THE STRUCTURAL RELATIONSHIPS AMONG

EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION, SOCIO-MORAL

CLIMATE, ENGAGEMENT, AND CIVIC ATTITUDES

IN A POLICE CONTEXT

By

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To my daughter Mary: You'll always be an inspiration to me and I hope you see that you are never done growing.

To Brigitte: This is the culmination of eight years of our work, an important and meaningful period of my life. I hope you find it worthy of us.

And to my other Mary: Your love, strength, and support have made the difference.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The paradox of freedom is that it must have boundaries; laws that limit its exercise at the point where rights may be infringed. It falls to the police to ensure that these boundaries are respected. In effect, their discretionary decisions define the practical limits of democracy (Bayley, 2001). This is precarious duty because it places the police at the very flash points where rights come up against obligations, and for which the police are themselves answerable. As Goldstein (1990) pointed out, police are "an anomaly in a free society…they are vested with a great deal of authority under a system of government in which authority is reluctantly granted and, when granted, sharply curtailed" (p. 1). How well the police negotiate the delicate balance of regulating freedom hinges on the performance of individual officers and the agencies they represent (Bayley, 2001).

Historically, American law enforcement has modeled itself after the military in the belief that discipline and supervision would guide officers toward fair and consistent exercise of their duties (Cowper, 2000, Jackson, 2012, Mastrofski, 1998). In response to corruption during the time of party bosses and prohibition, police reformers of the early twentieth century moved toward control-oriented models of police administration in order to safeguard the fair administration of justice (Kelling, 1996; Schmalleger, 2010). They adopted the principles of scientific management and paramilitary discipline as bulwarks

against the political corruption and civil rights abuses of the past (Mastrofsky, 1998; King, 2004; Paoline, 2003; Sklansky, 2006; Wilson, 2000). While this professionalized the police, the problems continued and are evidenced in the headlines today (Crank & Caldero, 2010; Pollock, 2010). Consequently, police leaders have been reluctant to loosen their reins of command and control; the old administrative paradigms persist (Fridell, 2004; Jackson, 2012; King, 2004; Sklansky, 2007).

However, as dramatically demonstrated by recent uprisings in the Middle East, prolonged authoritarian leadership can generate backlash (Shelley, 2011; Ghanem, 2011). This is true of the larger society as well as the workplace. In the police workplace, autocratic management has alienated employees and generated counter-cultures, militant unionism, and opposition to organizational initiatives (DeLord, Burpo, Shannon, & Spearing, 2008; Flynn, 2004; Hurd, 2003; Marks & Sklansky, 2008; Sklansky, 2007). In hindsight, it appears that authoritarian police leadership neither fully eliminated the corruption and abuse that justified it, nor has it engendered good will and cooperation among contemporary police employees (Adams, 2008; Sklansky, 2007).

Research indicates that the structure, practices, and socialization processes of organizations have the potential to significantly influence the attitudes and behavior of organizational members (Ashkanasy, Wilderom, & Peterson, 2000; Klockars, Ivkovich, & Haberfeld, 2004; Saks & Ashforth, 1997), including attitudes and competencies related to motivation, ethics, civic attitudes, and performance (Oser, Althof & Higgins-D'Alessandro, 2008; Trevino, Weaver & Reynolds, 2006). Given this, can police agencies be run in a more egalitarian fashion so as to avoid the alienation that authoritarianism creates and to promote more desirable attitudes and behaviors among

police employees?

Numerous studies in a variety of settings have linked participative and democratic management approaches to a wide array of positive individual and organizational outcomes, including improved workforce commitment, job satisfaction, performance, and pro-social orientations (e.g. Heller, 2003; Heller, Pusic, Stauss, & Wilpert, 1998; Pirscher-Verdorfer, 2010; Weber, Unterrainer, & Höge, 2008; Weber, Unterrainer, & Schmid, 2009; Wilkenson, Gollan, Marchington, & Lewin, 2010). This study expanded on this research and extended it to the police field by investigating the associations between police employees' participation in organizational decision-making and their sense of organizational engagement, civic attitudes, and perceptions of socio-moral climate.

