five varying degrees of impact the police may have on a problem. These five areas include eliminating the problem, reducing the incidents the problem creates, reducing the seriousness of the incidents it creates, designing processes for better handling incidents, and removing the problem from police consideration (Goldstein, 1990). Overall, the success of problem-oriented policing is gauged by the reduction of a problem(s) in a community (Ratcliffe, 2008).

Despite the gauges of success under the traditional model that supported reactive policing, newer models of policing have created positive change in redefining the success criteria for police departments. Most police organizations today are rated on whether or not serious crime and disorder issues are under control and on the level of fear of crime within the community (McDonald, 2002, p. 78). This change indicates that the traditional model of policing is slowly losing ground to more innovative, effective, and responsive law enforcement organizations within the United States.

Expected Benefit

All policing models have a dimension of expected benefit. The expected benefit is what the department and the community expects in return from a certain policing model. While every police agency may have its own philosophy, each policing model brings with it a unique set of benefits and drawbacks. Policing models have historically emerged to resolve some problem, whether it was within the profession or to address a community wide concern. Oftentimes, these benefits seem to overlap one another across the spectrum of policing models. Agencies implementing any of the policing models must clearly understand what the needs of the community are and how the selected policing will allow the department to meet those needs.

The standard policing model focused on increased efficiency throughout the organization (Ratcliffe, 2008). These levels of efficiency are designed to transcend the entire department and have far-reaching impacts on officers. Under the standard model of policing, three areas are critical to overall efficiency of the organization. According to Roberg et al. (2002), these three areas include policy development, selection and training, and organization and management.

Under the standard model, the most notable element missing is any reference to crime control and/or reduction or meeting the service needs of the community. Instead of focusing on crime reduction and control, the standard model of policing has focused on managing the police organization. Despite the advances that the standard model made in efficiency, the standard model faced multiple criticisms. According to Herman Goldstein (1979), professional policing so strongly emphasized managerial practices that policing was primarily defined as the application of modern police management concepts (p. 238). This is a significant failure of the standard model of policing, which focused on efficiency rather than effectiveness.

Comparing the standard model of policing to community policing, a stark difference emerges between the two models. After years of the traditional policing model, the impact of efficiency and management began to take its toll on police-citizen relations. Although police reformers attempted to increase the efficiency of the police in order to fight crime, many of the efficiency and managerial practices had detrimental consequences for police-community relations (Thurman et al., 2001, p. 34). Ratcliffe (2008) posited that in order to overcome the professional era damage to police legitimacy, the overarching expected benefit of community policing was that of restoring

police legitimacy in those communities that had lost confidence in their police department.

Unlike other models of policing, community-oriented policing does not focus on crime reduction or control, but rather on a satisfied community. The community-oriented policing model stands out in stark contrast to every other policing model. According to Ratcliffe (2008), community-oriented policing gives precedence to solving problems over law enforcement activities and serves to increase the interaction between the community and the police. This strategy emerged in response to the continued decay of confidence in American policing, but strategies for controlling and reducing crime have never become the cornerstones of community-oriented policing.

Standing in stark contrast to community-oriented policing, three models of policing have a similar expected benefit of crime reduction. Problem-oriented, CompStat, and intelligence-led policing all have the expected benefit of reducing crime and other problems (Ratcliffe, 2008). This is a significant similarity across all three of these models, as compared to both the standard and community-oriented policing models. In the CompStat policing model, the crime reduction mechanism involves four principles that include timely and accurate intelligence, effective tactics, rapid deployment, and relentless follow up and assessment. According to Goldstein (1979), these principles are similar to those found in problem-oriented policing, which calls for officers and crime analysts to identify crime and disorder problems and attempt to resolve or mitigate those problems in order to effectively control or reduce crime.

Like CompStat and problem-oriented policing, the intelligence-led model has the same expected benefit of controlling and reducing crime. Unlike these two models,

intelligence-led policing adds a component that addresses prolific offenders. According to Ratcliffe (2008), the intelligence-led models expected benefit is that of reducing and controlling crime through targeting prolific offenders through linked series of crimes. All of these models combine some form of crime analysis, the targeting of hot spots, and the application of preventive measures, all with the expected benefit of crime control and reduction.

CompStat

Traditionally, law enforcement agencies have operated under the guiding principles of random patrol, rapid response, follow up investigations, and clearance rates for crimes (Moore & Braga, 2003; Walsh, 2001). Research has failed to support the effectiveness of these traditional policing principles as they relate to crime prevention and control (Walsh, 2001). According to Weisburd et al (2004), in 1994, facing unprecedented levels of crime, New York Police Commissioner William Bratton began a series of changes involving managerial practices, accountability, and officer deployment and allocation, which would later become known as CompStat.

CompStat originally developed as an acronym for 'compare stats,' but is most widely accepted in today's law enforcement as 'computer statistics' (Eterno & Silverman, 2006). CompStat is an alternative policing model that holds great promise for improving policing in America (Weisburd, Mastrofski, McNally, Greenspan, & Willis, 2003). CompStat was designed to overcome the traditional, dysfunctional features of police management with state of the art management principles and innovative crime analysis and geographic systems technology (Willis, Mastrofski, & Weisburd, 2004). This crime

control system would build on the best practices of fighting crime and would prove successful for the NYPD in the very early stages.

The regular CompStat meetings, technology, and the management systems are intrinsically linked to one another. Together, these components would create what has become known as the “CompStat paradigm” (Henry, 2002/2003). According to Henry, a paradigm is a mindset or collection of organized principles and fundamental viewpoints (p. 15). Henry stated that “the Compstat paradigm is a hybrid management style that combines the best and most effective elements of several organizational models as well as the best philosophies that support them” (p. 24). The CompStat management style is supported and recognized in the accreditation process as developed by the Commission on Accreditation for Law Enforcement Agencies (CALEA).

Created by a joint effort of the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP), the National Organization of Black Law Enforcement Executives (NOBLE), the National Sheriffs’ Association (NSA), and the Police Executive Research Forum (PERF), CALEA has developed an accreditation process that supports the principles the of the CompStat management model (Standards for Law, 2009). Through the CALEA accreditation process, the best practices for law enforcement are reinforced. Through the CALEA accreditation process for police organizations, many of the CompStat principles must be implemented within an organization before the department can be awarded CALEA accreditation. The CALEA accreditation standards, for those departments attaining accreditation, must adopt some of the underlying principles of the CompStat management model even though those principles may be tailored to specifically support a wide variety of departmental missions and goals. This serves to validate the CompStat

management model's practices and further serves to facilitate adoption of CompStat principles in police organizations.

While there may be many reasons an agency implements CompStat, the goal of crime reduction emerges at the forefront. In the totality, "the underlying reason of Compstat is that police officers and police agencies can have a substantial positive impact on crime and quality-of-life problems facing the communities they serve if managed strategically" (Vito, Walsh, & Kunselman, 2004, p. 188). Weisburd et al., (2008b), found that departments implementing CompStat gave reducing crime a priority over departments that were not planning to implement CompStat. In contrast, those departments that were not planning CompStat implementation gave a higher ranking on improving police officers skills and employee morale (Weisburd et al., 2008b, p. 24). The findings of this research are significant in understanding the potential impact of the CompStat management paradigm on the organizational health of police agencies.

Historical Development

Prior to 1994, New York City was plagued by crime and fear, and New Yorkers wanted out of the danger and lawlessness that had besieged New York (Bratton, 1998). Under the administration of Mayor David Dinkins, who had advocated community policing, the NPYD had failed to address crime and disorder, and the police department seemed completely dysfunctional and unable to address the growing crime problem (Bratton, 1998). In 1993, New York residents elected Rudolph Giuliani to the Office of Mayor of New York City (Bratton, 1998). Giuliani, a former federal prosecutor, had run his mayoral campaign by promising to address quality of life issues and the

overarching crime problem that had taken hold of the city (Bratton, 1998; Henry, 2002/2003).

On December 2, 1993, Giuliani announced that Bratton would take office as the new police commissioner in little over one month (Bratton, 1998). Time was of the essence for Bratton and he and his management team had little time to waste on organizational assessments, surveys, or interviews (Bratton, 1998). As one of his first acts as police commissioner upon taking the office in 1994, he sought the resignation of the department's top management (Bratton, 1998). As such, he replaced five of the six 'super chiefs' within only a few weeks of taking office (Bratton, 1998). According to Henry (2002/2003), as the department began to take a new direction in fighting crime, many other police executives opted to retire from the NYPD, which allowed Bratton the ability to replace these commanders with forward thinking experts who were both optimistic and enthusiastic.

As the new administration developed, the need for a systematic method to provide the police commissioner, as well as other top executives, with information became a top priority (Henry, 2002/2003). It was this initial need for information that developed into the first principle of CompStat, timely and accurate information (Henry, 2002/2003). Other principles would soon emerge, but the new and emerging CompStat paradigm would not be without challenge.

Despite the results of CompStat in its ability to effect change within the NYPD, the challenges that Bratton faced were tremendous. In fact, the NYPD was widely known as having a number of internal organizational dysfunctions. According to Eterno and Silverman (2006), CompStat was essentially designed to fix a broken, dysfunctional

NYPD (p. 220). According to Walsh (2001), the impetus behind CompStat was to take one of America's largest police organizations, known for its resistance to change, and make it responsive to Bratton's leadership, which targeted crime reduction and quality of life issues as top priorities.

From the very beginning of Bratton's leadership, he and his lieutenants had identified a number of deficiencies that had long been associated with bureaucratic dysfunction (Bratton, 1998). According to Eterno and Silverman (2006), CompStat was designed to address the dysfunctional and ineffectual bureaucracy that had crippled the NYPD in its primary mission of fighting crime. According to both Walsh (2001) and Weisburd et al. (2004), the deficiencies of the NYPD included: (a) a lack of understanding the organizational importance for controlling crime; (b) failing to set high expectations for what the NYPD officers could do and accomplish; (c) too many police managers had become moribund and desired simply to maintain the status quo; (d) failed to give operational commanders the authority and flexibility to address community needs; and, (e) the department was literally "flying blind," without any direction, information, or internal accountability.

Despite these challenges, Bratton and his management team pushed forward with the new management system for the NYPD. After the implementation of Compstat, New York realized a 27% decrease in crime compared to the overall national average of 2% (Dorriety, 2005, p. 101). The huge success in crime reduction was directly attributed to the use of CompStat to conduct crime analysis and allocate police resources (Dorriety, 2005, p. 101). The crime reductions made in New York were not isolated and have been replicated with similar crime reductions cities such as New Orleans, Minneapolis,

Philadelphia, Newark, and New Jersey (Walsh, 2001, p. 353). The successes with crime reduction in New York, as well as the success in other major cities, have all been grounded in what has become known as the principles of CompStat.

CompStat Principles

The CompStat principles form the foundation for the CompStat paradigm. The CompStat paradigm is easily defined, and consists of four main principles: timely and accurate information, effective tactics, rapid deployment, and relentless follow up and assessment (Bratton, 1998; Henry, 2002/2003; Ratcliffe, 2008). The CompStat principles are clearly identified and defined within the scope of the CompStat paradigm and its efforts to control and reduce crime.

Accurate and timely intelligence.

The first CompStat principle, accurate and timely intelligence, is the engine that drives CompStat (Bratton, 1998). As with any other managerial process, CompStat would be seriously weakened without accurate and timely information (Shane, 2004). According to Shane (2004), “accurate intelligence reflects what actually occurred at a given time and place,” while “timely,” or “real-time,” intelligence is the most current information available, being collected and acted upon as near as the occurrence of the event as possible” (p. 14). This first principle, therefore, must be established within CompStat organizations during the very first part of the implementation.

The first principle of accurate and timely information relies on a combination of technologies and dissemination practices. According to Henry (2002/2003), “the ability to make effective use of timely and accurate intelligence is greatly enhanced through the potential of technology systems to quickly gather, collate, analyze and present raw crime

intelligence data” (p. 318). This data then forms the foundation for which police commanders rely on to create appropriate tactics in their response to crime and disorder. Although crime data and the geographical information systems (GIS) play a role in CompStat’s success, the combination of crime mapping, operational strategies, and accountability for managers all are integral part of CompStat (Ratcliffe, 2008, p. 76). Under CompStat, the availability of information and intelligence must transcend the entire organization in order for intelligence to be both timely and effective. As Walsh (2001) states, it is the underlying belief that all of the officers, at all levels, must have the knowledge of criminal activity if the police are to effectively respond to crime and the needs of the community. The principle of timely and accurate information serves as the main catalyst for the next principle of CompStat, which is that of the rapid deployment of personnel and resources.

Rapid deployment.

The second principle of CompStat is that of rapid deployment (Bratton, 1998). According to McDonald (2002), under the second principle, rapid deployment of personnel and resources is the capacity of the police to deploy resources when and where they are needed most to address crime. According to Henry (2002/2003),

The capacity to deploy resources rapidly and effectively is greatly enhanced when the kind of organizational and administrative barriers that characterize most traditional police bureaucracies are removed, and when the accountability systems demand that enforcement, support, and ancillary units work together in a coordinated fashion. (p. 318)

Under the principle of rapid deployment, once the commanders identify the most appropriate means and have developed a response strategy, commanders must rapidly deploy their assigned personnel and resources (Shane, 2004). According to Walsh (2001), the CompStat principle of rapid deployment departs from the perspectives of traditional police management because it eliminates internal competition for power over limited police resources; instead, focusing the entire department on the primary organizational mission regardless of organizational subdivisions.

Effective tactics.

The third principle of CompStat is that of effective tactics (Bratton, 1998). Effective tactics consists of strategies and tactics that have been developed in response to identified crime patterns or crime hot spots (McDonald, 2002). Under CompStat, commanders must develop and implement plans of action utilizing effective tactics that address problems. According to Shane (2004), generally, commanders are prevented from simply using directed patrols to address the problems that have been identified; instead, requiring commanders to develop unique and specific tactics.

The principles of CompStat force the organization to work together to address the element known as crime. According to Walsh (2001), “organizations using the Compstat process develop a strategic management system that uses organizational strategy to unite executive, operational commanders and officers’ decisions and actions into a coordinated and compatible pattern” (p. 354). It is under these processes that operational commanders must develop specific strategies (tactics) and to set specific objectives for those strategies. According to Walsh (2001), the strategy involves the organization’s response to crime, disorder, citizen demand, public safety, and the needs of the personnel (p. 354).

Walsh (2001) further posited that the operational objectives are the ends, while the strategy is the means to achieve those ends.

It is under the principle of effective tactics, which must be developed and implemented, that accountability of the commanders is attached. According to Shane (2004), commanders that fail to act run the risk of dereliction to their duties (p. 16). According to Walsh (2001), in the CompStat paradigm, operational commanders are held accountable for the quality of their plans, quality of their efforts to reduce crime, managerial oversight of operations, and the results.

Relentless follow up and assessment.

The fourth, and last principle of CompStat, is the relentless follow up and assessment. Walsh (2001) stated that “the follow-up and assessment process enhances managerial accountability and effectiveness because it lets agency executives and commanders at all levels, assess their results and change their tactics and deployment based on what they see and know” (p. 355). According to Henry (2002/2003), the relentless follow up ensures that no one prematurely concludes that the problem(s) have been resolved. Accordingly, this last principle ensures sound, quality problem solving responses that get verified results.

Under this principle, commanders are expected to follow up on the orders that they have issued out, and are further expected to discern whether the solutions are achieving the desired goals of addressing identified problems (Shane, 2004). It is during the regular CompStat meetings that executive and operational commanders communicate directly with one another to assess their personnel, results, and strategies (Walsh, 2001).

This level of communication and interaction furthers a consolidated strategy within the department to focus the entire department on crime fighting efforts.

While many who practice CompStat consider the relentless follow up and assessment principle to be the most onerous, time consuming, and difficult, it is also considered to be the most important (McDonald, 2002; Shane, 2004). It is under this principle, that it is determined if police response achieved the desired result(s) and reduced or eliminated the problem (Shane, 2004). As Henry (2002/2003) stated, the follow-up process must include the constant adaption and revision of tactics to solve problems (p. 318). According to Henry (2002/2003), the assessment process depends heavily on the continual and steady flow of timely and accurate intelligence, which creates a continuous process of the CompStat principles.

Combined together the CompStat principles form the foundation of the CompStat paradigm. These principles, when implemented in police agencies, have a number of outcomes that begin to impact police organizations, both in structure, operation, process, and management. The changes that begin to take place within police organizations emerge as the elements of CompStat.

Elements of CompStat

In the CompStat paradigm, six elements emerge within law enforcement organizations. Weisburd et al. (2008a) “identify six key elements that have emerged as central to the development of strategic problem-solving in Compstat programs: mission clarification; internal accountability; geographic organization of command; organizational flexibility; data-driven problem identification and assessment; and innovative problem solving” (p. 6). As the principles of CompStat are developed, these

elements begin to emerge within the organization. These elements combine to form a comprehensive model that allows police agencies to identify, analyze, and solve community problems (Weisburd et al., 2003, p. 427). It is with this comprehensive approach, law enforcement organizations become focused on the criminal element, thereby more effectively reducing and controlling crime.

For as many positive elements and outcomes that emerge from CompStat, CompStat is not without negative elements and outcomes. In deconstructing CompStat, Firman (2003) posited that “Compstat contains elements of solid leadership, advanced applications of information technology, problem solving, proactive methods to deal with crime and incident trends, and ultimately the mobilization and allocation of resources” (p. 457). Eterno and Silverman (2006), while acknowledging the strengths of CompStat, bring forward a number of weaknesses of the CompStat paradigm. It is these identified weaknesses, of the CompStat paradigm, that need to be identified and examined to understand how these weaknesses affect individuals within the organization, which can affect the overall organizational health.

Moore (2003) argues that these core elements are a wide range of managerial innovations that create a new performance measurement system. It is through an examination of the individual elements of mission clarification, internal accountability, geographic organization of command, organizational flexibility, data-driven problem identification and assessment, and innovative problem solving that a number of weaknesses, that affect the organizational health of police organizations, begin to emerge.

Mission clarification.

According to Weisburd et al., (2008b), the first element that emerges in CompStat organizations is that of mission clarification. Since police organizations are modeled after military organizations, it is assumed that police agencies must have a clearly defined organizational mission in order to be effective (Weisburd et al., 2008b). Under this rationale, management works toward “clarifying and exalting the core features of the department’s mission that serve as the overarching reason for the organization’s existence” (Willis et al., 2004, p. 465). This element sets the direction for the department, and provides a clear message on the department’s mission.

With the foundation of the mission for the department, officers should have a clear understanding of what is expected for them. Moore (2003) stated that one principle of management is the ability to measure performance and to guide organizational behavior (p. 480). Moore (2003) asserted that CompStat’s mission clarification actually arose from the political commitments of Giuliani, and that Compstat was simply an administrative tool to measure performance and assign accountability (p. 472). According to Walsh (2001), through the establishment of a departmental mission, along with specific goals, departments are not only able to implement a performance measurement system, but also are able to build on traditional policing goals and combine them with strategic management fundamentals that have proven successful in the business sector .

The CompStat paradigm purports to require solidification of mission clarification. According to Weisburd et al. (2003), mission clarification “includes a demonstration of management’s commitment to specific goals for which the organization and its leaders can be held accountable, such as reducing crime by 10% in a year” (p. 427). McDonald

(2002) posited that setting specific objectives cannot be overstated, and that it is critical that specific goals and objectives be established by the chief and top-level commanders (p. 8). McDonald (2002) further posited that setting objectives is important because it sends a powerful, focused message to everyone on what is worthy of the department's focus and attention.

While setting specific goals is critical to the CompStat model, research conducted by Weisburd et al., (2008b), revealed that less than half of the departments that had implemented CompStat had set any goals aimed at reducing crime by a specific amount (p. 29). Even more revealing, almost a third of the departments surveyed had focused on many different goals, thereby diminishing the goal of mission clarification (Weisburd et al., 2008b). Weisburd et al., (2008b), affirms McDonald's argument on the importance of goal setting, but also cautions that setting too many different goals fails to establish a set of clearly defined goals, for mission clarification, as required of the CompStat model. According to Weisburd et al. (2008b), by creating too many goals, and thereby failing to focus the department, CompStat can create ambiguity and begin to confuse police officers.

Internal accountability.

According to Weisburd et al., (2008b), the second element that emerges in CompStat is the establishment of internal accountability. According to Weisburd et al. (2003), personnel must be held accountable for organizational goals by the establishment of internal accountability (p. 428). Accountability has been clearly visible in Compstat meetings in which police commanders, guests, and the public have attended. CompStat requires that middle managers are held responsible for addressing crime and disorder, and

provides for consequences for those who fail (Willis et al., 2004, p. 465). This level of accountability is one of the features that ensure that middle managers remain proactive in their efforts to address crime within their areas.

Holding middle managers accountable, through rewards and punishment, was a critical element in NYPD CompStat model (Bratton, 1998). Affirming this, Moore (2003) noted that “COMPSTAT helped to create a strong sense of internal accountability by collecting and publishing information about the performance of precinct-level managers in ways that permitted easy comparisons both with their prior performance and with the performance of their peers” (p. 472). According to research conducted by Weisburd et al., (2008b), 46% of the agencies that have implemented CompStat report that commanders would be replaced if they failed to demonstrate knowledge about the crimes in their respective areas of command. According to Weisburd et al. (2008), in comparison, only 20% of non-CompStat departments were found to replace commanders.

CompStat, by its design, demonstrates a heavy focus on punishment to enforce accountability. According to Weisburd et al., (2008b), CompStat departments are not likely to utilize rewards for reinforcing internal accountability within the CompStat paradigm. In fact, their research revealed that less than 23% of the CompStat departments indicate that a commander would be rewarded (i.e., promotion, better job assignment) for declines in crime (Weisburd et al., 2008b). The research indicates that there is a huge disparity in CompStat agencies in the use of rewards and punishments for achieving crime reductions; thereby creating a significant imbalance in reward and punishment within CompStat organizations.

While commanders were likely to be replaced for failing to demonstrate their knowledge about crimes or problems within their areas, research indicates that few agencies replaced commanders simply because crime increased or failed to drop (Weisburd et al., 2008b). The authors posited that “this reflects perhaps, the position that Compstat demands that commanders are familiar with problems and develop solutions to them, but should not be unrealistic in recognizing that sometimes problems may not be responsive to police interventions” (p. 30). This is a critical point in the CompStat paradigm. Top police executives must be able to discern the finer points of the CompStat paradigm in order to balance knowledge, accountability, and end results of those top commanders and middle managers.

While internal accountability is created within CompStat organizations, the element of accountability also created other problems within CompStat organizations. According to Eterno and Silverman (2006), CompStat alienates line level officers with a top-down style of management, which is part of the traditional policing strategy. Eterno and Silverman (2006) further posited that CompStat became a numbers game, whereby high level police executives would berate and embarrass police commanders if their crime numbers were not decreasing.

While a good deal of CompStat’s criticism is focused on upper and middle management, CompStat is also criticized for its impact on line level officers. Eterno and Silverman (2006) stated that an additional Compstat weakness lies with the failure of CompStat to motivate the vast majority of officers (p. 223). Cowper (2000) fires on CompStat an even more powerful criticism:

This style of leadership (not even a true representation of leadership by book camp drill instructors) has done within policing exactly what its critics decry: created organizations that are centrally controlled and highly inflexible, characterized by top-down order transmission and bottom-up reporting; less creative and more intellectually rigid individual officers bound to tradition and regulations, unable to deal effectively with both the dynamics of modern policing theories and the communities they serve; and a more combat enforcement oriented force, with a resulting increase in isolation from the hostility between police and citizens. (p. 237)

Despite the purported accountability that CompStat creates in a department, some researchers argue that commander influence is minimal at best. According to Vito et al., (2004), “operational managers are held accountable for addressing the crime and disorder issues and trends associated with the Compstat Report’s data for their areas” (p. 188). While CompStat purports to establish accountability throughout the organization, research does not support that this has been effective. Eterno and Silverman (2001) stated that “the idea that commanding officers have enormous control over the officers under their command and that somehow the bureaucratic sanctions motivated many officers is not supported by research” (p. 224). Research conducted by Eterno (2001, 2003) revealed that commanding officers had very little influence on most officers within the organization.

According to Eterno & Silverman (2006), CompStat has little influence over patrol officers and most of them do not react to CompStat or to departmental sanctions. Weisburd et al. (2008b) affirmed that their CompStat observations revealed that line level

officers remained largely oblivious to Compstat and that it had little, if any, impact on their daily work (p. 58). Without a considerable level of influence on patrol officers, the level of internal accountability is diminished considerably, thereby creating an imbalance of accountability throughout the entire organization whereby middle managers are caught in the middle. In fact, Weisburd et al. (2008a) found that, in addition to diminished accountability, the element of internal accountability created conflicts with the elements of organizational flexibility and problem-solving practices.

Geographic organization.

Weisburd et al., (2008b) identify the third element that emerges as that of geographic organization of operational command. Traditionally in large police agencies, commanders have been given geographic areas of command while other commanders have been in charge of special units of command (Henry, 2002/2003). According to Weisburd et al. (2008b), under CompStat, decision-making command is centralized and delegated to commanders who are responsible for assigned geographic territories.

CompStat, through geographic command, purports to give commanders considerable authority in carry out their mission. According to Weisburd et al (2003), “although Compstat holds police managers to a high level of accountability, it also gives police commanders the authority to carry out the agency’s mission” (428). Under CompStat, the decision-making power is delegated down to the middle managers who have territorial responsibilities, thereby shifting organizational decision-making power (Weisburd et al., 2003). In concurrence, Moore and Braga (2003) posited that in CompStat organizations, the organizational power shifts to the commanders so that policing objectives can be accomplished.

Under CompStat, special units, such as narcotics, juvenile, detectives, or vice, are generally placed under the command of a precinct commander or arrangements and protocols have been implemented so that these units have been responsive to the precinct commander's requirements for accomplishing its mission (Weisburd et al., 2003). Moore (2003) posited that, "the shift in responsibility and status was *from* those who led special function units *to* those who led geographically defined, patrol-dominated precincts" (p. 472). According to Moore (2003), special units become subordinate to the interests of the geographical area of the commander.

These findings indicate that the differences between CompStat and non-CompStat departments are considered very small. Weisburd et al., (2008b) found that there were not statistically significant differences between CompStat and non-CompStat organizations regarding geographic organization of command.

Organizational flexibility.

Weisburd et al., (2008b) identify the fourth element that emerges as that of an increase in the flexibility of the organization. According to Weisburd et al., (2008b), organizational flexibility involves the authority of commanders to approve flexible hours and to mobilize special units (i.e., SWAT) to support crime fighting operations. While these two areas of control support geographic command, the flexibility and authority of commanders to mobilize and allocate resources demonstrates the flexibility of the organization.

Traditionally, law enforcement organizations operate under systems, policies, and procedures that are highly bureaucratic and rigid (Gaines & Kappeler, 1994/2003). The CompStat model requires that departments develop and refine their capacity to mobilize

their resources to address identified problems (Weisburd et al., 2008b, p. 11). CompStat purports to change the old perceptions of bureaucratic, inflexible police organizations by injecting flexibility and change into the organization as a key, critical element. Under organizational flexibility, middle managers purportedly are empowered with both decision-making authority and the resources to be successful (Weisburd et al., 2003, p. 429). This key element requires that organizations adopt a high level of flexibility to achieve the departmental mission.

Weisburd et al., (2008b), found that 84% of agencies that have implemented CompStat report a good deal of flexibility in reassigning officers to new areas or units to address identified problems. In fact, “Compstat departments were significantly more likely to reassign patrol officers to deal with that problem, or to reassign other sworn specialists” (Weisburd et al., 2008b, p. 46). Weisburd et al., (2008b) also found that 75% of CompStat departments afforded commanders the authority to approve flexible hours and 62% the authority to mobilize special units to support operations. Their research also concluded that, under CompStat, civilians were least likely to be reassigned to address a specific problem, with only 28% of departments providing such authority to commanders.

Weisburd et al., (2003) had suggested that CompStat organizations were more focused on control than on empowering personnel and the research did not support the overarching goal of organizational flexibility. Vito et al., (2004) posited that some agencies have extreme difficulties in this operational arena and are unable to efficiently shift personnel, in sufficient numbers, to address the identified problems. The research conducted by Weisburd et al., (2003) revealed that CompStat departments were reluctant

to decentralize and were more apt to reinforce traditional bureaucratic models that emphasized command and control of personnel and resources

Cowper (2000) asserted that critics of this model of policing argue that it is excessively rigid, micro managed by bureaucrats, and is autocratic. While CompStat allows commanders a large amount of authority in assigning personnel, Weisburd et al., (2008b), found that only 40% of CompStat departments permitted their commanders to determine routine staffing levels, and only 19% of CompStat departments gave commanders the authority to define beat boundaries for officers. This research indicates that commanders do have significant restrictions placed on their authority in the areas of staffing levels and defining beat boundaries. While Vito et al., (2004) asserted that commanders were empowered to direct their areas of responsibility (p. 188), the research indicates that only a minority of CompStat departments were demonstrating full organizational flexibility (Weisburd et al., 2008b). This is a significant find because organizational flexibility is critical to the department's overall ability to effectively address crime and problems within the community.

Data driven problem identification and assessment.

Weisburd et al. (2003) identify the fifth element that emerges is that of the data driven problem identification and assessment. This element has been identified as a core component of the CompStat paradigm (Weisburd et al., 2008b). One of the critical CompStat elements requires that data are made available to identify and analyze problems to gauge the department's response (Weisburd et al., 2003, p. 429). Without timely and accurate crime data, no other CompStat element can receive attention or foster the need or action to address crime and disorder problems.

Research by Weisburd et al. (2008b) was unable to find any differences between CompStat and non-CompStat departments in the availability of data. Data that were available to both types of agencies included information on calls for service, reported crime incidents, arrests, citations, and field interrogation data (Weisburd et al., 2008b, p. 47). According to Weisburd et al. (2008b), in addition to the types of data available, there was not a statistical significance between CompStat and non-CompStat departments in the timeliness of the data.

While there were no significant differences in the availability or timeliness of the data between CompStat and non-CompStat departments, there were significant differences that were found in the analysis of information. Weisburd et al. (2008b) found that 90% of CompStat departments claim to have the ability to manage and analyze data more effectively, and are more likely to use sophisticated software for crime data analysis. Here, the differences between CompStat and non-CompStat agencies begin to become more distinct.

The first area of distinction is found in the area of analysis tools. Weisburd et al. (2008b) found “meaningful differences between Compstat and non-Compstat departments in the claimed availability of analysis tools. The largest differences [33% gap] are found in regard to crime mapping, reflecting the centrality of crime mapping to Compstat programs” (Weisburd et al., 2003, p. 441). The second area of difference is in the analysis for data for problem solving. Weisburd et al. (2008b) found that 69% of CompStat departments use database analysis software for problem solving, as compared to only 54% of non-CompStat departments. An even greater significance was found in the use of mapping for problem solving. Sixty-seven percent of CompStat departments

reported utilizing mapping for problem-solving as compared to only 39% for non-CompStat departments (Weisburd et al., 2008b). These findings did provide a significant difference between CompStat and non-CompStat departments.

Innovative problem solving.

The sixth, and last, element of CompStat that emerges is the use of innovative problem-solving tactics (Weisburd et al., 2003). Compstat has been seen as an energizer for policing efforts because it has required commanders to think about ways of solving problems. According to Willis et al. (2004), “in this context, police are expected to look beyond their own experiences by drawing upon knowledge gained in other departments and from innovations in theory and research about crime prevention” (p. 466). Under CompStat, innovation and experimentation are encouraged, and affords commanders the ability to modify traditional policing responses and create specific tactical responses for their assigned geographical crime problems. According to Ratcliffe (2008), CompStat has placed greater expectations on police leadership, especially within the ranks of middle and upper management.

While CompStat purportedly creates new, innovative solutions to problems, its critics argue that CompStat fails in this endeavor. Moore (2003) argued that there is little evidence “that COMPSTAT was used to support “data-driven problem identification and assessment” and “innovative problem solving tactics”” (p. 473). Moore argued that CompStat allegedly encourages the police to seek out new, innovative resolutions to problems; however, he asserted that the information systems used by CompStat do not support detailed problem diagnosis and innovative solutions. Weisburd et al. (2008b) supported Moore’s conclusions by affirming that their research found that few CompStat

departments researched problem solving strategies outside of their own inter departmental successes. In fact, Weisburd et al. (2008b), found that there were few differences in this area between CompStat and non-CompStat departments.

According to research conducted by Weisburd et al. (2008b), 90% of the agencies that have implemented CompStat were found to give district or precinct commanders the authority required to select problem-solving strategies for low-level problems within their geographic area of command. In comparison, Weisburd et al. (2008b) also found that 86% of non-CompStat departments reported that commanders were given the same authority for problem-solving strategy selection. Weisburd et al., (2008b) found that, for highly visible problems in a commander's district, commanders in most CompStat departments (70%) were not permitted to select a problem solving strategy as compared to 54% of non-CompStat departments.

In further examination of problem solving, Weisburd et al. (2008b) did not find significant differences between CompStat and non-CompStat departments in their methods for solving problems. Their research concluded that in both types of departments, the success of previous responses were the most important factor in determining a response to a problem. Weisburd et al. (2008b) found that among 23 possible response tactics, only five were found to be statistically different: increase in arrests, target repeat offenders, use checkpoints, gun seizures, and improve victim services.

Leadership in Law Enforcement

Management and leadership are often used interchangeably; however, their meanings can be very different. These differences, while distinct, have a direct, critical

impact on law enforcement organizations. Roberg (2002) pointed out that “management may be defined as the process of working with people in a humane way to achieve organizational goals and objectives as efficiently and effectively as possible” (p. 6). Leadership, according to one definition, “is motivating others to perform various tasks that will contribute to the accomplishment of goals and objectives” (Roberg et al., 2002, p. 6). Clearly, leadership and management are two distinct concepts that must be integrated into law enforcement organizations.

Arguably, the most important part of the organization is the leadership. According to Bass and Bass (1974/2009), leadership definitions “tend to concentrate on the leader as the person, on the behavior of the leader, on the effects of the leader, and on the interaction process between the leader and the led” (p. 15). According to Bennett and Hess (2001), the difference between a leader and a manager is that a manager focuses on the task, while a leader focuses on the people. Thibault et al. (2004) stated that “the real challenge is to examine and understand the problems and theoretical parameters involved with the characteristics of leadership in American policing” (p. 80). A major challenge in American policing is to understand the complexities and challenges of leadership for which the chief executive exerts on the entire organization as a whole.

In modern law enforcement organizations, the chief has emerged as the one, central figure in which the entire organization relies upon. According to Reiss (1985), an issue facing modern police executives is the role of law enforcement in responding to, and shaping social change. Throughout the history of American law enforcement, change has been an integral part of these organizations with the chief of police at the center. According to Mayo (1985), “the literature of police administration consistently describes

the role of the police chief as one of the most demanding, challenging, and important executive functions anywhere in public administration” (p. 397). Baker (2000) posited that police chiefs have a direct impact on the quality of life and inspiration of their officers and the way their organizations deliver services.

Police leaders have the potential to inspire officers but to also sabotage their efforts (Haberfeld, 2006, p. 1). Leadership, therefore, plays a critical role in the health of any police organization, which affects job satisfaction of police officers. According to Hoath, Schneider, W, & Starr (1998), job satisfaction can impact job performance, the public’s attitude toward the police, employee-employer relations, and employee stress.

While leadership in law enforcement is considered, by many, a crucial part of the organization, law enforcement leaders often find themselves struggling to understand and implement the most effective leadership practices. Research conducted on police leadership for the Police Executive Research Forum (PERF) indicated that successful law enforcement leaders were ambitious; however, they put the organization, rather than themselves, first (Wexler, Wycoff, & Fischer, 2007, p. 5). Wexler et al. (2007) stated that “police chiefs, like other executives, offer themselves for service, but do not select themselves” (p. 18). The research on required leadership qualities conducted by Wexler et al. (2007) has many similarities with servant leadership; therefore, servant leadership deserves considerable attention by law enforcement executives and organizations.

It is with these understandings of the role and influence of the chief of police that leadership becomes a focal point for the overall organizational health. While the literature indicates that leadership in law enforcement is a significant issue, the literature indicates

that leadership research in law enforcement is lacking attention, focus, direction, and training.

Despite the importance of leadership in police organizations, American law enforcement has failed to focus on leadership training. Thibault et al. (2004), argued, that there was a significant need for leadership and management courses for newly promoted police executives (p. 84). Haberfeld (2006), citing the importance of leadership, took leadership training even further and posited that “despite being clearly dedicated to the development of leadership skills, all such efforts continue to ignore the most needy target population – line officers” (p. 5). It is posited that leadership training should not target just the chief executive, but should target the line level officer as well, and early in their career. Mayo (1985) stated that “the essential function of the chief executive is, through leadership, to provide a sense of purpose, ethical content, and direction for all others in the organization to follow” (p. 398). The leadership function, therefore, is elevated to a critical level within the organizations.