Theoretical Framework

This study's theoretical framework is founded on Lawrence Kohlberg's (Power et al., 1989) work with what he termed 'just community' schools in the 1970s. Kohlberg theorized that students' participation in democratic decision-making concerning their school (i.e. students effectively running their school) creates a 'just community' culture that, in turn, advances their personal moral development and sense of civic responsibility. In this way, he linked democratic socialization in the school context to the creation of a healthy culture wherein cognitive moral reasoning and positive social attitudes can flourish (Kohlberg, 1971). This study extends Kohlberg's ideas about democratic participation and the creation of just community to the police context by proposing that participation of police employees in workplace decision-making helps create a healthy organizational climate that promotes strong job engagement and responsible civic

attitudes. Kohlberg based his linkages between democratic participation, just

community, and personal growth on the underlying tenants of experiential learning theory

(ELT).

Experiential Learning Theory (ELT)

John Dewey's (1916) ideas about learning by doing laid the foundation for a

number of experiential learning paradigms, including situated learning, social learning,

action learning, problem-based learning, transformative learning, and service learning.

While all of these are distinct conceptualizations, they share the basic ELT premise of

drawing meaning from direct experience and the grounding of learning within in a

pertinent context. They incorporate Dewey's belief that learning occurs best when it

involves direct experience that has relevance to the learner's needs and context.

Reflection on experience constitutes human thought, and in turn, makes possible the

acquisition of knowledge; "Thinking, in other words, is the intentional endeavor to

discover specific connections between something which we do and the consequences

which result, so that the two become continuous" (Dewey, 1916, p. 145). Dewey (1938)

was convinced that the most valuable form of education was that which facilitated

practical *interaction* with the environment and integration of this experience with existing

knowledge (*continuity*). In this way, the connections between the lessons of the

classroom, work, and society can be manifested; "…all genuine education comes about

through experience" (Dewey, 1938, p. 13).

Dewey's concepts of learning by doing were refined over generations of

researchers and philosophers from several disciplines and evolved into the modern

conception of experiential learning theory. ELT springs from a constructivist

epistemology and humanist philosophy. Constructivism takes account of the fact that the

objective world must be interpreted through our subjective senses and through our pre-

existing social and conceptual frameworks (Guba & Lincoln, 1998). Individuals come to

understand truth and knowledge through relativistic interpretations of the objective world

in a co-constructive process (Crotty, 2009). Humanist learning philosophy stresses the

affective, self-directed, and experiential nature of learning. Humanist education is an

individual and collective process of self-actualization; a process of self-discovery that

integrates knowledge into the learner's conceptual framework (Elias & Merriam, 2005;

Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). Both constructionist epistemology and humanist

philosophy are founded on the experiences of the individual. Experiential learning theory

emerged in large part from foundational studies of childhood cognition; principally the

work of Jean Piaget, Lev Vygotsky, and Emile Durkheim.

Experience and Cognitive Development

Based on extensive observation of childhood behavior, Piaget (1932) developed a

four stage schema of cognitive structures (or stages) for mental development. He

theorized that changes in cognitive structures occurred through a process of *assimilation*

and *accommodation* to environmental stimuli. This includes the development of moral

reasoning.

Vygotsky (1934/1986), interested in the connections between thought and

language, also based his theories of human cognition on observational studies of children.

He developed his theory of "zone of proximal development" (Vygotsky, 1934/1986, p.

187) to represent the zone of experiential social interaction in which children (and adults)

can cognitively grow. He posited that engagement with people and objects in the

external world spurs reflection (*inner speech*), language, thought, and cognitive development. Dialogic experience is the critical factor for this proximal development, "The child's intellectual growth is contingent on his mastering the social means of thought, that is, language" (p. 94).

Durkheim similarly emphasized the social aspects of experiential learning in *Moral Education,* published in 1925. His social psychology approach to education emphasized principles of collectivism, internalization of discipline, attachment to social groups, and the formation of moral autonomy that emerges out of decisions about conflicting social norms. Here, socialization plays a key role in the learning process through the student's attachment to the group. For Durkheim, the early social transmittal of rules and conventions was vital in the struggle against *anomie* (lack of moral order).

Of course, experiential learning theory is not relegated to children. ELT is integral to adult education and to learning in the workplace as well. In this regard, the work of humanist psychologists and educators, such as Carl Rogers and David A. Kolb, are foundational.