The daunting question for researchers and practitioners centers on the leadership needs for today’s law enforcement organizations. According to Ledbetter (2003), a new kind of leadership is emerging in law enforcement organizations that breaks away from the traditional autocratic leadership. Ledbetter (2003) posited that servant leadership may be the best practice for the challenges facing American law enforcement leadership, and the organizations that are impacted by that leadership. Cortrite (2007) concurred with Ledbetter, positing that that servant leadership would be a good fit for law enforcement organizations.

With the introduction of servant leadership into law enforcement, proponents contend that servant leadership will address most of the leadership gaps and failures in the current leadership. Russel and Stone posited that “servant leadership is a concept that can potentially change organizations and societies because it stimulates both personal and organizational metamorphoses” (p. 154). While the literature suggests that servant leadership would be a good fit for law enforcement, there is little empirical evidence of servant leadership in law enforcement organizations. Ledbetter (2003) and Cortrite (2007) posited that servant leadership would be good for law enforcement organizations, while Bass and Bass (1974/2009) and Smith et al. (2004) posited that servant leadership may be a better fit for organizations that are in a stable environment.

With the rapid change that American law enforcement organizations have experienced over the last two decades, especially with the diffusion of CompStat, law enforcement would certainly not be considered a stable environment. Irrespective of these assertions, servant leadership and the servant leadership attributes are important to all organizations because it offers to improve organizational leadership (Russell & Stone, 2002). It is the specific attributes and characteristics of servant leadership that propels servant leadership into the spotlight of law enforcement organizations. With the leadership crisis facing American law enforcement, servant leadership characteristics could be one solution for addressing the leadership problem within police organizations.

Servant Leadership

The concept of servant leadership is not new. In fact, the earliest written concept of servant leadership dates back to Jesus Christ (Laub, 1999). The term *servant leader* was first used by Robert Greenleaf, who is considered the modern father of servant

leadership. While Greenleaf did not provide a solid, concrete definition of servant leadership, he posited that,

The servant-leader *is* servant first. It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve *first*. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead. That person is sharply different from one who is *leader* first, perhaps because of the need to assuage an unusual power drive or to acquire material possessions. The leader-first and the servant-first are two extreme types. Between them there are shadings and blends that are part of the infinite variety of human nature.

(Greenleaf, 1970/2008, p. 15)

The major premise of Robert Greenleaf's servant leadership is that leaders are servants first. While servant leadership has been formally recognized in the leadership literature since Robert Greenleaf's publication of *The Servant as Leader* in 1977, the servant leader movement has only recently gained momentum (Senjaya & Sarros, 2002). According to Smith et al. (2004), servant leadership is one of the most popular leadership theories being discussed by researchers today. According to Laub (1999), "servant leadership is an alternative to the traditional power and authority model that is still most prevalent in our organizations today" (p. 28). It is clear, that servant leadership would bring a new, innovative leadership model into American law enforcement organizations.

According to Greenleaf (1970/2008), the idea of the servant as leader came to him from his reading of the book *Journey to the East*, by Herman Hesse (Greenleaf, 1970/2008). In reading *Journey to the East*, Greenleaf recounts the journey of a band of men on a mythical journey. On their journey, they have a servant by the name of Leo. Leo is responsible for the menial chores of the band of men, but he also sustains the group with

his strong spirit and song. When Leo disappears, the will of the group is broken, and the journey is abandoned. Only after years of wandering does the narrator, one of the group, find the servant Leo, only to discover he is in fact now “the titular head of the Order, its guiding spirit, and a great noble leader” (Greenleaf, 1970/2008, p. 9). This relationship exemplifies the concept of servant leadership.

It is through Greenleaf’s personal interpretation of *Journey to the East* that Greenleaf brings forward the servant leader. According to Greenleaf (1970/2008), “the great leader is seen as servant first, and that simple fact is the key to his greatness” (p. 9). Greenleaf (1977) believed that servant leadership should be applied to a number of organizations, to include businesses, education, churches, and foundations. Russell and Stone (2002) posited that, servant leadership was important to all organizations because it had the potential to improve the leadership in many different settings (p. 145). If servant leadership has the potential to improve any organization, then American law enforcement would certainly be remiss if it did not seriously consider servant leadership.

Larry Spears (1998), CEO of the Greenleaf Center, furthered the work of Robert Greenleaf by concluding that Robert Greenleaf’s writings included ten major attributes of servant leadership, which include listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and building community. While this list of attributes is small, it does not represent the entire list of attributes of servant leaders. In fact, the literature on servant leadership reveals at least 20 attributes of servant leaders.

Russell and Stone (2002) summarize the current literature on servant leadership attributes into two categories: functional and accompanying. The functional attributes

include vision, honesty, integrity, trust, service, modeling, pioneering, appreciation of others, and empowerment (Russell & Stone, 2002). They further identify the accompanying attributes as communication, credibility, competence, stewardship, visibility, influence, persuasion, listening, encouragement, teaching, and delegation.

With the attributes of servant leadership, it is clear that the focus is on the employee, which could have a positive impact. Russell and Stone (2002) stated that, “servant leadership offers the potential to positively revolutionize interpersonal work relations and organizational life.” Law enforcement organizations, long engrained in the culture of top-down hierarchies of power and influence, have created less than healthy work environments. According to Smith et al. (2004), servant leadership, and its characteristics, could potentially produce a different type of organization due to the underlying motivation of the leader.

Servant leadership is gaining popularity as an effective leadership style for many different organizations. Bass and Bass (1974/2009) posited that a servant leader encourages the development of skills and morale in their followers. This assertion aligns itself closely with the research findings of Weisburd et al. (2008b), which revealed that many community-policing agencies have listed improvement of officer skills and morale as part of their overarching goals for adopting community policing philosophies. According to Bass and Bass (1974/200), the servant leader depends on awareness, empathy, and foresight instead of coercion and manipulation (p. 554). Under servant leadership, leaders nurture subordinates, help them to develop their intellect, independence, and their personal leadership abilities (Haberfeld, 2006). Servant

leadership brings many leadership attributes to the forefront, which may address and improve the organizational health of police organizations.

The focus of servant leadership on subordinate needs is in direct contrast to the elements found in CompStat, which focus on crime control and reduction. According to Laub (1999), servant leaders motivate their employees by displaying authenticity, valuing people, developing people, building community, providing leadership, and sharing leadership. Ledbetter (2003) posited that, “servant leadership seems to use the best leadership practices for law enforcement leaders” (p. 11). The goals and positive outcomes of servant leadership deserve further research to understand the impact of servant leadership on law enforcement organizations and the goals of addressing crime. While Ledbetter (2003) posited that servant leadership might be the answer to America’s leadership crisis in law enforcement, Bass and Bass (2009) posited that servant leadership might be more appropriate for those organizations in a stable environment.

Some of the key drivers of servant leadership were identified by Laub (1999) with his identification of the key characteristics of servant leadership. Smith et al. (2004) posited that “possible impacts of these drivers could be: higher skilled people, more ethical people, better communicators, strong interpersonal relationships, creation of shared visions, and clear goals (p. 86). Certainly, any organization, especially law enforcement, could benefit from these outcomes, which could only serve to increase the health of any organization.

Servant Leadership Characteristics

Laub (1999) set out to define servant leadership, identify the characteristics of servant leadership, and assess if the servant leadership characteristics could be assessed

through a written instrument. His research concluded that there were six characteristics of servant leadership: Values people, develops people, builds community, displays authenticity, provides leadership, and shares leadership.

Laub (1999) found that one characteristic of servant leaders is that they value people. In his research, Laub developed three key points in which leaders demonstrate the value of people: by believing in people, by putting others first, and by listening. By believing in people, servant leaders demonstrate respect for others, believe in the potential of each individual, accept people for who they are, trust others, are perceptive concerning the needs of others, enjoy people, and show appreciation of others (Laub, 1999). By putting others first, servant leaders put the needs of others ahead of their own and show love and compassion toward others (Laub, 1999). Through listening, servant leaders are receptive listeners.

Laub (1999) found that a second characteristic of servant leaders is that they develop people. Laub identified three key points in which leaders demonstrate that they develop people: by providing for learning and growth, by modeling, and by encouraging. By providing for learning and growth, servant leaders provide opportunities for people to develop their full potential, use their power and authority to benefit others, provide mentor relationships in order to help people grow professionally, view conflict as an opportunity to learn and grow, and create an environment that encourages learning (Laub, 1999, p. 49). Through modeling, servant leaders lead by example by modeling appropriate behavior, models a balance of life and work and encourages others to do so (Laub, 1999, p. 49). By encouraging, servant leaders build people up through encouragement and affirmation.

Laub (1999) found that a third characteristic of servant leaders is that they build community. Laub identified three key points in which leaders demonstrate that they build community: by enhancing relationships, by working collaboratively, and by valuing the differences of others. Laub (1999) stated, “by enhancing relationships, servant leaders relate well to others and they work to bring a healing to hurting relationships” (p. 49). By working collaboratively, servant leaders facilitate the building of community and teams and work with others instead of apart from them (Laub, 1999, p. 49). Through valuing the differences of others, servant leaders value the differences in people and allow for individuality of style and expression.

Laub (1999) found that a fourth characteristic of servant leaders is that they display authenticity. Laub identified three key points in which leaders demonstrate that they display authenticity: by being open to being known, by being learners, and by maintaining integrity. By being open to being known, servant leaders admit limitations and mistakes, are open to being known by others, promote open communication and sharing of information, and are accountable and responsible to others. Through being a learner, the servant leader is nonjudgmental and keeps an open mind, is open to learning from others, is flexible and willing to compromise, evaluates themselves before blaming others, and is open to receiving criticism and challenge from others. In order to maintain integrity, servant leaders are trustworthy, demonstrate high integrity and honesty, and maintain high ethical standards.

Laub (1999) found that a fifth characteristic of servant leaders is that they provide leadership. Laub identified three key points in which leaders demonstrate that they provide leadership: by envisioning the future, by taking initiative, and by clarifying goals.

By envisioning the future, the servant leader demonstrates a vision for the future, uses intuition and foresight to see the unforeseeable, and provides hope to others. By taking initiative, servant encourage risk taking, exhibit courage, has healthy self esteem, initiates action by moving out ahead, and is competent – has the knowledge to and skills to get things done (Laub, 1999, p. 51). By clarifying goals, servant leaders are clear on goals, are good at pointing the direction, and are able to turn negatives into positives.

Laub (1999) found that a sixth characteristic of servant leaders is that they share leadership. Laub identified two key points in which leaders demonstrate that they share leadership: by sharing power and by sharing status. By sharing power, servant leaders empower others by sharing power, are low in their control of others, and use persuasion to influence others instead of using coercion. By sharing status, servant leaders are humble and do not promote themselves, lead by personal influence rather than positional authority, do not demand or expect honor and awe for being the leaders, and do not seek special status or perks of leadership.

Historical Methodologies

A review of the scholarly literature revealed a number of methodologies that have been utilized in conducting research on law enforcement organizations. Research conducted by Weisburd et al. (2008a, 2008b) combined both quantitative and qualitative methodologies into one large-scale research study on CompStat. In their study, Weisburd et al., (2008a, 2008b) utilized survey research, interviews, observations, and analysis of archived data (i.e., documents, crime data, reports, etc.). Through these methods, the researchers were able to examine components of the CompStat paradigm at different CompStat agencies.

Not all research is as intensive as that conducted by Weisburd et al. (2008a). Steinheider and Wuestewald (2008), for example, utilized a case study in assessing shared leadership in a police agency. They administered a survey to police officers to obtain quantitative data on perceptions of work conditions, motivational factors, and commitment. In addition, their study used qualitative interviews and archival data to assess shared leadership within police organizations.

Brody, DeMarco, and Lovrich (2002) assessed police officers' job satisfaction of in Washington State. Their research used a survey instrument to assess police officer job satisfaction on relevant workplace dimensions. Similarly, Ledbetter (2003) conducted research on servant leadership in law enforcement organizations using the OLA as the survey instrument. In this study, the OLA was used to conduct quantitative research in assessing organizational health, determining if servant led leadership characteristics could emerge within a police department, and to determine the overall job satisfaction of police department personnel.

Summary

The literature review identified a number of policing models and strategies in use in American law enforcement. The two most prevalent policing strategies in use today are CompStat and community-oriented policing, which address crime and disorder and find top leadership using managerial strategies and concepts in different ways. The literature review revealed that community-oriented policing has a strong, positive impact on police officer job satisfaction that can enhance the organizational health of law enforcement organizations. CompStat, in contrast, has been criticized for its top-down management style, reinforcement of internal bureaucratic processes, leadership by fear, and its failure

to motivate officers, all of which can have a negative impact on the organizational health of law enforcement organizations.

Advocates have hailed the CompStat management paradigm, which has seen widespread adoption, as a revolutionary management method that reduces crime, increases police effectiveness, and addresses community disorder. The major components of CompStat include four principles: accurate and timely information, effective tactics, rapid deployment of personnel and resources, and relentless follow up and assessment. According to Weisburd et al. (2008), as a result of the implementation of the CompStat principles, six key elements emerge that include mission clarification, internal accountability, geographic organization of command, organizational flexibility, data driven problem identification and assessment, and innovative problem solving.

As American law enforcement officials seek to become more effective and responsive to crime, leaders have been identified as critical in shaping the future of law enforcement organizations. Ledbetter (2003) and Cortrite (2007) both argued that servant leadership would be a good fit for American law enforcement. Laub (1999) posited that there were six characteristics of servant leadership: values people, develops people, builds community, displays authenticity, provides leadership, and shares leadership. The presence, or absence, of these characteristics in law enforcement organizations can determine the organizational health of law enforcement organizations.

Servant leadership places the needs of the individual within the organization over the needs and successes of the organization (Smith et al., 2004; Stone et al., 2004). CompStat, in contrast, places the needs and successes of the organization over the needs of the individual (Weisburd et al., 2008b). The divergence of the characteristics of a

healthy organization and the elements of CompStat raise an interesting challenge within the law enforcement profession if American law enforcement strives to address crime and disorder while also enhancing organizational health. The review of existing scholarly literature on CompStat and servant leadership revealed a lack of research to determine if CompStat organizations could foster servant-led leadership characteristics, which can contribute to a healthy organization. This research study has filled a gap in the knowledge concerning the compatibility of the elements of CompStat and the characteristics of a healthy organization.

Chapter 3: Methodology

A gap emerged in the literature relating to the compatibility of the elements of CompStat and the characteristics of a healthy organization. Using servant leadership characteristics, the goal of this research was to determine what effect the CompStat management style had on the organizational health of police organizations. Chapter 3 presents the research design, research questions, research population, instrumentation, data collection procedures, data analysis, and ethical considerations.

Research Design

This research study was a quantitative study. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005), “quantitative research is used to answer questions about relationships among measured variables with the purpose of explaining, predicting, and controlling phenomena” (p. 94). The research was a correlation research study, which was “a statistical investigation of the relationship between two or more variables” (p. 108). In correlation research, examinations of surface relationships take place; however, examinations for causal reasons are generally not undertaken (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Leedy and Ormrod (2005) cautioned “we can never infer a cause-and-effect relationship on the basis of correlation alone. Simply put, *correlation does not, in and of itself, indicate causation*” (p. 182). In this study, only surface relationships were examined, and there were no inferences made to indicate causation.

To gather the data needed for this research study, I used a survey instrument known as the Organization Leadership Assessment (OLA). According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005), “survey research involves acquiring information about one or more groups of people – perhaps about their characteristics, opinions, attitudes, or previous

experiences – by asking them questions and tabulating their answers” (p. 183). In the study, the OLA was web based, allowing participants to access and complete the OLA survey via the Internet. According to McNabb (2008), the use of an Internet-based survey allows for more efficient, faster, and easier access to participants.

The study design was the most effective research method to explore the relationship between the elements of the CompStat management paradigm and the characteristics of a healthy organization, based on servant-led leadership characteristics. The study first examined the organizational health of police departments. Then, an in depth analysis of the OLA sub scores determined if any of the servant-led leadership characteristics could emerge within a CompStat organization. Lastly, an analysis of the results of the OLA determined the job satisfaction ratings for the CompStat departments.

Research Questions

This study has expanded the knowledge on leadership in law enforcement organizations by examining how the CompStat management paradigm affects the organizational health of police organizations. The research questions that guided this study were:

1. How does the CompStat management model affect the organizational health of police departments?
2. Can individual servant leadership characteristics emerge within police departments that utilize the CompStat management model?
3. How does the CompStat management model affect the overall job satisfaction rating in police departments?

Research Population

For this research, a population was required. A population is a “set of all elements for which measurement is possible” (McNabb, 2008, p. 118). According to Reaves (2007), the United States has 17,876 state and local law enforcement agencies. In 2004, local police departments accounted for 61% of America’s law enforcement officers (Reaves, 2007, p. 1). With this information, I conducted research on police organizations, which represented the largest employer of law enforcement officers in the nation. The population under investigation was police personnel, including non-sworn personnel, line level officers, supervisors, managers, and executives, employed in police agencies that had implemented and were utilizing the CompStat management model. According to Weisburd et al. (2008), data on the total number of agencies utilizing the CompStat management model was unavailable because there had been no national research conducted to determine exactly how many agencies were utilizing the CompStat model.

This study used a sample of police departments. A sample is only a portion of the entire population, but represents the entire population (McNabb, 2008). Only six police departments were used in this research study. According to McNabb (2008), the results of studies that use a sample might only be generalized to the larger population of police organizations.

The population sample for this research consisted of police agencies within the state of Georgia. In the state of Georgia, there were 1,269 law enforcement agencies (Georgia Peace, 2010). This number included all sheriff’s offices, detention centers, municipal police, campus police, E911 centers, and probation agencies. This represented approximately 7.09% of the nation’s law enforcement organizations.

At the local government level, Georgia has two primary law enforcement organizations: county and city. Sheriff's offices provide countywide law enforcement to each of Georgia's 159 counties (Ga. Const). Georgia has 159 counties in the state, equaling 159 sheriff's offices. In some counties, an additional level of primary law enforcement may be provided through a county police department, which provides police services in addition to the services of the sheriff's office (Ga. Const). County police agencies may be created through county governing commissions, but only after voters, through elections, authorize the creation of a countywide police department (Ga. Const). In all cases, the local governing authority appoints the chief of police.