Rogers (1969) was concerned with the personal growth and development of the individual. He equated what he termed "significant learning" (Rogers, 1983/1994, p. 20) with experiential learning. This was to be distinguished from cognitive learning, or "learning from the neck-up" (p. 35), which may have no personal meaning or relevance to the individual. Rogers' approach to learning was based on the individual actor's quest for knowledge. The learner's personal involvement, self-initiation, and self-evaluation makes the experience impactful, essential, and relevant. Rogers assumed that the desire for knowledge arises intrinsically out of a drive for fulfillment, much in the tradition of

Maslow's (1954) theory of motivation and adult self-actualization. The role of the teacher is to frame the learning experience as a process of self-discovery in the face of practical, personal, or social problems.

Kolb (1984) defined experiential learning as "the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience; knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience" (p.41). In developing his theory of experiential learning, Kolb drew on Dewey's pragmatism, Piaget's cognition theory, and Kurt Lewin's social psychology, as well as the work of humanist psychologists, such as Maslow, Rogers, and Jung. He typed human experience into *concrete experience* and *abstract conceptualization*, which are modified by two modes of transforming experience – *reflective observation* and *active experimentation*. This model conceives of learning as a four stage cycle in which concrete experiences become the basis for reflections. Reflections, in turn, are distilled into abstract conceptualizations, which become the basis for active experimentation. From this, individuals are able to grasp four types of basic knowledge: divergent, assimilative, convergent, and accommodative (Kolb, 1984). Kolb went on to develop a learning styles inventory based on this model (Kolb & Boyatzis, 2000).

While experiential learning theory has generated many derivatives and iterations, Kolb & Boyatzis (2000) pointed out that ELT has come full circle to its original line of inquiry into the linkages between experience, learning, and development within a social context. The social and communal aspects of learning, experience as a foundation for moral and democratic education, and the individual as the locus of control have been recurring themes for ELT theorists.

For Dewey, experiential learning as a social phenomenon extended to all facets of education and work, including the development of moral reasoning and democratic values; "I believe that much of present education fails because it neglects this fundamental principle of the school as a form of community life…the best and deepest moral training is precisely that which one gets through having to enter into proper relations with others in authority of work and thought" (Dewey, 1916, p. 23-24). This reflects Dewey's conviction in the social and moral nature of education; learning as a communal expression of social responsibility and citizenship. Similarly, Durkheim (1925) saw the 'hidden curriculum' of the school to be "…the morality of the classroom as a small society" (Durkheim as cited in Power, Higgins & Kohlberg, 1989, p. 148). Like Dewey, Durkheim saw formal and informal experience as reinforcing social solidarity and the school as a society in miniature, thereby preparing young students for their work and citizenship roles in the larger world.

Experiential Learning and Kohlberg's 'Just Community' Schools

Lawrence Kohlberg formulated a stage theory for cognitive moral development that he would later incorporate into his conception of 'just community' schools in the 1970s (Power, Higgins & Kohlberg, 1989). In this, he drew on Dewey's progressive concepts of school as community, Piaget's and Vygotsky's studies of childhood experiential cognition, and Durkheim's idea that schools have the duty to socialize students to the underlying values and rules of society (the 'hidden curriculum'); all underpinned by the democratic traditions of Mill, Rousseau, and Kant (Power et al., 1989).

Kohlberg (1971) built on the work of Piaget to postulate a six stage developmental theory of moral reasoning ranging from pain/punishment avoidance to the highest level of moral rationality - conviction in the universality of moral principles. He tied these stages closely to age, but other researchers have emphasized the experiential link, pointing out that moral development continues well into adulthood as a function of education and richness of experience rather than age (Armon & Dawson, 1997; Dawson, 2002; Gibbs, 2003; Rest, Thoma & Edwards, 1997). Drawing on Dewey, Durkheim and Piaget's notions about learning through experience and the school as a microcosm of society, Kohlberg conceived of 'just community' schools as a mechanism for moral development (Power et al., 1989). He felt that the progression of individuals from one moral stage to the next could be effectuated through a 'curriculum of justice' whereby students actively participated in the democratic administration of their school. Kohlberg (1985) believed that students' active participation in democratic dialogue over the goals, rules, and values of their school environment creates a community of justice that promotes moral reasoning. For Kohlberg, moral growth could be promoted through 'educational democracy' that is grounded in the practical and ethical problems of everyday life in the school.