Within these counties, municipal agencies (cities) may also provide primary police services to incorporated areas of counties (Ga. Const). In Georgia, municipal (city) boundaries may cross county lines, and local governing bodies (i.e., City Council), boards (i.e., Board of Regents), or authorities (i.e., housing authority, port authority) vest the police with powers of arrest. In municipal police departments, either the city manager/administrator or the local council appoints the chief of police. At the time of this study, there were 330 police departments in the state of Georgia (USACOPS, n.d.). This number revealed that police departments represent a majority (67%) of primary law enforcement organizations in the state of Georgia.

This study used a nonprobability sampling technique called purposive sampling for locating police departments in which to administer the OLA. Purposive sampling is a method of sampling with a purpose in mind, usually with one or more specific predefined groups (Trochim, 2006). This study examined the organizational health of those police departments that utilized CompStat and community-oriented policing.

The design of the study limited department selection to those departments located within the state of Georgia. Using police departments located in the state of Georgia increased the homogeneity of the sample population, which included similar governmental structures, state laws, geographical region (Georgia), opportunities for voluntary CALEA and state certification, and a common platform for police standards through the Georgia Peace Officer Standards and Training Council (POST). Through the selection of county and municipal police departments, the selection and appointment of the chief of police, representing the department's leadership, was a common factor among all selected departments. This selection process removed all sheriff's offices, which had an elected official as the chief executive, from the study, thereby further increasing homogeneity of the participating departments.

Police department size was a factor in the study. According to Reaves (2007), 57.9 % of all state and local law enforcement agencies have between 25 and 999 personnel. Departments with 24 or fewer personnel accounted for less than 14% of all personnel employed in state and local law enforcement agencies (Reaves, 2007). Departments selected for this study had no fewer than 25 and no more than 999 personnel, which further increased homogeneity for the research population.

Instrumentation

The study utilized the survey instrument known as the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA). According to McNabb (2008), the survey questionnaire is an appropriate approach for gathering information and data on a sample of the population. According to Ledbetter (2003), "the OLA is a tool for research specifically designed to measure the health of the organization and the servant leadership characteristics" (p. 63).

The OLA utilized a Likert rating scale to allow study participants to respond to the OLA questions. The rating scale for the OLA was structured using a Likert rating scale: 1 = strongly agree; 2 = disagree; 3 = undecided; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree. Consisting of 66 questions, the OLA measured the overall health of police departments, perceptions of servant-led leadership characteristics, and job satisfaction ratings of employees.

In selecting a survey instrument, I examined the validity of the OLA. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005), “the validity of a measurement instrument is the extent to which the measurement measures what it is supposed to measure” (p. 28). To determine the validity of the OLA, Laub (1999) utilized 14 experts in the field of servant leadership to formulate a list of characteristics of servant leadership. According to Laub (2003),

A thorough review of the literature was also provided to them [panel experts] in the process. All characteristics that were rated from “Necessary” to “Essential” in the final survey were used in the construction of the OLA instrument. A significant ($p < .05$) decrease was found in the inter quartile range between round two and round three of the Delphi process, indicating a move toward consensus.

This research process provided strong construct validity for the instrument. (p. 4)

Laub (1999) found strong construct validity for the OLA using the Delphi process. Using the Delphi process to gain consensus for servant-led leadership characteristics, 60 items were finally selected for the OLA testing instrument (Laub, 1999).

In addition to the validity of the OLA, I examined the reliability of the OLA. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005), “reliability is the consistency with which a measuring instrument yields a certain result when the entity being measured hasn’t

changed” (p. 29). Laub’s (1999) research in developing the OLA indicated a high reliability score for the OLA at .98 using the Cronbach Alpha coefficient. In subsequent research for reliability, the OLA has produced Cronbach Alpha coefficient scores of .9870 (Horsman, 2001) and .9814 (Ledbetter, 2003). According to McNabb (2008), these scores, which fall between .80 and .99, indicated a very strong relationship among correlation values.

Table 1

OLA Reliability Scores

	Laub (1999) n=828	Horsman (2003) N=540	Ledbetter (2003) n=138
Entire OLA instrument	.9802	.9870	.9814
Values People	.91	.92	.89
Develops People	.90	.94	.88
Builds Community	.90	.91	.89
Displays Authenticity	.93	.95	.90
Provides Leadership	.91	.92	.91
Shares Leadership	.93	.95	.88

Data Collection

To identify the agencies to participate in this research, I utilized an email distribution list utilized by the Georgia Association of Chiefs of Police. This email list contained contacts for police departments in the state of Georgia. I contacted police departments to determine participation interest. During the initial contact, I determined if the agencies that were interested in participating in this research study were a CompStat or community-oriented policing department.

Departments that that did not identify as CompStat or community-oriented police departments were not selected to participate in the research study. Only those departments with personnel numbers between 25 and 999 were selected to participate in the study. Departments with less than 25, or more than 999, were not selected to participate. Six police departments, which was the design study, participated in this research study. Three of the departments were CompStat departments, while three of the departments were community-oriented (non-CompStat) departments that self reported as utilizing the community-policing model.

The data collection process took place in conjunction with Dr. Jim Laub, creator of the OLA Instrument and founder of the OLA Group. Prior to any data collection processes with Dr. Laub, he signed the appropriate confidentiality form. Dr. Laub assisted me by setting up individual OLA accounts for each participating police department. Specific organizational codes and PIN numbers were assigned to each department. Once Dr. Laub created the accounts for each department, he sent the organizational account information to me.

The OLA was administered via the Internet. Utilization of a third party server facilitated the administration of the OLA as well as the electronic data collection and storage of OLA responses. After the data collection was completed, Dr. Laub provided me with the raw data for analysis. Data encryption and password protection procedures have been put into place to protect the data, which will be kept for a period of 5 years.

Data Analysis

The study utilized a correlation analysis known as the point biserial correlation coefficient to analyze the data in this study. The point biserial correlation was the best statistic for measuring the effect of the CompStat management model on the organizational health of law enforcement organizations. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005), it was appropriate to use point biserial correlation when one variable was continuous, and the other variable involved discrete, dichotomous, and perhaps nominal data.

The point biserial correlation coefficient [r_{pb}]. . . pertains to the case where one variable is dichotomous and the other is non-dichotomous. By convention, the dichotomous variable is treated as the X variable, its two possible values being coded as X=0 and X=1; and the non-dichotomous variable is treated as the Y variable. (Lowry, 2010a, para. 1)

In the study, the X=0 variable represented non-CompStat (community-policing) organizations, while X=1 represented CompStat organizations. In the study, the dependent variable (organizational health) was ordinal, non-dichotomous data, while the independent variable (CompStat) was nominal, dichotomous data. Using the VassarStats point biserial calculator, calculations were made using the raw data from the OLA. VassarStats' point biserial calculator produced calculations for the values of X=0, X=1, and Y (Lowry, 2010b). According to Lowry (2010b), the Vassarstats point biserial calculator would provide the point biserial correlation, df , and both one and two tailed t -tests. For this study, a two-tailed t test was performed on all calculations. According to

Trochim (2006), “the *t*-test assesses whether the means of two groups are *statistically* different from each other. This analysis is appropriate whenever you want to compare the means of two groups” (Trochim, 2006). The appropriate calculations were made using the Vassarstats calculator using a 95% confidence level.

The first analysis using the point biserial correlation coefficient examined the overall organizational health of participating police departments. The second analysis using the point biserial correlation coefficient examined the individual sub scores of the OLA, which included the characteristics of values people, develops people, builds community, displays authenticity, provides leadership, and shares leadership. The third analysis examined the overall job satisfaction for employees in each police department. Each analysis correlated the scores between CompStat and non-CompStat departments. To determine levels of significance, a two-tailed *t* test calculation was conducted on all calculations.

For the first analysis, the overall OLA score indicated each department’s level of organizational health. According to Laub (2003), “the overall OLA score is recommended for research purposes” (p. 4). For the first analysis, the overall OLA score was the best measurement for examining the organizational health for each police department. Using the point biserial correlation coefficient, the OLA calculations for CompStat and non-CompStat organizations examined possible correlations. This determined if the CompStat management model had any effect on the overall organizational health. To determine the level of significance for this calculation, a two tailed *t* test was conducted.

For the second analysis, an analysis of the sub scores of the OLA for each department was conducted. In this second analysis, using the point biserial correlation coefficient, an analysis of the individual sub scores of the OLA, which included the characteristics of values people, develops people, builds community, displays authenticity, provides leadership, and shares leadership, took place. Using the point biserial correlation coefficient, analysis of the OLA sub scores for CompStat and non-CompStat departments determined if any of the individual characteristics of servant leadership could emerge within CompStat departments. To determine the levels of significance for these calculations, a two tailed t test was conducted for each characteristic.

For the third analysis, an analysis of the overall score for job satisfaction for each police department took place. In this third analysis, the analysis of the individual scores of the OLA, representing overall job satisfaction for each department, took place using the point biserial correlation coefficient. Using the point biserial correlation coefficient, an examination of the OLA scores for CompStat and non-CompStat departments determined possible correlations. To determine the level of significance for this calculation, a two tailed t test was conducted.

Ethical Considerations

In the study, human subjects over the age of 18 years of age employed in police departments were the focus as they were directly related to the organizational health of police departments. As human subjects were the focus, addressing the ethical implications of this research study were critical. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005), “most ethical issues in research fall into one of four categories: protection from harm,

informed consent, right to privacy, and honesty with professional colleagues” (p. 101). I took all necessary precautions and steps to identify, address, and comply with all of the ethical considerations for this study.

Protection from Harm

In conducting research, participants must not be exposed to undue physical or psychological harm (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). In defining harm, McNabb (2008) provides a broad definition of harm, which could include “physical, cultural, social, or psychological distress as well as physical pain” (p. 28). In this study, employees of police departments voluntarily took the OLA survey. The voluntary participants taking the survey were not exposed or subjected to any harmful acts or events during this research.

Informed Consent

Informed consent must be provided to all study participants. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005), “research participants should be told of the nature of the study to be conducted and given the choice of either participating or not participating” (p. 101). McNabb (2008) further identified three areas of informed consent, which include the capacity of the person, free and voluntary consent, and knowledgeable consent.

Researchers must ensure that persons giving consent must have the capacity to understand the study and its associated risks; however, it is not permissible for researchers to decide whether the subjects are competent to make their own decisions (McNabb, 2008). According to McNabb (2008), there are two concepts that make up voluntary consent, which include freedom from coercion and the understanding that the consent can be withdrawn at any time without harmful consequences. Knowledgeable consent involves four areas. According to McNabb (2008), knowledgeable consent

“means that they must be told (1) they have the right not to participate, (2) they can withdraw at any time, (3) what risks might be involved, and (4) the potential benefits of the study, if any” (p. 28). The study incorporated all of the essential elements and requirements of informed consent.

In this study, an email invitation allowed voluntarily participants to take the OLA via the Internet. The email invitation contained, and informed, participants of informed consent information. In the study, the Walden Institutional Review Board (IRB) approved the use of an “implied informed consent.” According to the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (2008), 45 CFR 46.116(c) provides that an IRB may waive certain elements of informed consent. Participants were provided with implied informed consent as required as provided in 45 CFR 46.116. As this study used implied informed consent, no waivers or signed consent forms were obtained.

Right to Privacy

Research participants have a right to privacy. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005), “under no circumstances should a research report, either oral or written, be presented in a way that others become aware of how a particular participant has responded or behaved” (p. 102). In the study, participating department participation was confidential, while participating employee responses were anonymous.

Participating departments were assigned an alphanumeric code (i.e., Agency A, Agency B, etc.) to ensure confidentiality. Department names were omitted in the final research study. To protect the department’s identity even further, this study will not reveal the total number of departmental employees, which could result in identification of the participating police department. Individual employees within each organization had

complete anonymity in completing the OLA. The OLA only collected data on the individual's position within the organization (i.e., top leadership, management, supervisor, and workforce). The collection of other identifying and demographic data was not central to this study.

Once the OLA for each department was completed, I provided the chief executive with a full, complete copy of the department's OLA report. The final OLA report to each chief executive did utilize the department's name; however, this study will not name or otherwise identify any participating department. Once this study has been approved and accepted by Walden University, a copy of the dissertation will be sent to each participating department's chief of police.

Honesty with Professional Colleagues

To report the findings of the study, honest reporting of the results must take place. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005), "researchers must report their findings in a complete and honest fashion, without misrepresenting what they have done or intentionally misleading others about the nature of their findings" (p. 102). I conducted the research using the highest ethical standards and has reported the results in a complete and honest fashion.

Institutional Review Board

To ensure ethical standards were met, the IRB served as a critical step in the proposal process. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005) "in the United States, any college university, or research institution will have an internal review board (IRB) that scrutinizes all proposals for conducting human research under the auspices of the institution" (p. 102). In compliance with the requirements of the IRB of Walden

University, complied with all rules of the IRB and submitted the required IRB application prior to seeking participation of voluntary participants. The Walden IRB approved the submitted IRB application. The Walden University IRB approval number for this research study was 10-15-10-0338212, which expires on October 14, 2011. Once the IRB approved the proposal, individual participants were contacted to participate in the study.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this quantitative study was to use servant leadership characteristics to examine the effect of the CompStat management style (independent variable) on the organizational health (dependent variable) of police organizations. The research questions that guided this study were:

1. How does the CompStat management model affect the organizational health of police departments?
2. Can individual servant leadership characteristics emerge within police departments that utilize the CompStat management model?
3. How does the CompStat management model affect the overall job satisfaction rating in police departments?

This chapter reports on the findings of the study using the OLA. The purpose of this chapter is to present and explain the data analysis for each of the research questions that guided this study. Interpretations and implications of the results of this study will be discussed in chapter 5.

Adjustments or Instrument Revisions

The OLA survey was administered according to the processes outlined by Dr. Jim Laub, creator of the OLA survey instrument. Upon accessing the online survey at the designated uniform resource locator (URL), participants entered the assigned organizational code and PIN, and then proceeded to the survey questions. There was no time limit for the completion of the OLA survey. The survey did not request any demographic data (i.e., age, race, sex) because these data were not central to the study. I made no revisions or adjustments to the OLA survey.

Description of the Sample

In total, six police departments of various sizes (25 – 999 personnel) in Georgia agreed to participate in this study. The study was designed to collect anonymous data from participants in participating police departments. I took all necessary steps to ensure the confidentiality of the participating police departments and the anonymity of the participants.

To protect the confidentiality of the participating departments, an alphanumeric code was assigned to each department so that no identifiable demographic data could be provided in chapter 4 and chapter 5. Due to the specific geographic region in which this study was conducted, departmental size (i.e., personnel numbers) was not revealed in the reporting of the research data. Removing departmental size in the data reporting served to protect the confidentiality of the departments that agreed to participate in this study.

Each participating department had demographic data that are presented for consideration in understanding the departments that participated in the study. These data, as presented, do not reveal the identity of the participating departments, but provide deeper insight into the department and its operations, philosophy, and its employees. These data include the self reported departmental type (i.e., CompStat, community oriented), CALEA certification status, state certification status, and the median education level of the entire department.

Using purposive sampling, each department was selected based on the departmental self-reporting as being a CompStat or community-policing department. In this study, three of the police departments self-reported as CompStat, while three of the departments self-reported as non-CompStat (community policing) departments. The

selected departments employed between 25 to 999 personnel, which included both sworn and non-sworn personnel.

In the State of Georgia, participating police departments have two options for professional status attainment. Professional status attainment, through the voluntary participation in an accreditation or certification program, was available to all participating police departments. In the State of Georgia, all police departments can elect to become a certified department through the Georgia Association of Chiefs of Police (GACP).

The Agency Certification Program of the GACP has identified standards that are felt to be essential to the efficient and effective operation of law enforcement agencies. Participating agencies are expected to implement all applicable standards. Some standards do not apply to all agencies, and waivers may be obtained in exceptional circumstances. The standards provide a detailed blueprint for professional enforcement. They are credible, realistic, flexible and effective.

(Georgia Association of Chiefs of Police, 2010, para. 9)

The certification program in Georgia is open only to law enforcement organizations within the state, and is voluntary in nature. In this study, three of the departments were state certified, while three were not (See Table 2).

Departments in Georgia also could voluntarily submit to national accreditation through CALEA.

The CALEA Accreditation Process is a proven management model; once implemented, it presents the Chief Executive Officer (CEO), on a continuing basis, with a blueprint that promotes the efficient use of resources and improves

service delivery – regardless of size, geographic location, or functional responsibilities of the agency. (Standards for Law, 2009, p. xv)

The CALEA accreditation program is open to law enforcement organizations worldwide and is voluntary in nature. In this study, only two of the departments were CALEA accredited police departments, while four were not (See Table 2). Both of the nationally accredited departments were also certified at the state level.

In assessing education levels of participating departments, the median education levels were obtained from each department's point of contact. Individual participants were not asked to reveal their individual education status during the OLA survey. See Table 2 for each department's median education level.

Table 2

Departmental Demographics

Department	Type of Department	CALEA	State Certification	Median Education Level
A	CompStat	Accredited	Certified	Associate's Degree
B	CompStat	Not accredited	Not certified	Associate's Degree
C	CompStat	Not accredited	Certified	Associate's Degree
D	Community policing	Not accredited	Not certified	Associate's Degree
E	Community policing	Accredited	Certified	Associate's Degree
F	Community policing	Not accredited	Not certified	Associate's Degree

Data Collection

Upon receiving approval from Walden University to conduct research, the process for recruiting participants began. Participant recruitment was not random or selective in this study. All employees from each of the participating police departments were sent an invitation to participate, which included an implied informed consent notice. The chief of police, for each participating department, assigned one point of contact to work with me in recruiting participants. This point of contact served to facilitate the dissemination of the invitations and implied informed consent to all departmental personnel via email and a paper flier.

This research study had two methods for the first, initial contact with individual participants. The first method was an email invitation to participate (See Appendix C). The point of contact for each department was provided an email version of the invitation, which included research participant information and informed implied consent language. The second method was a paper flier (See Appendix D), which was also sent out to each department's point of contact. A flier was created to provide a hardcopy version of the invitation, along with research participant and informed implied consent language, to participants that did not have access to email due to email problems, special assignments, and so on. The invitations had a unique organizational code and PIN for each department.

During the initial access to the survey, the survey was accessible for a period of 10 days. A total of 1,404 participants were invited to complete the OLA. During this 10-day time period, 361 participants completed the survey. This represented a 25.71% completion rate for the OLA survey across all departments. A larger sample was desired

for this study, which necessitated a secondary “reminder” invitation to participate in this study.

The secondary “reminder” invitation to participate in this research study had two methods for recruiting individual participants. The first method was an email reminder and invitation to participate (See Appendix E). The point of contact for each department was provided an email version of the invitation, which included research participant information and informed implied consent language. The second method was a paper flier (See Appendix F), which was also sent out to each department’s point of contact. A flier was created to provide a hardcopy version of the invitation, along with research participant and informed implied consent language, to participants that did not have access to email open due to email problems, special assignments, and so on. The invitations had a unique organizational code and PIN for each department.

During the extended, secondary access to the survey, the survey was accessible for an additional 10 days. The extension of the OLA survey to the departments generated an additional 105 responses across all participating departments. This represented a 33.19% completion rate for the OLA survey across all departments at the end of the second 10-day survey period.

At the macro level of the sample population, 1,404 participants were invited to participate in this research study by completing the online OLA survey. At the sub group level, 1,206 participants from CompStat departments were invited to participate. The total number of actual CompStat respondents to the OLA survey totaled 338. This represented a completion rate of 28.02% for CompStat departments. At the sub group level, 198 participants from community policing departments were invited to participate. For the

community policing departments (non-CompStat) population, the total number of actual respondents to the OLA survey totaled 128. This represented a completion rate of 64.64% for community policing departments. The total number of respondents for both CompStat and community policing to the OLA survey totaled 466, which represented a 33.19% completion rate for the OLA survey across all departments. At the macro level, and both sub groups, the critical mass sample size was achieved.

Analysis of Data

This section is organized based on the three research questions that guided this study, which included:

1. How does the CompStat management model affect the organizational health of police departments?
2. Can individual servant leadership characteristics emerge within police departments that utilize the CompStat management model?
3. How does the CompStat management model affect the overall job satisfaction rating in police departments?

Using these research questions, the data were analyzed using point biserial correlation. After the point biserial calculation was determined, a two-tailed *t*-test was conducted on each calculation to determine the level of significance.

Research Question 1

The first research question sought to determine the overall organizational health of police departments that utilize the CompStat management model. The first research question was: How does the CompStat management model affect the organizational health of police departments?

To determine the organizational health of each department, the individual OLA responses, for 60 questions, were averaged to calculate the raw score. Questions 56, 58, 60, 62, 64, 66 were not calculated as they represent job satisfaction ratings only. The rating scale utilized a Likert rating scale: 1 = strongly agree; 2 = disagree; 3 = undecided; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree. Table 3 indicates the OLA raw score, representing the overall organizational health, for each department.

Table 3

Department OLA Results

Department	Type	OLA Raw Score
A	CompStat	3.615
B	CompStat	3.451
C	CompStat	3.266
D	Community policing	4.111
E	Community policing	3.228
F	Community policing	3.370

Using point biserial correlation calculation, the overall raw organizational health scores of CompStat departments and community policing departments were analyzed (See Appendix G). Calculations were made to determine the point biserial calculation coefficient between CompStat and community policing departments. The point biserial coefficient was calculated: $r_{pb} = -0.21$. The two-tailed t test was conducted: $t = 0.689348$.

By conventional criteria, the difference of the organizational health between CompStat and community policing departments is not considered statistically significant.

Research Question 2

The second research question sought to determine if individual servant leadership characteristics could emerge within a CompStat organization. The second research question was: Can individual servant leadership characteristics emerge within police departments that utilize the CompStat management model?

To determine if individual servant leadership characteristics could emerge within departments, the sub scores for each servant leadership characteristic were analyzed. These individual servant leadership characteristics included values people, develops people, builds community, displays authenticity, provides leadership, and shares leadership. Table 4 provides the scores for the servant leadership characteristics.

Table 4

Individual Servant Leadership Sub Scores

Department	Values People	Develops People	Builds Community	Displays Authenticity	Provides Leadership	Shares Leadership
A	3.681	3.472	3.667	3.524	3.675	3.403
B	3.493	3.470	3.576	3.489	3.614	3.312
C	3.318	3.130	3.382	3.147	3.264	3.119
D	4.125	4.131	4.176	4.226	4.247	4.071
E	3.386	3.021	3.464	3.272	3.330	3.135
F	3.632	3.141	3.628	3.419	3.467	3.255

The first servant leadership characteristic analyzed was that of values people. Calculations (See Appendix H) were made to determine the point biserial calculation coefficient between CompStat and community policing departments. The point biserial coefficient was calculated: $r_{pb} = -0.41$. A two-tailed t test was conducted: $t = 0.419006$. By conventional criteria, the difference of the sub score for values people between CompStat and community policing departments is not considered statistically significant.

The second servant leadership characteristic analyzed was that of develops people. Calculations (See Appendix I) were made to determine the point biserial calculation coefficient between CompStat and community policing departments. The point biserial coefficient was calculated: $r_{pb} = -0.1$. A two-tailed t test was conducted: $t = 0.851237$. By conventional criteria, the difference of the sub score for develops people between CompStat and community policing departments is not considered statistically significant.

The third servant leadership characteristic analyzed was that of builds community. Calculations (See Appendix J) were made to determine the point biserial calculation coefficient between CompStat and community policing departments. The point biserial coefficient was calculated: $r_{pb} = -0.42$. A two-tailed t test was conducted: $t = 0.405015$. By conventional criteria, the difference of the sub score for builds community between CompStat and community policing departments is not considered statistically significant.

The fourth servant leadership characteristic analyzed was that of displays authenticity. Calculations (See Appendix K) were made to determine the point biserial calculation coefficient between CompStat and community policing departments. The point biserial coefficient was calculated: $r_{pb} = -0.37$. A two-tailed t test was conducted: t

= 0.473725. By conventional criteria, the difference of the sub score for displays authenticity between CompStat and community policing departments is not considered statistically significant.

The fifth servant leadership characteristic that was analyzed was that of provides leadership. Calculations (See Appendix L) were made to determine the point biserial calculation coefficient between CompStat and community policing departments. The point biserial coefficient was calculated: $r_{pb} = -0.25$. A two-tailed t test was conducted: $t = 0.630516$. By conventional criteria, the difference of the sub score for provides leadership between CompStat and community policing departments is not considered statistically significant.

The sixth, and last, servant leadership characteristic that was analyzed was that of shares leadership. Calculations (See Appendix M) were made to determine the point biserial calculation coefficient between CompStat and community policing departments. The point biserial coefficient was calculated: $r_{pb} = -0.32$. A two-tailed t test was conducted: $t = 0.533824$. By conventional criteria, the difference of the sub score for shares leadership between CompStat and community policing departments is not considered statistically significant.

Research Question 3

The third research question sought to determine the overall job satisfaction rating in CompStat police departments. The third research question was: How does the CompStat management model affect the overall job satisfaction rating in police departments?

The OLA had six specific questions representing job satisfaction. These questions were numbered 56, 58, 60, 62, 64, and 66. The rating scale for these questions, as was for the entire OLA, utilized a Likert rating scale: 1 = strongly agree; 2 = disagree; 3 = undecided; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree. The job satisfaction rating scale utilized the rating of 5 to represent the highest level of job satisfaction. According to Laub (2000), there is a positive, strong correlation that the higher the OLA score, the higher the level of job satisfaction. Table 5 indicates the raw scores for job satisfaction for each of the individual departments.

Table 5

Job Satisfaction Scores

Department	Type	Job Satisfaction Raw Score
A	CompStat	4.115
B	CompStat	4.046
C	CompStat	3.942
D	Community policing	4.380
E	Community policing	3.720
F	Community policing	4.076

Using point biserial correlation, the overall raw job satisfaction scores of CompStat departments and community policing departments were analyzed. Calculations (See Appendix N) were made to determine the point biserial calculation coefficient between CompStat and community policing departments. The point biserial coefficient

was calculated: $r_{pb} = -0.06$. A two-tailed t test was conducted: $t = 0.910269$. The job satisfaction ratings between CompStat and community policing departments is not considered statistically significant.

Summary

The responses to the OLA survey, for CompStat and non-CompStat (community policing) departments, were utilized to determine the organizational health, presence of servant leadership characteristics, and overall job satisfaction. Based on the analysis of the OLA results, no statistical significance was found between CompStat and non-CompStat departments for overall organizational health, servant leadership characteristics, or job satisfaction.

Chapter 5 of this study focuses on the interpretation of the results that were found in chapter 4. Beginning with an explanation into why the assessment was conducted, chapter 5 presents the interpretations of the findings from each of the research questions, the implications for social change, recommendations for action, and recommendations for further study.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The purpose of this quantitative study was to use servant leadership characteristics to examine the effect of the CompStat management style (independent variable) on the organizational health (dependent variable) of police organizations. The research questions that guided this study were:

1. How does the CompStat management model affect the organizational health of police departments?
2. Can individual servant leadership characteristics emerge within police departments that utilize the CompStat management model?
3. How does the CompStat management model affect the overall job satisfaction rating in police departments?

The responses to the OLA survey, for CompStat and non-CompStat (community policing) departments, were utilized to determine the organizational health, presence of servant leadership characteristics, and overall job satisfaction. Based on the analysis of the OLA results, no statistical significance was found between CompStat and non-CompStat departments for overall organizational health, servant leadership characteristics, or job satisfaction. This chapter interprets the finding of the calculations from Chapter 4. The purpose of this chapter is to present, interpret, and explain the data analysis for each of the research questions that guided this study. This chapter will interpret the findings, discuss implications for social change, provide recommendations for action, and make recommendations for further action.

Interpretation of Findings

Based on the analysis of the data from chapter 4, this section focuses on the interpretation of the results. The interpretations of this research are organized based on the individual research questions that guided this study. The findings made in this study add new knowledge and insight into the CompStat management model and shed new light on understanding the organizational health and job satisfaction ratings of police departments.

Research Question 1

The first research question sought to determine the overall organizational health of police departments that utilize the CompStat management model. The first research question was: How does the CompStat management model affect the organizational health of police departments?

The literature review revealed that community-oriented policing had a strong, positive impact on police officer job satisfaction that could enhance the organizational health of law enforcement organizations. CompStat, in contrast, had been criticized for its top-down management style, reinforcement of internal bureaucratic processes, leadership by fear, and its failure to motivate officers, all of which could have a negative impact on the organizational health of law enforcement organizations.

Research conducted by Weisburd et al. (2008b) indicated that agencies implementing CompStat had the primary goal of reducing serious crime, while improving officer morale was not a top priority. In the same research, the agencies implementing CompStat gave a much lower priority on improving the skills and morale of the police

officers, which had been a higher priority for agencies implementing community policing.

After each department had completed the OLA survey, the raw data was analyzed to determine the organizational health score. The overall OLA score, for each department, can be matched up with a specific organizational health level and an organizational category (See Appendix O). Table 6 provides the level, organizational category, and the OLA score ranges utilized in understanding the organizational health of each department.

Table 6

Laub's Organizational Categories and OLA Score Ranges

Level	Organizational Category	OLA Score Range
Optimal Health – Org ⁶	Servant (Optimal Health)	4.5 – 5.0
Excellent Health – Org ⁵	Servant (Excellent Health)	4.0 – 4.49
Moderate Health – Org ⁴	Positive Paternalistic (Moderate Health)	3.5 – 3.99
Limited Health – Org ³	Negative Paternalistic (Limited Health)	3.0 – 3.49
Poor Health – Org ²	Autocratic (Poor Health)	2.0 – 2.99
Toxic Health – Org ¹	Autocratic (Toxic Health)	1.0 – 1.99

Table 6 illustrates the OLA levels, organizational categories, and score range, which were utilized to properly classify each participating department. At the macro level, one police department was determined to be in excellent health, which indicated that one department displayed servant leadership characteristics. One department was

determined to have moderate health. Four of the six departments were determined to have limited health. Table 7 illustrates the individual organizational health level for each department.

Table 7

Department OLA Results

Department	Type	OLA Score	Level
A	CompStat	3.615	Moderate Health – Org ⁴
B	CompStat	3.451	Limited Health – Org ³
C	CompStat	3.266	Limited Health – Org ³
D	Community policing	4.111	Excellent Health – Org ⁵
E	Community policing	3.228	Limited Health – Org ³
F	Community policing	3.370	Limited Health – Org ³

The OLA data analysis revealed that there was no statistical significance in the organizational health of CompStat departments and community policing departments. The findings of this study, using servant leadership characteristics, reveal that the CompStat management model had neither a positive nor a negative effect on the organizational health of police departments as compared to those departments that utilized community policing.

From the literature review, one could have reasonably concluded that there would have been a significant difference in the organizational health between the two types of departments. Based on the review of the relevant literature, a reasonable conclusion could

have been drawn that CompStat departments would have had been identified as organizations with toxic (Org¹) health, while community policing departments would have had higher levels of organizational health (Org⁵ and Org⁶). However, the study did not find any statistical differences between the two types of departments regarding organizational health.

The findings regarding organizational health are significant for several different reasons. First, the organizational health findings revealed that a limited organizational health emerges most often within both types of organizations. Second, both types of organizations can break the threshold of having limited health, which is indicated by one CompStat department attaining moderate health and one community-policing department actually achieving excellent health (servant leadership). Third, as the one department achieved excellent health, it offers the possibility that the overall organizational health of each type of department has the potential to be improved.

Research Question 2

The second research question sought to determine if individual servant leadership characteristics could emerge within a CompStat organization. The second research question was: Can individual servant leadership characteristics emerge within police departments that utilize the CompStat management model?

After each department had completed the OLA survey, the raw data was analyzed based on the sub scores of the servant leadership characteristics. These individual servant leadership characteristics included value people, develop people, build community, display authenticity, provide leadership, and share leadership (See Appendix O). Table 8

illustrates the servant leadership characteristics ranked from highest to lowest for each department.

Table 8

Servant Leadership Characteristic Ranking

Rank	Agency A	Agency B	Agency C	Agency D	Agency E	Agency F
1	Build Community	Build Community	Build Community	Provide Leadership	Build Community	Build Community
2	Provide Leadership	Provide Leadership	Value People	Build Community	Value People	Value People
3	Value People	Display Authenticity	Provide Leadership	Display Authenticity	Provide Leadership	Provide Leadership
4	Display Authenticity	Value People	Display Authenticity	Value People	Display Authenticity	Display Authenticity
5	Develop People	Develop People	Develop People	Develop People	Share Leadership	Develop People
6	Share Leadership	Share Leadership	Share Leadership	Share Leadership	Develop People	Share Leadership

The OLA data analysis revealed that there was no statistical significance in the servant leadership characteristics of CompStat departments and community policing departments. As Table 8 illustrates, the servant leadership characteristic ranking between the two types of departments are very similar, especially the highest and lowest characteristics. This is significant because it reveals that both policing strategies have similar rankings for servant leadership characteristics, thereby further revealing the similarities between the two types of departments.

From the literature review, reasonable conclusions could have inferred that no servant leadership characteristics could have emerged within a CompStat department. The study did not find any statistical differences between the two types of departments regarding servant leadership characteristics. Instead, there were strong similarities between the servant leadership characteristics, which was evidenced by the rank order results.

As with the findings on overall organizational health, the findings regarding the individual servant leadership characteristics are significant for several different reasons. First, the individual servant leadership characteristics revealed that both types of organizations have scores and similar high-low rankings. Second, both types of organizations could potentially improve in lower scoring characteristics by focusing on those weakest areas. Third, as the one department achieved higher scores for each characteristic, it offers the possibility that both types of organizations have the potential to improve in each area.

Research Question 3

The third research question sought to determine the overall job satisfaction rating in CompStat police departments. The third research question was: How does the CompStat management model affect the overall job satisfaction rating in police departments?

The literature review revealed that community-oriented policing had a strong, positive impact on police officer job satisfaction that could enhance the organizational health of law enforcement organizations. CompStat, in contrast, had been criticized for its top-down management style, reinforcement of internal bureaucratic processes, leadership

by fear, and its failure to motivate officers, all of which could have a negative impact on job satisfaction.

Table 9 illustrates the job satisfaction raw score and the rating for each department. The analysis of the job satisfaction scores revealed that there was no statistical significance in job satisfaction between CompStat departments and community policing departments.

Table 9

Job Satisfaction Scores

Department	Type	Raw Score	Rating
A	CompStat	4.115	Average
B	CompStat	4.046	Average
C	CompStat	3.942	Average
D	Community policing	4.380	Average
E	Community policing	3.720	Average
F	Community policing	4.076	Average

OLA data analysis revealed that there was no statistical significance in the level of job satisfaction between CompStat departments and community policing departments. The findings of this study, using servant leadership characteristics, revealed that the CompStat management model has neither a positive nor a negative effect on the job satisfaction rating of employees in police departments as compared to those departments that utilized community policing.

Reasonable conclusions could have been drawn from the literature that CompStat departments would have had significantly lower levels of job satisfaction, while community-policing departments would have had higher levels of job satisfaction. The study did not find any statistical differences between the two types of departments regarding organizational health to support such assertions.

The findings regarding job satisfaction are significant because no one type of department had a high job satisfaction rating. As Laub (2000) determined, there is a positive, strong correlation that the higher the OLA score, the higher the level of job satisfaction. While not central to this research study, this correlation was observed. The average rating for job satisfaction, correlated with the low overall organizational health scores, indicates that law enforcement leaders need to focus on the overall organizational health of their departments, regardless of the policing strategy or model that is utilized to provide services.

Implications for Social Change

The implications for this research study are far reaching and go well beyond the initial findings relating to the CompStat management model. Although this study has challenged the claims of the negative impact of the CompStat management model on the organizational health of police departments, it has also challenged the belief that community policing has a positive impact on the organizational health of police departments. This new contribution to the literature requires police leaders to not only reexamine their organizations and their respective leadership styles, but calls for an entirely new perspective on police organizations and police leadership throughout the nation.

Police officers have a unique role in American society. Raymond et al. (2005) argued that, “police officers are a unique set of public servants, vested with the public trust, and if necessary, the authority to use force against the citizenry to maintain order and enforce societal laws” (p. ix). Baker (2000) posited that the leadership of a police department directly affects the quality of life of police officers and the way in which they deliver police services. As the literature review revealed, there is a direct link between the behavior of the officers and to the organizational philosophy that supports their behavior (Scrivner, 2006, p. 7). This research has found that police departments, based on servant leadership characteristics, have limited health.

Geller (1985) posited that American police leadership was in a state of crisis. Two decades later, the International Association of Chiefs of Police (2005) identified leadership in police organizations as a major challenge, citing that “a rapidly changing service environment has increased demands on police agencies nationwide” (p. 1). This research has affirmed that American law enforcement is in dire need for a new style of leadership that focuses not solely on crime, disorder, or morale independent of all other factors. Rather, American law enforcement leadership must effectively change its leadership style and focus on the total organization in a holistic overhaul.