Kohlberg's just community concepts were implemented in six high schools during the 1970s. As practiced in the just community schools, the students directly participated in town hall type meetings in which they discussed and decided school rules, policies, curriculum, conflict resolution, and the behavior of peers. The students also took part in classroom discussions about values and ethics and participated on committees concerning other issues (Kohlberg, 1985). A comparative analysis of the moral cultures of two of

these democratic schools versus traditional, non-democratic schools revealed distinctly different cultures (Power et al., 1989). Students from the democratic schools rated their schools higher on moral culture variables and exhibited significant moral judgment gains in comparison with students in the traditional schools. While the individual differences in terms of moral stage development were relatively modest, the researchers found fairly dramatic differences in what they termed the "political" values of community, democracy, fairness, and order. The researchers also noted that stealing ceased for the most part in the just community schools, race relations improved, educational aspirations increased, and cheating, drug use, and dropout rates were all reduced (Power et al., 1989).

Kohlberg's perspectives were further bolstered by researchers under his direction who studied institutional moral atmosphere in several other contexts. These diverse studies in an Israeli kibbutz, a youth home, and even a prison, linked moral judgment to a sense of community, fairness, participation, and responsibility (Jennings & Kohlberg, 1983; Reimer, 1977; Scharf, 1973; Wasserman, 1977; as cited in Power et al., 1989). The results of these studies and those involving the just community schools led Power et al. (1989) to conclude, "What our research suggests is that cultural development may create cognitive mismatches between the stage of moral reasoning of an individual and the collective stage of the group norms. When such mismatches occur we think there is a social as well as a cognitive inducement to resolve the conflict at a higher stage" (p. 294). Today, the idea of just community schools continues with the Sudbury free schools, which practice various forms of student governance in at least 30 schools in various countries (Feldman, 2001; Skogen, 2010). Kohlberg's conception of just community and

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its links to democratic participation has influenced research in the areas of workplace democracy and organizational climate.

Socio-Moral Climate

Following the experiential, contextualized learning approaches of Dewey (1916), Durkheim (1925), Piaget (1932), Vygotsky (1934), Rogers (1969), and others, Kohlberg (1985) hypothesized that direct experiential participation in a democratic, 'just community' school could advance the moral development of young people, as well as their communitarian and egalitarian values (Power et al., 1989). More recently, Weber, Unterrainer, and Hoge (2008), Weber, Unterrainer, and Schmid (2009), and Pircher-Verdorfer (2010) used similar reasoning in their studies on European work cooperatives. These researchers found connections between democratic workplace processes and the creation of what they termed "socio-moral climate" (SMC), an organizational ethic of open communication, trust, concern, support, and responsibility. As the degree of organizational democracy increased in these enterprises, so did employee perceptions of socio-moral climate, employee commitment, and pro-social orientations. Socio-moral climate was found to partially mediate the effects of organizational democracy on commitment and pro-social orientations.

Summary

Kohlberg (1971, 1985) drew on experiential learning theory, particularly the work of educational theorists and developmental psychologists, to develop his conception of 'just community schools' wherein students exhibited an extraordinary degree of democratic control over their school. He theorized that direct student experience with democracy in action would advance personal moral stage development. He and his

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associates found that direct student participation did, in fact, foster a 'just community' culture which tended to promote cognitive moral development, more ethical behavior, and more positive social attitudes (Power, et al., 1989). Later researchers (Weber et al., 2008; 2009; Pirscher-Verdorfer, 2010) extended Kohlberg's concepts to European companies, finding that democratic organizational practices contributed to a healthy work climate (which they termed 'socio-moral climate') wherein workers felt more committed to their work-related and social responsibilities. The present study extends Kohlberg's theories concerning just community schools (Power et al., 1989), as well as the more recent conception of socio-moral climate (Weber et al., 2008; 2009), to the American police context.