The findings of this research have significant implications for social change relating to the improvement of America’s police organizations by balancing out the needs to control and reduce crime while also promoting the dignity, worth, value, and development of America’s law enforcement officers. With the rapidly changing demands on American law enforcement, law enforcement leaders must focus on building leadership qualities at all levels within the organization that build strong, positive, healthy

organizations that are servant led. A highly relevant implication of this study is that American police leadership must make positive change to increase the organizational health, and thus the performance, of police organizations regardless of the policing model in use.

Recommendations for Action

This study has highlighted the value of quantitative study of police leadership and police organizations. The findings of this study can be utilized in current law enforcement organizations to address and improve leadership, thereby enhancing overall organizational health of law enforcement organizations. With the OLA, this study presents new information that is critical for identifying and studying a variety of topics relevant to police organizations.

The primary recommendation for action emerging from this study is for increased education and training on servant leadership for all law enforcement organizations. Although law enforcement organizations have typically been considered paramilitary organizations, today's law enforcement organizations are much more diverse, educated, and have ever-increasing demands on service delivery than ever before. It is with the emergence of the new challenges facing law enforcement organizations that servant leadership can benefit not just police organizations, but can benefit all of society.

A secondary recommendation for action is for each participating police department to utilize the results of the OLA to increase servant leadership within each department. To facilitate this goal, the OLA report, specific to each department, has been sent to the respective chief of police. Through an analysis of the OLA, it is recommended that the chief of police focus on improving all six characteristics of servant leadership. To

effect change, it is recommended the appropriate training would need to be administered to all departmental personnel, which will take time and money. It is the recommendation from this study that such efforts will meet a number of obstacles (i.e., police culture, funding, restrictive policies and procedures); however, the change must begin now in order for future generations to benefit.

A third recommendation for action would be for each participating department to submit to the OLA in one year. This recommendation would be applicable if the department takes substantial steps to implement servant leadership. These steps could include an open discussion of the results of the OLA, focused training, and ongoing evaluation and reassessment.

A final recommendation for action is for law enforcement leaders to rethink their leadership styles, abilities, and capabilities. Leadership is not a program or a project that can be implemented with a start date and a completion date. Change in leadership must start at the top and transcend down to the lowest levels of the organization. Leadership training cannot simply be for those in command positions, but must encompass the entire organization, from the very top to the very bottom. Leadership is about the entire organization, and servant leadership should be the focal point for every member of the department.

Recommendations for Further Study

This study has added new knowledge for law enforcement leaders regarding the health of law enforcement organizations. While some questions have been answered, the research conclusions infer that a number of new research questions have emerged that may need to be examined. Recommendations for future research include:

1. How can American law enforcement organizations change the traditional command and control structures in order to integrate servant leadership characteristics?
2. Are servant-led law enforcement organizations effective in controlling crime and disorder?
3. What leadership skills will need to be taught to today's police leaders in order to integrate servant leadership into law enforcement organizations?
4. What are the citizen satisfaction ratings for law enforcement organizations that are servant-led?
5. What is the employee turnover rate of servant-led law enforcement organizations?
6. Do the organizational policies and procedures inhibit the emergence of servant leadership within law enforcement organizations?
7. What impact does the CALEA accreditation, as well as state law enforcement certification programs, have on servant leadership?
8. What impact does the turnover or replacement rate of the chief executive officer (chief of police) have on the organizational health of law enforcement organizations?
9. Does servant leadership affect the number of citizen complaints on the department, its officers, and the public safety services it provides?
10. Does servant leadership affect the level of citizen trust for police organizations?

A number of opportunities exist in the area of research of law enforcement organizations. The above list is a guide for consideration and offers only a small window of potential direction for future research.

Conclusions

This study was undertaken in order to use servant leadership characteristics to examine the effect of the CompStat management style on the organizational health of police organizations. The CompStat management paradigm has been highly effective in reducing crime and disorder in communities across the nation. Despite the effectiveness of CompStat, critics have argued that CompStat was detrimental to the organizational health and job satisfaction ratings of police department personnel. This study concluded that the CompStat management model had no significant differences in overall organizational health, individual servant leadership characteristics, and overall job satisfaction ratings as compared to the community-policing model, which has been considered the opposite of CompStat.

This study concludes that servant leadership can emerge within a police department that utilizes the CompStat paradigm. This conclusion offers great hope for the future of American law enforcement due to the overall effectiveness of CompStat in addressing crime and disorder. Through a concerted effort to inject servant leadership practices into the CompStat management model, CompStat could emerge as a viable next generation leadership and management model for police organizations that not only addresses the external needs of the community, but also addresses the internal needs of the personnel within the organization. This study concludes that, only with the adoption and injection of servant leadership into the CompStat management model, can American law enforcement leaders balance out the needs to control and reduce crime while also promoting the dignity, worth, value, and development of America's law enforcement personnel.

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Appendix A: Permission to Use Existing Survey

Walden University Permission to Use an Existing Survey

July 4, 2010

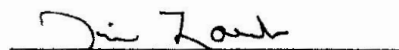
Mr. Richard S. Freeman
713 Sterling Water Court
Monroe, GA 30655

Thank you for your request for permission to use the Organization Leadership Assessment (OLA) in your research study. I am willing to allow you to utilize the instrument with the following understanding(s):

- You will use the OLA in its entirety, as it is, without any changes (sections of the OLA cannot be taken out and used separately);
- You will use this survey only for your research study and will not sell or use it with any compensated management/curriculum development activities;
- You will include the copyright statement on all copies of the instrument used for your dissertation;
- You will send your research study and one of reports, articles, and the like that make use of this survey data promptly to my attention; and,
- Allow me to use your research on the OLAgrouop website.

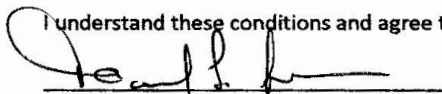
If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate so by signing one copy of this letter and returning it to me.

Sincerely,



Jim Laub
OLAgrouop

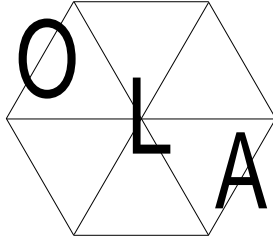
I understand these conditions and agree to abide by these terms and conditions.



Richard S. Freeman

Date: 7.4.2010

Appendix B: Organizational Leadership Assessment



Organizational Leadership Assessment[©]

4243 North Sherry Drive
Marion, IN 46952
jlaub@indwes.edu
(765) 677-2520

General Instructions

The purpose of this instrument is to allow organizations to discover how their leadership practices and beliefs impact the different ways people function within the organization. This instrument is designed to be taken by people at all levels of the organization including workers, managers and top leadership. As you respond to the different statements, please answer as to what you believe is generally true about your organization or work unit. Please respond with your own personal feelings and beliefs and not those of others, or those that others would want you to have. Respond as to how things *are* ... not as they could be, or should be.

Feel free to use the full spectrum of answers (from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree). You will find that some of the statements will be easy to respond to while others may require more thought. If you are uncertain, you may want to answer with your first, intuitive response. Please be honest and candid. The response we seek is the one that most closely represents your feelings or beliefs about the statement that is being considered. There are three different sections to this instrument. Carefully read the brief instructions that are given prior to each section. Your involvement in this assessment is anonymous and confidential.

Before completing the assessment it is important to fill in the name of the organization or organizational unit being assessed. If you are assessing an organizational unit (department, team or work unit) rather than the entire organization you will respond to all of the statements in light of that work unit.

- **IMPORTANT please complete the following**
-
- Write in the name of the organization or organizational unit (department, team or work unit) you are assessing with this instrument.

Organization (or Organizational Unit) **Name:** _____

Indicate **your present role/position** in the organization or work unit. Please **circle one**.

- 1 = Top Leadership (top level of leadership)
 2 = Management (supervisor, manager)
 3 = Workforce (staff, member, worker)

Please provide your response to each statement by placing an **X** in one of the five boxes

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

Section 1

In this section, please respond to each statement as you believe it applies to **the entire organization** (or organizational unit) including workers, managers/supervisors and top leadership.

In general, people within this organization

	1	2	3	4	5
1 Trust each other					
2 Are clear on the key goals of the organization					
3 Are non-judgmental – they keep an open mind					
4 Respect each other					
5 Know where this organization is headed in the future					
6 Maintain high ethical standards					
7 Work well together in teams					
8 Value differences in culture, race & ethnicity					
9 Are caring & compassionate towards each other					
10 Demonstrate high integrity & honesty					
11 Are trustworthy					
12 Relate well to each other					
13 Attempt to work with others more than working on their own					
14 Are held accountable for reaching work goals					

15	Are aware of the needs of others					
16	Allow for individuality of style and expression					
17	Are encouraged by supervisors to share in making <i>important</i> decisions					
18	Work to maintain positive working relationships					
19	Accept people as they are					
20	View conflict as an opportunity to learn & grow					
21	Know how to get along with people					

Please provide your response to each statement by placing an **X** in one of the five boxes

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

Section 2

In this next section, please respond to each statement as you believe it applies to the **leadership** of the organization (or organizational unit) including managers/supervisors and top leadership

	1	2	3	4	5
22	Communicate a clear vision of the future of the organization				
23	Are open to learning from those who are <i>below</i> them in the organization				
24	Allow workers to help determine where this organization is headed				
25	Work alongside the workers instead of separate from them				
26	Use persuasion to influence others instead of coercion or force				
27	Don't hesitate to provide the leadership that is needed				
28	Promote open communication and sharing of information				
29	Give workers the power to make <i>important</i> decisions				
30	Provide the support and resources needed to help workers meet their goals				
31	Create an environment that encourages learning				
32	Are open to receiving criticism & challenge from others				
33	Say what they mean, and mean what they say				
34	Encourage each person to exercise leadership				
35	Admit personal limitations & mistakes				
36	Encourage people to take risks even if they may fail				
37	Practice the same behavior they expect from others				
38	Facilitate the building of community & team				

39	Do not demand special recognition for being leaders					
40	Lead by example by modeling appropriate behavior					
41	Seek to influence others from a positive relationship rather than from the authority of their position					
42	Provide opportunities for all workers to develop to their full potential					
43	Honestly evaluate themselves before seeking to evaluate others					
44	Use their power and authority to benefit the workers					
45	Take appropriate action when it is needed					

Please provide your response to each statement by placing an **X** in one of the five boxes

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

Managers/Supervisors and Top Leadership in this Organization

	1	2	3	4	5
46	Build people up through encouragement and affirmation				
47	Encourage workers to work <i>together</i> rather than competing against each other				
48	Are humble – they do not promote themselves				
49	Communicate clear plans & goals for the organization				
50	Provide mentor relationships in order to help people grow professionally				
51	Are accountable & responsible to others				
52	Are receptive listeners				
53	Do not seek after special status or the “perks” of leadership				
54	Put the needs of the workers ahead of their own				

Section 3

In this next section, please respond to each statement as you believe it is true about **you personally** and **your role** in the organization (or organizational unit).

In Viewing My Role...	1	2	3	4	5
55	I feel appreciated by my supervisor for what I contribute				
56	I am working at a high level of productivity				
57	I am listened to by those <i>above</i> me in the organization				
58	I feel good about my contribution to the organization				

59	I receive encouragement and affirmation from those <i>above</i> me in the organization					
60	My job is important to the success of this organization					
61	I trust the leadership of this organization					
62	I enjoy working in this organization					
63	I am respected by those <i>above</i> me in the organization					
64	I am able to be creative in my job					
65	In this organization, a person's <i>work</i> is valued more than their <i>title</i>					
66	I am able to use my best gifts and abilities in my job					

Appendix C

Initial Invitation to Participate

Dear Law Enforcement Colleague at [POLICE AGENCY NAME INSERTED HERE]:

I am a Captain at Conyers Police and a student at Walden University. I am working on my Ph.D. in Public Policy and Administration and am seeking your help and participation. I am conducting research entitled “Organizational Health: Understanding the Impact of the CompStat Management Paradigm on Law Enforcement Organizations.” The purpose of this research is to examine the organizational health of police departments. Your Chief of Police has agreed to allow your department to participate in this research study.

I would like to invite you to participate in this research study by taking the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA), which is an online survey. Before taking the OLA, please read the below information on Research Participant Information and Implied Consent. This will provide additional details about the research, your participation, and the benefits of this research study.

Research Participant Information and Implied Consent Form

You are being asked to participate in a research project. Researchers are required to provide a consent form to inform you about the study, to convey that participation is voluntary, to explain risks and benefits of participation, and to empower you to make an informed decision. You should feel free to ask the researcher any questions you may have.

You are invited to take part in a research study on the organizational health of police organizations. You were chosen for the study because your police department is a **[CompStat / Community-oriented inserted here]** police organization. This form is part of a process called “informed consent” to allow you to understand this study before deciding whether to take part.

This study is being conducted by a researcher named Richard S. Freeman, who is a doctoral student at Walden University and a police captain with the Conyers Police Department. Your police agency has agreed to take part in this research study entitled “Organizational Health: Understanding the Impact of the CompStat Management Paradigm on Law Enforcement Organizations.” The purpose of this research is to examine the impact of the CompStat management model on the organizational health of police departments.

Background Information:

The purpose of this research is to examine the impact of the CompStat management model on the organizational health of police departments.

Procedures:

If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to:

- Complete the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA), which is an online survey that may require between 10 to 20 minutes of your time.
- You will not be asked to complete any other tasks, interviews, or surveys.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:

Your participation in this study is voluntary. This means that everyone will respect your decision of whether or not you want to be in the study. No one at your police agency will treat you differently if you decide not to be in the study. If you decide to join the study now, you can still change your mind during the study. If you feel stressed during the study you may stop at any time. There is no penalty for not participating in the study.

Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study:

In participating in this research study, there are no foreseeable risks to you, as your individual responses to the OLA survey will be completely anonymous. Although there may be no direct benefit to you, this research has the capability to help your organization to discover how its leadership practices and beliefs impact the way people function within your organization. Your participation will help expand the body of knowledge of leadership theories, application, and police department management.

Compensation:

There is no compensation for the completion of this survey.

Confidentiality:

Any information you provide will be kept anonymous, which means that no names will be collected in this study. Since no names will be collected, not even the researcher will know which individual has completed the survey or who specifically provided what information. The researcher will not use your information for any purposes outside of this research project. Also, since the survey participants are anonymous, the researcher cannot include your name or anything else that could identify you in any reports of the study.

Contacts and Questions:

The researcher will be happy to answer any questions you may have. You may contact the researcher by several means:

Researcher's telephone number: [REDACTED]

Researcher's e-mail address: [REDACTED]

Researcher's mailing address: [REDACTED]

If you want to talk privately about your rights as a participant, you can call Dr. Leilani Endicott. She is the Walden University representative who can discuss this with you. Her phone number is 1-800-925-3368, extension 1210. Walden University's approval number for this study is 10-15-10-0338212 and it expires on October 14, 2011.

Statement of Consent:

By completing this survey, you are verifying that you are 18 years or older, agree to the terms described above, and give your permission to voluntarily serve as a participant in the study described. By accessing the link below, and logging in and taking the OLA, you agree that you have read the above information and understand the study well enough to make a decision about your involvement. There are no other agreements, written or verbal, related to this study beyond that expressed in this consent and confidentiality notice.

You may print a copy of this form to keep for your records. You may also request to receive a copy of the study summary.

Thank you for your time and willingness to participate.

Sincerely,

Richard S. Freeman

Doctoral Student

Walden University

TO TAKE THE ASSESSMENT

Click on this link: <http://www.olagroup.com/Display.asp?Page=OlaLogin>

OR

Go to the website www.olagroup.com and click "Take the OLA" in the upper right of the screen.

Type in the organizational code: **[CODE WAS INSERTED HERE]**

Type in the pin: **[PIN WAS INSERTED HERE]**

Choose the **STANDARD** version of the OLA

Choose the language option you are most comfortable with

Click "Start"

Read the brief Introduction

Select your Present Role/Position in the organization

Click "Take the OLA"

Please be sure to complete and answer all of the questions.

Appendix D

Initial Invitation to Participate: Flier

Dear Law Enforcement Colleague at [POLICE AGENCY INSERTED HERE]:

You may have already received an e-mail regarding this invitation to participate in a doctoral research study at your agency. If you have already received an e-mail invitation, you may disregard this flier. If you have not received the e-mail invitation, please read continue to read the below information regarding an invitation to participate in a research study.

I am a Captain at Conyers Police and a student at Walden University. I am working on my Ph.D. in Public Policy and Administration and am seeking your help and participation. I am conducting research entitled “Organizational Health: Understanding the Impact of the CompStat Management Paradigm on Law Enforcement Organizations.” The purpose of this research is to examine the organizational health of police departments. Your Chief of Police has agreed to allow your department to participate in this research study.

I would like to invite you to participate in this research study by taking the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA), which is an online survey. Before taking the OLA, please read the below information on Research Participant Information and Implied Consent. This will provide additional details about the research, your participation, and the benefits of this research study.

Research Participant Information and Implied Consent Form

You are being asked to participate in a research project. Researchers are required to provide a consent form to inform you about the study, to convey that participation is voluntary, to explain risks and benefits of participation, and to empower you to make an informed decision. You should feel free to ask the researcher any questions you may have.

You are invited to take part in a research study on the organizational health of police organizations. You were chosen for the study because your police department is a **[CompStat / Community-oriented was selected]** police organization. This form is part of a process called “informed consent” to allow you to understand this study before deciding whether to take part.

This study is being conducted by a researcher named Richard S. Freeman, who is a doctoral student at Walden University and a police captain with the Conyers Police Department. Your police agency has agreed to take part in this research study entitled “Organizational Health: Understanding the Impact of the CompStat Management

Paradigm on Law Enforcement Organizations.” The purpose of this research is to examine the impact of the CompStat management model on the organizational health of police departments.

Background Information:

The purpose of this research is to examine the impact of the CompStat management model on the organizational health of police departments.

Procedures:

If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to:

- Complete the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA), which is an online survey that may require between 10 to 20 minutes of your time.
- You will not be asked to complete any other tasks, interviews, or surveys.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:

Your participation in this study is voluntary. This means that everyone will respect your decision of whether or not you want to be in the study. No one at your police agency will treat you differently if you decide not to be in the study. If you decide to join the study now, you can still change your mind during the study. If you feel stressed during the study you may stop at any time. There is no penalty for not participating in the study.

Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study:

In participating in this research study, there are no foreseeable risks to you, as your individual responses to the OLA survey will be completely anonymous. Although there may be no direct benefit to you, this research has the capability to help your organization to discover how its leadership practices and beliefs impact the way people function within your organization. Your participation will help expand the body of knowledge of leadership theories, application, and police department management.

Compensation:

There is no compensation for the completion of this survey.

Confidentiality:

Any information you provide will be kept anonymous, which means that no names will be collected in this study. Since no names will be collected, not even the researcher will know which individual has completed the survey or who specifically provided what information. The researcher will not use your information for any purposes outside of this research project. Also, since the survey participants are anonymous, the researcher cannot include your name or anything else that could identify you in any reports of the study.

Contacts and Questions:

The researcher will be happy to answer any questions you may have. You may contact the researcher by several means:

Researcher’s telephone number: [REDACTED]

Researcher's e-mail address: [REDACTED]

Researcher's mailing address: [REDACTED]

If you want to talk privately about your rights as a participant, you can call Dr. Leilani Endicott. She is the Walden University representative who can discuss this with you. Her phone number is 1-800-925-3368, extension 1210. Walden University's approval number for this study is 10-15-10-0338212 and it expires on October 14, 2011.

Statement of Consent:

By completing this survey, you are verifying that you are 18 years or older, agree to the terms described above, and give your permission to voluntarily serve as a participant in the study described. By accessing the link below, and logging in and taking the OLA, you agree that you have read the above information and understand the study well enough to make a decision about your involvement. There are no other agreements, written or verbal, related to this study beyond that expressed in this consent and confidentiality notice.

You may print a copy of this form to keep for your records. You may also request to receive a copy of the study summary.

Thank you for your time and willingness to participate.

Sincerely,
Richard S. Freeman
Doctoral Student
Walden University

TO TAKE THE ASSESSMENT

Click on this link: <http://www.olagroup.com/Display.asp?Page=OlaLogin>

OR

Go to the website www.olagroup.com and click "Take the OLA" in the upper right of the screen.

Type in the organizational code: **[CODE WAS INSERTED HERE]**

Type in the pin: **[PIN WAS INSERTED HERE]**

Choose the **STANDARD** version of the OLA

Choose the language option you are most comfortable with

Click "Start"

Read the brief Introduction

Select your Present Role/Position in the organization

Click "Take the OLA"

Please be sure to complete and answer all of the questions.

Appendix E

Second Invitation and Reminder

Dear Law Enforcement Colleague at [POLICE AGENCY NAME INSERTED HERE]:

A couple of weeks ago, an invitation was sent out to everyone at the [POLICE AGENCY NAME INSERTED HERED] to participate in a research study entitled “Organizational Health: Understanding the Impact of the CompStat Management Paradigm on Law Enforcement Organizations.” If you have already completed the OLA survey, please disregard this e-mail. You do not have to take the OLA again. *Thank you for your valuable time.*

If you have not yet had an opportunity to complete the OLA survey, I would like to let you know that the survey deadline has been extended in order to allow everyone an opportunity to participate and provide their feedback. If you have not taken the survey, please read the below information on Research Participant Information and Implied Consent. This will provide additional details about the research, your participation, and the benefits of this research study.

Research Participant Information and Implied Consent Form

You are being asked to participate in a research project. Researchers are required to provide a consent form to inform you about the study, to convey that participation is voluntary, to explain risks and benefits of participation, and to empower you to make an informed decision. You should feel free to ask the researcher any questions you may have.

You are invited to take part in a research study on the organizational health of police organizations. You were chosen for the study because your police department is a **[CompStat / Community-oriented inserted here]** police organization. This form is part of a process called “informed consent” to allow you to understand this study before deciding whether to take part.

This study is being conducted by a researcher named Richard S. Freeman, who is a doctoral student at Walden University and a police captain with the Conyers Police Department. Your police agency has agreed to take part in this research study entitled “Organizational Health: Understanding the Impact of the CompStat Management Paradigm on Law Enforcement Organizations.” The purpose of this research is to examine the impact of the CompStat management model on the organizational health of police departments.

Background Information:

The purpose of this research is to examine the impact of the CompStat management model on the organizational health of police departments.

Procedures:

If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to:

- Complete the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA), which is an online survey that may require between 10 to 20 minutes of your time.
- You will not be asked to complete any other tasks, interviews, or surveys.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:

Your participation in this study is voluntary. This means that everyone will respect your decision of whether or not you want to be in the study. No one at your police agency will treat you differently if you decide not to be in the study. If you decide to join the study now, you can still change your mind during the study. If you feel stressed during the study you may stop at any time. There is no penalty for not participating in the study.

Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study:

In participating in this research study, there are no foreseeable risks to you, as your individual responses to the OLA survey will be completely anonymous. Although there may be no direct benefit to you, this research has the capability to help your organization to discover how its leadership practices and beliefs impact the way people function within your organization. Your participation will help expand the body of knowledge of leadership theories, application, and police department management.

Compensation:

There is no compensation for the completion of this survey.

Confidentiality:

Any information you provide will be kept anonymous, which means that no names will be collected in this study. Since no names will be collected, not even the researcher will know which individual has completed the survey or who specifically provided what information. The researcher will not use your information for any purposes outside of this research project. Also, since the survey participants are anonymous, the researcher cannot include your name or anything else that could identify you in any reports of the study.

Contacts and Questions:

The researcher will be happy to answer any questions you may have. You may contact the researcher by several means:

Researcher's telephone number: [REDACTED]

Researcher's e-mail address: [REDACTED]

Researcher's mailing address: [REDACTED]

If you want to talk privately about your rights as a participant, you can call Dr. Leilani Endicott. She is the Walden University representative who can discuss this with you. Her phone number is 1-800-925-3368, extension 1210. Walden University's approval number for this study is 10-15-10-0338212 and it expires on October 14, 2011.

Statement of Consent:

By completing this survey, you are verifying that you are 18 years or older, agree to the terms described above, and give your permission to voluntarily serve as a participant in the study described. By accessing the link below, and logging in and taking the OLA, you agree that you have read the above information and understand the study well enough to make a decision about your involvement. There are no other agreements, written or verbal, related to this study beyond that expressed in this consent and confidentiality notice.

You may print a copy of this form to keep for your records. You may also request to receive a copy of the study summary.

Thank you for your time and willingness to participate.

Sincerely,

Richard S. Freeman

Doctoral Student

Walden University

TO TAKE THE ASSESSMENT

Click on this link: <http://www.olagroup.com/Display.asp?Page=OlaLogin>

OR

Go to the website www.olagroup.com and click "Take the OLA" in the upper right of the screen.

Type in the organizational code: **[CODE WAS INSERTED HERE]**

Type in the pin: **[PIN WAS INSERTED HERE]**

Choose the **STANDARD** version of the OLA

Choose the language option you are most comfortable with

Click "Start"

Read the brief Introduction

Select your Present Role/Position in the organization

Click "Take the OLA"

Please be sure to complete and answer all of the questions.

Appendix F

Second Invitation and Reminder to Participate: Flier

Dear Law Enforcement Colleague at [POLICE AGENCY INSERTED HERE]:

You may have already received an e-mail regarding this reminder invitation to participate in a doctoral research study at your agency. If you have already received an e-mail reminder invitation, you may disregard this flier. If you have not received the e-mail reminder invitation, please continue to read the below information regarding an invitation to participate in a research study.

A couple of weeks ago, an invitation was sent out to everyone at the [POLICE AGENCY NAME INSERTED HERED] to participate in a research study entitled "Organizational Health: Understanding the Impact of the CompStat Management Paradigm on Law Enforcement Organizations." If you have already completed the OLA survey, please disregard this e-mail. You do not have to take the OLA again. *Thank you for your valuable time.*

If you have not yet had an opportunity to complete the OLA survey, I would like to let you know that the survey deadline has been extended in order to allow everyone an opportunity to participate and provide their feedback. If you have not taken the survey, please read the below information on Research Participant Information and Implied Consent. This will provide additional details about the research, your participation, and the benefits of this research study.

Research Participant Information and Implied Consent Form

You are being asked to participate in a research project. Researchers are required to provide a consent form to inform you about the study, to convey that participation is voluntary, to explain risks and benefits of participation, and to empower you to make an informed decision. You should feel free to ask the researcher any questions you may have.

You are invited to take part in a research study on the organizational health of police organizations. You were chosen for the study because your police department is a **[CompStat / Community-oriented was selected]** police organization. This form is part of a process called "informed consent" to allow you to understand this study before deciding whether to take part.

This study is being conducted by a researcher named Richard S. Freeman, who is a doctoral student at Walden University and a police captain with the Conyers Police Department. Your police agency has agreed to take part in this research study entitled

“Organizational Health: Understanding the Impact of the CompStat Management Paradigm on Law Enforcement Organizations.” The purpose of this research is to examine the impact of the CompStat management model on the organizational health of police departments.

Background Information:

The purpose of this research is to examine the impact of the CompStat management model on the organizational health of police departments.

Procedures:

If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to:

- Complete the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA), which is an online survey that may require between 10 to 20 minutes of your time.
- You will not be asked to complete any other tasks, interviews, or surveys.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:

Your participation in this study is voluntary. This means that everyone will respect your decision of whether or not you want to be in the study. No one at your police agency will treat you differently if you decide not to be in the study. If you decide to join the study now, you can still change your mind during the study. If you feel stressed during the study you may stop at any time. There is no penalty for not participating in the study.

Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study:

In participating in this research study, there are no foreseeable risks to you, as your individual responses to the OLA survey will be completely anonymous. Although there may be no direct benefit to you, this research has the capability to help your organization to discover how its leadership practices and beliefs impact the way people function within your organization. Your participation will help expand the body of knowledge of leadership theories, application, and police department management.

Compensation:

There is no compensation for the completion of this survey.

Confidentiality:

Any information you provide will be kept anonymous, which means that no names will be collected in this study. Since no names will be collected, not even the researcher will know which individual has completed the survey or who specifically provided what information. The researcher will not use your information for any purposes outside of this research project. Also, since the survey participants are anonymous, the researcher cannot include your name or anything else that could identify you in any reports of the study.

Contacts and Questions:

The researcher will be happy to answer any questions you may have. You may contact the researcher by several means:

Researcher's telephone number: [REDACTED]

Researcher's e-mail address: [REDACTED]

Researcher's mailing address: [REDACTED]

If you want to talk privately about your rights as a participant, you can call Dr. Leilani Endicott. She is the Walden University representative who can discuss this with you. Her phone number is 1-800-925-3368, extension 1210. Walden University's approval number for this study is 10-15-10-0338212 and it expires on October 14, 2011.

Statement of Consent:

By completing this survey, you are verifying that you are 18 years or older, agree to the terms described above, and give your permission to voluntarily serve as a participant in the study described. By accessing the link below, and logging in and taking the OLA, you agree that you have read the above information and understand the study well enough to make a decision about your involvement. There are no other agreements, written or verbal, related to this study beyond that expressed in this consent and confidentiality notice.

You may print a copy of this form to keep for your records. You may also request to receive a copy of the study summary.

Thank you for your time and willingness to participate.

Sincerely,
Richard S. Freeman
Doctoral Student
Walden University

TO TAKE THE ASSESSMENT

Click on this link: <http://www.olagroup.com/Display.asp?Page=OlaLogin>

OR

Go to the website www.olagroup.com and click "Take the OLA" in the upper right of the screen.

Type in the organizational code: **[CODE WAS INSERTED HERE]**

Type in the pin: **[PIN WAS INSERTED HERE]**

Choose the **STANDARD** version of the OLA

Choose the language option you are most comfortable with

Click "Start"

Read the brief Introduction

Select your Present Role/Position in the organization

Click "Take the OLA"

Please be sure to complete and answer all of the questions.

Appendix G

Organizational Health Calculations

VassarStats Printable Report
 Point Biserial Correlation Coefficient
 Mon Nov 29 22:35:40 EST 2010

Y Values Entered

For X=0	For X=1
4.111	3.615
3.228	3.451
3.370	3.266

Summary Data

	X=0	X=1	Total
n	3	3	6
$-\sum Y$	10.709	10.332	21.041
$-\sum Y^2$	38.677205	35.644382	74.321587
SS_Y	0.4496	0.061	0.5343
$mean_Y$	3.5697	3.444	3.5068

r_{pb}	t	df
-0.21	-0.43	4

P	one-tailed	0.344674
	two-tailed	0.689348

Appendix H

Values People Calculations

VassarStats Printable Report
 Point Biserial Correlation Coefficient
 Mon Nov 29 23:28:47 EST 2010

Y Values Entered

For X=0	For X=1
4.125	3.681
3.386	3.493
3.632	3.318

Summary Data

	X=0	X=1	Total
n	3	3	6
$-\sum Y$	11.143	10.491999999999999	21.634999999999998
$-\sum Y^2$	41.672045	36.759934	78.431979
SS_Y	0.2832	0.0659	0.4198
$mean_Y$	3.7143	3.4973	3.6058

r_{pb}	t	df
-0.41	-0.9	4

P	one-tailed	0.209503
	two-tailed	0.419006

Appendix I

Develops People Calculations

VassarStats Printable Report
 Point Biserial Correlation Coefficient
 Mon Nov 29 23:30:11 EST 2010

Y Values Entered

For X=0	For X=1
4.131	3.472
3.021	3.470
3.141	3.130

Summary Data

	X=0	X=1	Total
n	3	3	6
$-\sum Y$	10.293	10.072	20.365
$-\sum Y^2$	36.0574830000000005	33.892584	69.950067
SS_Y	0.7422	0.0775	0.8279
$mean_Y$	3.431	3.3573	3.3942

r_{pb}	t	df
-0.1	-0.2	4

P	one-tailed	0.4256185
	two-tailed	0.851237

Appendix J

Builds Community Calculations

VassarStats Printable Report
 Point Biserial Correlation Coefficient
 Mon Nov 29 23:31:40 EST 2010

Y Values Entered

For X=0	For X=1
4.176	3.667
3.464	3.576
3.628	3.382

Summary Data

	X=0	X=1	Total
n	3	3	6
$-\sum Y$	11.268	10.625	21.893
$-\sum Y^2$	42.600656	37.672589	80.273245
SS_Y	0.278	0.0424	0.3893
$mean_Y$	3.756	3.5417	3.6488

r_{pb}	t	df
-0.42	-0.93	4

P	one-tailed	0.2025075
	two-tailed	0.405015

Appendix K

Displays Authenticity Calculations

VassarStats Printable Report
 Point Biserial Correlation Coefficient
 Mon Nov 29 23:32:47 EST 2010

Y Values Entered

For X=0	For X=1
4.226	3.524
3.272	3.489
3.419	3.147

Summary Data

	X=0	X=1	Total
n	3	3	6
$-\sum Y$	10.917	10.16	21.076999999999998
$-\sum Y^2$	40.254620999999999	34.495306	74.749926999999998
SS_Y	0.5277	0.0868	0.7099
$mean_Y$	3.639	3.3867	3.5128

r_{pb}	t	df
-0.37	-0.79	4

P	one-tailed	0.2368625
	two-tailed	0.473725

Appendix L

Provides Leadership Calculations

VassarStats Printable Report
 Point Biserial Correlation Coefficient
 Mon Nov 29 23:33:52 EST 2010

Y Values Entered

For X=0	For X=1
4.247	3.675
3.330	3.614
3.467	3.264

Summary Data

	X=0	X=1	Total
n	3	3	6
$-\sum Y$	11.044	10.552999999999999	21.597
$-\sum Y^2$	41.145998	37.220316999999994	78.36631499999998
SS_Y	0.4894	0.0984	0.6279
mean _Y	3.6813	3.5177	3.5995

r_{pb}	t	df
-0.25	-0.52	4

P	one-tailed	0.315258
	two-tailed	0.630516

Appendix M

Shares Leadership Calculations

VassarStats Printable Report
 Point Biserial Correlation Coefficient
 Mon Nov 29 23:34:45 EST 2010

Y Values Entered

For X=0	For X=1
4.071	3.403
3.135	3.312
3.255	3.119

Summary Data

	X=0	X=1	Total
n	3	3	6
$-\sum Y$	10.460999999999998	9.834	20.294999999999998
$-\sum Y^2$	36.996290999999999	32.277914	69.274205
SS_Y	0.5188	0.0421	0.6264
$mean_Y$	3.487	3.278	3.3825

r_{pb}	t	df
-0.32	-0.68	4

P	one-tailed	0.266912
	two-tailed	0.533824

Appendix N

Job Satisfaction Calculations

VassarStats Printable Report
 Point Biserial Correlation Coefficient
 Mon Nov 29 22:52:31 EST 2010

Y Values Entered

For X=0	For X=1
4.380	4.115
3.720	4.046
4.076	3.942

Summary Data

	X=0	X=1	Total
n	3	3	6
$-\sum Y$	12.17599999999998	12.103000000000001	24.279
$-\sum Y^2$	49.6365760000000005	48.842705	98.479281000000001
SS_Y	0.2183	0.0152	0.2343
mean _Y	4.0587	4.0343	4.0465

r_{pb}	t	df
-0.06	-0.12	4

P	one-tailed	0.4551345
	two-tailed	0.910269

Appendix O

Laub's Six Levels

Org⁶	Workers experience this organization as a servant-minded organization characterized by authenticity, the valuing and developing of people, the building of community and the providing and sharing of positive leadership. These characteristics are evident throughout the entire organization. People are trusted and are trustworthy throughout the organization. They are motivated to serve the interests of each other before their own self-interest and are open to learning from each other. Leaders and workers view each other as partners working in a spirit of collaboration.
Org⁵	Workers experience this organization as a servant-oriented organization characterized by authenticity, the valuing and developing of people, the building of community and the providing and sharing of positive leadership. These characteristics are evident throughout much of the organization. People are trusted and are trustworthy. They are motivated to serve the interests of each other before their own self-interest and are open to learning from each other. Leaders and workers view each other as partners working in a spirit of collaboration.
Org⁴	Workers experience this organization as a positively paternalistic (parental-led) organization characterized by a moderate level of trust and trustworthiness along with occasional uncertainty and fear. Creativity is encouraged as long as it doesn't move the organization too far beyond the status quo. Risks can be taken, but failure is sometimes feared. Goals are mostly clear, though the overall direction of the organization is sometimes confused. Leaders often take the role of nurturing parent while workers assume the role of the cared-for child.
Org³	Workers experience this organization as a negatively paternalistic (parental-led) organization characterized by minimal to moderate levels of trust and trustworthiness along with an underlying uncertainty and fear. People feel that they must prove themselves and that they are only as good as their last performance. Workers are sometimes listened to but only when they speak in line with the values and priorities of the leaders. Conformity is expected while individual expression is discouraged. Leaders often take the role of critical parent while workers assume the role of the cautious child.
Org²	Workers experience this organization as an autocratic-led organization characterized by low levels of trust and trustworthiness and high levels of uncertainty and fear. People lack motivation to serve the organization because they do not feel that it is their organization or their goals. Leadership is autocratic in style and is imposed from the top levels of the organization. It is an environment where risks are seldom taken, failure is often punished and creativity is discouraged. Most workers do not feel valued and often feel used by those in leadership. Change is needed but is very difficult to achieve.
Org¹	Workers experience this organization as a dangerous place to work ... a place characterized by dishonesty and a deep lack of integrity among its workers and leaders. Workers are devalued, used and sometimes abused. Positive leadership is missing at all levels and power is used in ways that are harmful to workers and the mission of the organization. There is almost no trust and an extremely high level of fear. This organization will find it very difficult to locate, develop and maintain healthy workers who can assist in producing positive organizational change.