Conceptual Framework

From the discussions of experiential learning, Kohlberg's moral stage development, just community, and socio-moral climate, it is evident that participation is a central element in all cases. Learning through the experience of social participation in decision-making at school and work appears to foster both individual and organizational growth (Hoff, et al., 1991; Kohlberg, 1971, 1985; Lempert, 1994; Pircher-Verdorfer, 2010; Power, et al., 1989; Weber et al., 2008; Weber et al., 2009; Unterrainer et al., 2011). This provides a foundation for considering whether participative processes within law enforcement organizations can promote the development of a healthier work climate, as well as stronger egalitarian and communitarian values among police employees. This study applied Kohlberg's theories about experiential learning within 'just community' social contexts, as well as Weber and associates' (2008; 2009) closely related theories about socio-moral climate within democratic frameworks, to police organizations.

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Previous participation research (Weber et al., 2008; 2009; Pircher-Verdorfer, 2010) indicates that employee involvement in organizational decision-making predicts a significant portion of the variance in perceptions of socio-moral climate, employee commitment, and pro-social orientations, and that SMC partially mediates this process. As in Kohlberg's just community schools (Power et al., 1989) and the worker cooperatives of Europe (Weber et al., 2008; 2009; Pircher-Verdorfer, 2010), the conceptual framework of this study presumes that as police employees' level of participation increases, the more they will perceive socio-moral climate within their organizations, and the greater will be their sense of job engagement and commitment to civic attitudes. Further, both SMC and engagement may partially mediate the effects of participation on the other variables. All of this occurs within the framework of experiential learning theory ('learning by doing' in a 'just community' as defined by Kohlberg, 1971, 1985). Figure 1 displays this conceptual framework.
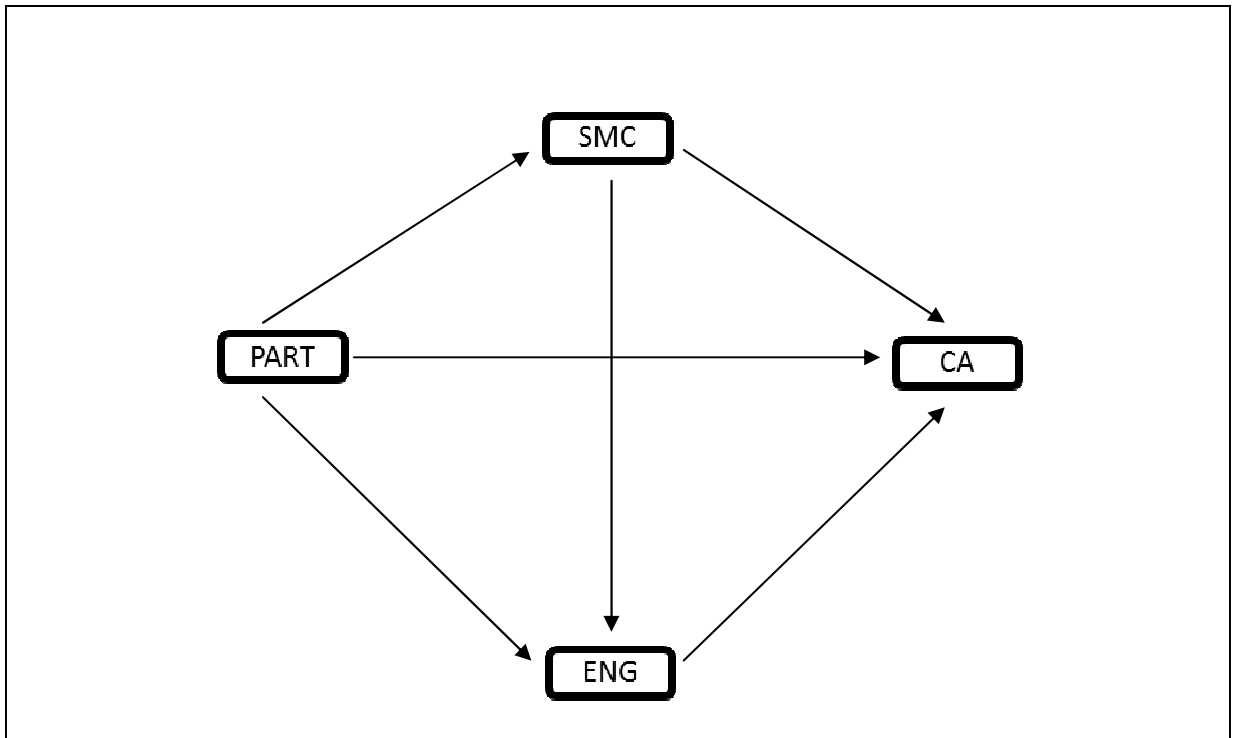
Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

Statement of the Problem

Modern police administration is often criticized for its persistence with autocratic

and bureaucratic management styles (Cowper, 2000; Fridell, 2004; Jackson, 2012;

Maguire & Katz, 2002; Mastrofski, 1998; Paoline, 2003; Sklansky, 2006; Wilson, 2000).