Description

Optimal Organizational Health

*When an organization reaches this level, it operates with **Optimal Organizational Health** in terms of its workers, leadership and organizational culture, and it exhibits these characteristics to a very high level throughout all levels of operation.*

The Workers: *Motivation, morale, attitude & commitment, listening, relationships vs. tasks*

All workers are valued here, for who they are as well as for what they contribute to the organization. They are believed in and are encouraged to develop to their full potential as workers and as individuals. All leaders and workers listen receptively to one another and are involved together in many of the important decisions of the organization. Relationships are strong and healthy and diversity is valued and celebrated.

The Leadership: *Power, decision-making, goals & direction*

People provide dynamic and effective leadership at all levels of the organization. Power and leadership are shared so that all workers are empowered to contribute to important decisions, including the direction that the organization is taking. Appropriate action is taken, goals are clear and vision is shared throughout the entire organization.

The Team: *Community, collaboration and team learning*

An extremely high level of community characterizes this positive work environment. People work together well in teams and choose collaborative work over competition against one another.

The Culture: *Authenticity, integrity, accountability, creativity, trust, service, communication*

This is an environment characterized by the authenticity of its workers, supervisors and executive leaders. People are very open and accountable to others. They operate with complete honesty and integrity. This is a “people first” environment where risks are taken, failure is learned from and creativity is encouraged and rewarded. People throughout the entire organization are highly trusted and are highly trustworthy. Fear does not exist as a motivation. People are highly motivated to serve the interests of each other before their own self-interest and are open to learning from each other. This is an environment that is characterized by open and effective communication throughout the organization.

The Outlook: *Type of workers attracted, action needed*

This is a servant-minded organization throughout, which will continue to attract the very best and most motivated workers who can welcome positive change and continuous improvement. It is a place where energy and motivation are continually renewed to provide for the challenges of the future. The outlook is extremely positive. Ongoing attention should be given to building new strengths and continuing to maintain and develop as an optimally healthy organization.



Description

Excellent Organizational Health

This organization is now operating with Excellent Organizational Health in terms of its workers, leadership and organizational culture and it exhibits these characteristics throughout most levels of operation.

The Workers: *Motivation, morale, attitude & commitment, listening, relationships vs. tasks*

Most workers feel valued here, for who they are as well as for what they contribute to the organization. They are believed in and are encouraged to develop to their full potential as workers and as individuals. Most leaders and workers listen receptively to one another and are involved together in some of the important decisions of the organization. Most relationships are strong and healthy and diversity is valued and celebrated.

The Leadership: *Power, decision-making, goals & direction*

People are encouraged to provide leadership at all levels of the organization. Power and leadership are shared so that most workers are empowered to contribute to important decisions, including the direction that the organization is taking. Appropriate action is taken, goals are clear and vision is shared throughout most of the organization.

The Team: *Community, collaboration and team learning*

A high level of community characterizes this positive work environment. People work together well in teams and prefer collaborative work over competition against one another.

The Culture: *Authenticity, integrity, accountability, creativity, trust, service, communication*

This is an environment mostly characterized by the authenticity of its workers, supervisors and senior leaders. People are open and accountable to others. They operate with honesty and integrity. This is a “people first” environment where risks are encouraged, failure can be learned from and creativity is encouraged and rewarded. People are trusted and are trustworthy throughout the organization. Fear is not used as a motivation. People are motivated to serve the interests of each other before their own self-interest and are open to learning from each other. This is an environment that is characterized by open and effective communication.

The Outlook: *Type of workers attracted, action needed*

This is a servant-oriented organization, which will continue to attract some of the best and most motivated workers who can welcome positive change and continuous improvement. It is a place where energy and motivation are continually renewed to provide for the challenges of the future. The outlook is very positive. Ongoing attention should be given to building on existing strengths and continuing to learn and develop towards an optimally healthy organization.



Description

Moderate Organizational Health

This organization is now operating with Moderate Organizational Health in terms of its workers, leadership and organizational culture and it exhibits these characteristics throughout most levels of operation.

The Workers: *Motivation, morale, attitude & commitment, listening, relationships vs. tasks*

The Leadership: *Power, decision-making, goals & direction*

Leadership is positively paternalistic in style and mostly comes from the top levels of the organization. Leaders often take the role of nurturing parent while workers assume the role of the cared-for child. Power is delegated for specific tasks and for specific positions within the organization. Workers are encouraged to share ideas for improving the organization. Goals are mostly clear though the overall direction of the organization is sometimes confused.

The Team: *Community, collaboration and team learning*

Some level of cooperative work exists, and some true collaboration. Teams are utilized but often compete against one another when resources are scarce.

The Culture: *Authenticity, integrity, accountability, creativity, trust, service, communication*

Workers are sometimes unsure of where they stand and how open they can be with one another and especially with those in leadership over them. This is an environment where some risks can be taken but failure is sometimes feared. Creativity is encouraged as long as it doesn't move the organization too much beyond the status quo. There is a moderate level of trust and trustworthiness along with occasional uncertainty and fear. People feel trusted but know that trust can be lost very easily. People are motivated to serve the organization because it is their job to do so and they are committed to doing good work. This is an environment characterized by openness between select groups of people.

The Outlook: *Type of workers attracted, action needed*

This is a positively paternalistic organization that will attract good motivated workers but may find that the "best and brightest" will seek professional challenges elsewhere. Change here is ongoing but often forced by outside circumstances. Improvement is desired but difficult to maintain over time. The outlook for this organization is positive. Decisions need to be made to move toward more healthy organizational life. This organization is in a good position to move towards optimal health in the future.



Description

Limited Organizational Health

The Workers: *Motivation, morale, attitude & commitment, listening, relationships vs. tasks*

Most workers sense they are valued more for what they can contribute than for who they are. When they receive training in this organization it is primarily to increase their performance and their value to the company not to develop personally. Workers are sometimes listened to but only when they speak in line with the values and priorities of the leaders. Their ideas are sometimes sought but seldom used, while the important decisions remain at the top levels of the organization. Relationships tend to be functional and the organizational tasks almost always come first. Conformity is expected while individual expression is discouraged.

The Leadership: *Power, decision-making, goals & direction*

Leadership is negatively paternalistic in style and is focused at the top levels of the organization. Leaders often take the role of critical parent while workers assume the role of the cautious child. Power is delegated for specific tasks and for specific positions within the organization. Workers provide some decision-making when it is appropriate to their position. Goals are sometimes unclear and the overall direction of the organization is often confused.

The Team: *Community, collaboration and team learning*

This is mostly an individualistic environment. Some level of cooperative work exists, but little true collaboration. Teams are utilized but often are characterized by an unproductive competitive spirit.

The Culture: *Authenticity, integrity, accountability, creativity, trust, service, communication*

Workers are unsure of where they stand and how open they can be with one another, and especially with those in leadership over them. This is an environment where limited risks are taken, failure is not allowed and creativity is encouraged only when it fits within the organization's existing guidelines. There is a minimal to moderate level of trust and trustworthiness along with an underlying uncertainty and fear. People feel that they must prove themselves and that they are only as good as their last performance. People are sometimes motivated to serve the organization but are not sure that the organization is committed to them. This is an environment that is characterized by a guarded, cautious openness.

The Outlook: *Type of workers attracted, action needed*

This is a negatively paternalistic organization that tends to foster worker compliance. The best and most creative workers may look elsewhere. Change here is long-term and incremental and improvement is desired but difficult to achieve. The outlook for this organization is uncertain. Decisions need to be made to move toward more healthy organizational life. In times of organizational stress there will be a tendency to move toward a more autocratic organizational environment.



Description

Poor Organizational Health

This organization is now operating with Poor Organizational Health in terms of its workers, leadership and organizational culture and it exhibits these characteristics throughout most levels of operation.

The Workers: *Motivation, morale, attitude & commitment, listening, relationships vs. tasks*
Most workers do not feel valued or believed in here. They often feel used and do not feel that they have the opportunity of being developed either personally or professionally. Workers are rarely listened to and only when they speak in line with the values and priorities of the leaders. Their ideas are rarely sought and almost never used. Most decisions are made at the top levels of the organization. Relationships are not encouraged and the tasks of the organization come before people. Diversity is not valued or appreciated.

The Leadership: *Power, decision-making, goals & direction*
Leadership is autocratic in style and is imposed from the top levels of the organization. Power is held at the highest positions only and is used to force compliance with the leader's wishes. Workers do not feel empowered to create change. Goals are often unclear and the overall direction of the organization is confused.

The Team: *Community, collaboration and team learning*
This is a highly individualistic and competitive environment. Almost no collaboration exists. Teams are sometimes utilized but often are put in competition with each other in order to motivate performance.

The Culture: *Authenticity, integrity, accountability, creativity, trust, service, communication*
This is an environment often characterized by lack of honesty and integrity among its workers, supervisors and senior leaders. It is an environment where risks are seldom taken, failure is often punished and creativity is discouraged. There is a very low level of trust and trustworthiness along with a high level of uncertainty and fear. Leaders do not trust the workers and the workers view the leaders as untrustworthy. People lack motivation to serve the organization because they do not feel that it is their organization or their goals. This is an environment that is characterized by closed communication.

The Outlook: *Type of workers attracted, action needed*
This is an autocratic organization, which will find it very difficult to find, develop and maintain healthy productive workers. Change is needed but very difficult to achieve. The outlook is not positive for this organization. Serious measures must be instituted in order for this organization to establish the necessary improvements to move towards positive organizational health.



Description

Toxic Organizational Health

This organization is now operating with Toxic Organizational Health in terms of its workers, leadership and organizational culture and it exhibits these characteristics throughout most levels of operation

The Workers: *Motivation, morale, attitude & commitment, listening, relationships vs. tasks*
Workers are devalued here. They are not believed in and in turn do not believe in one another. Workers are used and even abused in this work setting. There is no opportunity for personal development. Workers are not listened to. Their ideas are never sought or considered. All decisions are made at the top levels of the organization. Relationships are dysfunctional and people are only valued for conformity to the dominant culture. Diversity is seen as a threat and differences are cause for suspicion.

The Leadership: *Power, decision-making, goals & direction*

True leadership is missing at all levels of the organization. Power is used by leaders in ways that are harmful to workers and to the organization's mission. Workers do not have the power to act to initiate change. Goals are unclear and people do not know where the organization is going.

The Team: *Community, collaboration and team learning*

People are out for themselves and a highly political climate exists. People are manipulated and pitted against each other in order to motivate performance. Focus is placed on punishing non-performers.

The Culture: *Authenticity, integrity, accountability, creativity, trust, service, communication*

This is an environment characterized by dishonesty and a deep lack of integrity among its workers, supervisors and senior leaders. It is an environment where failure is punished, creativity is stifled and risks are never taken. People are suspicious of each other and feel manipulated and used. There is almost no trust level and an extremely high level of fear because people, especially the leadership, are seen as untrustworthy. At all levels of the organization, people serve their own self-interest before the interest of others. This is an environment that is characterized by totally closed communication.

The Outlook: *Type of workers attracted, action needed*

This is an organization in name only that will find it impossible to find, develop and maintain healthy productive workers who can navigate the changes necessary to improve. The outlook for this organization is doubtful. Extreme measures must be instituted in order for this organization to establish the necessary health to survive.

Appendix P

Permission to Use Vassarstat

From: Richard Lowry [mailto:lowry@vassar.edu]
Sent: Friday, July 09, 2010 12:56 PM
To: Richard S. Freeman
Subject: Re: A message for lowry@vassar.edu

Permission granted. Best of luck with your dissertation.

Richard Lowry

Richard Lowry, PhD
 Professor of Psychology Emeritus
 Vassar College
 Poughkeepsie, NY USA

-----Original Message-----

From: Richard S. Freeman [mailto:freeman565@comcast.net]
 Sent: Friday, July 09, 2010 12:07 PM
 To: freeman565@comcast.net
 Subject: Thank you for contacting Vassar College

The following message was sent through the Vassar College contact form.

July 9, 2010

* * * * * FROM THE VASSAR COLLEGE CONTACT FORM * * * * *

NAME: Richard S. Freeman
 EMAIL: freeman565@comcast.net

SUBJECT:

* * * * * MESSAGE * * * * *

Dr. Lowry: I am a student at Walden University and I am working on my dissertation. I am conducting research that will use point biserial correlation. As such, Walden's IRB requires that I notify you that I intend to utilize the Vassarstat point biserial calculator that you have posted online at <http://faculty.vassar.edu/lowry/pbcorr.html>. I am seeking your permission to use this calculator in my research, and will provide proper citations in accordance with APA 6th edition. I would appreciate it very much if you would contact me at freeman565@comcast.net with an approval, denial, or request for further information. Thank you very much. Richard Freeman

* * * * *

Curriculum Vitae

RICHARD 'SCOTT' FREEMAN

SUMMARY

- Twenty years of law enforcement experience that includes:
 - ◆ Four (4) years front-line police supervisory experience
 - ◆ Eleven (11) years police management/command experience
- Strong educational foundation in public safety, criminal justice, and public policy & administration
- Extensive online education experience as a student
- Experience in traditional classroom instruction / teaching
- A leader with substantial hands-on experience in managing human and capital resources

EDUCATION**Masters in Public Policy and Administration***Walden University, Minneapolis, MN*

2008

Bachelor of Applied Science in Organization Leadership, Magna Cum Laude*Mercer University, Macon, GA*

2006

Thesis: "A New Era of Policing for the Conyers, Georgia Police Department Through the Implementation of CompStat"

Associate of Science in Criminal Justice, Honors*Georgia Perimeter College, Clarkston, GA*

2004

**TEACHING
EXPERIENCE****DeKalb Technical College, Covington, GA**

- Basic Law Enforcement Health & Life Safety, CRJ 101
- Principles of Law Enforcement, CRJ 104
- Lesson plan development

City of Conyers Police Department, Conyers, GA

- Lesson plan development
- Specific courses to meet local, state, and federal government mandates
- Professional Communications
- AS³K Model for community education on reporting incidents to police
- Problem oriented policing
- Robbery prevention and reporting
- Citizens Police Academy

PROFESSIONAL CERTIFICATIONS

- **General Instructor**, *Georgia Public Safety Training Center*, 2009
- **Managerial Certificate**, *Georgia Peace Officers Standards & Training Council*, 2008
- **State Certification Assessor**, *Georgia Association of Chiefs of Police*, 2008
- **Field Training Officer**, *Georgia Peace Officers Standards & Training Council*, 1997
- **Intermediate Certification**, *Georgia Peace Officers Standards & Training Council*, 1997
- **Law Enforcement Certification**, *Georgia Peace Officers Standards & Training Council*, 1992

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

- Delegate of the 17th Georgia International Law Enforcement Exchange (GILEE) to the State of Israel, 2009
- Public safety panel member on Public Safety Issues in Conyers/Rockdale, 2008
- Key speaker at the City of Conyers Annual Volunteer Banquet, 2001 – 2007, 2009, 2010
- Key speaker at the State of the City Address for the City of Conyers, 2003
- Presentation to the Conyers' City Council on the strategic plan for police technology, 2002
- Guest speaker on government information technology at the 2000 Annual Conference on High Technology in Jackson, Mississippi
- Assigned to the United States Department of State during the 1994 Summit of the Americas in Miami, Florida

LAW ENFORCEMENT EXPERIENCE

City of Conyers Police Department

1990 - Present

Captain; Field Services Commander (2004 - Present)

- Reporting directly to the chief of police, manage daily operations for the Patrol Division, Criminal Investigations Division, Special Operations Division, Crime Prevention Unit, Crime Analysis Unit, and the Reserve/Auxiliary Division
- Developed departmental CompStat program and trained all personnel
- Developed problem-oriented component to supplement departmental CompStat paradigm
- Created and implemented new employee commendation program
- Developed department's new web-based performance appraisal system
- Developed the department's "Strategic Response to Crime" plan, which created two distinct crime zones and implemented specific crime control measures and training to enhance officer-citizen interaction / communication
- Authored 2009 COPS Recovery Grant, with three officers awarded for a total of \$409,000.00
- Authored 2009 COPS Technology Grant, with \$230,000.00 awarded to agency

Captain; Deputy Director of IT Department (2001 - 2003)

- Detached from police department to the City Manager with city-wide IT

management responsibilities

- Researched, designed, and implemented the police department's first mobile data computer system
- Managed 9-1-1 operations
- Implemented Phase I and Phase II wireless 9-1-1 service

Lieutenant; Communications/911 Division Commander (1999 - 2001)

- Restructured Communications Division operations
- Authored all policies and procedures for operations
- Achieved Underwriter Laboratory certification for alarm system monitoring
- Researched, designed, and implemented \$500,000.00 technology upgrade for the 9-1-1 Center

Sergeant; Patrol Division (1996 - 1999)

- Served as Interim Communications Division Commander prior to promotion
- Developed highly-proactive police officer team
- Drastically decreased burglary, entered auto, and robbery rates through proactive patrols and various in-progress apprehensions
- Developed and implemented the department's Field Training Program

Various Positions (1990 - 1996)

- Field Training Officer
- Detective
- Traffic Enforcement Officer
- Patrol Officer
- Dispatcher

MEMBERSHIPS

- Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences
- American Society for Public Administration
- Atlanta MetroPol
- Criminal Justice Advisory Committee with DeKalb Technical College
- DeKalb Technical College Law Enforcement Academy Board, *Chairman*
- Georgia Association of Chiefs of Police
- Georgia Police Accreditation Coalition, *State Certification Assessor*
- International Association of Chiefs of Police
- Police Association for College Education
- The American Society of Criminology
- Peace Officers Association of Georgia
- Southern States Police Benevolent Association
- Walden University Doctoral Advisory Community
- Alumni 17th Georgia International Law Enforcement Exchange (GILEE) Delegation