Even as private enterprise and other public sector functions have moved away from

bureaucratic organizational structure in order to harness the creative capacity of human

resources (e.g. Drucker, 2002; Cloak & Goldsmith, 2002; Al-Yahya, 2009), police

managerial theory has not moved much beyond Taylorist notions of scientific

management. Far from creating a 'just community' of democratic values, police

organizations have been accused of generating an 'unjust community' based on unilateral

authoritarianism (Adams, 2008). Bureaucracy and paramilitary hierarchy are thought to

constrain officers with a myriad of rules, regulations, discipline, and administrative

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barriers (Conser, 2012; Cowper, 2000, 2012; Fridell, 2004; Jackson, 2012; Mastrofski, 1998).

It may indeed be the case that police organizations are run according to antiquated notions of top-down management. However, the problem is little is known about employee participation in American policing or its potential effects (e.g. Bayley, 2008; Marks & Sklansky, 2008; Sklansky, 2007; Toch & Grant, 2005). To date, only a few single site case studies of participation have been carried out in the police field. There has been no systematic, multi-agency analysis of participation or its potential outcomes in law enforcement. Until more is known about the level of employee participation that exists in law enforcement and its associated outcomes, debates about the efficacy of one police management style or another are uninformed.

In addition, according to the originators of the construct of socio-moral climate (SMC), SMC has not been studied in an American or a police context prior to this study (Weber, personal communication, September 17, 2010; Pircher-Verdorfer, personal communication, February 9, 2011). Therefore, its importance as an organizational variable in police organizations remains unknown.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research was to examine and describe the relationships among several environmental and organizational behavioral outcome variables in a police setting, including employee participation, socio-moral climate, employee engagement, and civic attitudes. Researchers have largely overlooked the study of employee participation in police agencies (Marks & Sklansky, 2008; Sklansky, 2007). It appears that socio-moral climate has similarly been overlooked. Therefore, this study will help

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fill those gaps in the body of knowledge by undertaking a multiple police agency study of participation and the interactions between these several variables. To this extent, the study can help inform police management and leadership, as well as the theoretical understanding of the interactions between participation, SMC, engagement, and civic attitudes.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

This study addressed two research questions and six research hypotheses. The first question that framed the research was an inquiry into the extent of employee participation that currently exists in American policing. This was assessed via a survey of a relatively large sample of police employees (n = 1891) from fifteen agencies across the United States. The study also inquired into the possible outcomes that may result from police employee participation; specifically whether participation affects employee perceptions of organizational climate, engagement, and civic attitudes. Therefore, based on the literature, six research hypotheses were developed. First, the study hypothesized that the perceived level of participation would predict perceptions of socio-moral climate among police employees (*H1*). Further, the study presumed that participation would predict police employee sense of engagement (*H2*) and civic attitudes (*H3*), and that this relationship would be partially mediated by socio-moral climate (*H4*). In addition, based on research tying engagement to better quality of service and organizational citizenship behavior (Harter et al., 2002; Muse et al., 2008; Saks, 2006), engagement was expected to exert a direct and/or mediating effect on civic attitudes (*H5 and H6*). The following research questions and hypotheses framed the study:

Research Questions:

RQ1: *What is the current perceived level of participation in organizational decision-making among American police employees?*

RQ2: *What are the structural relationships between employee participation, socio-moral climate, engagement and civic attitudes in a police context?*

Based on a review of previous research, six hypotheses were developed in relation to the second research question:

H1: Participation contributes positively to police employees' perceptions of socio-moral climate.

H2: Participation contributes positively to police employees' sense of engagement.

H3: Participation contributes positively to police employees' civic attitudes.

H4: Police employees' perceptions of socio-moral climate mediate the effects of participation on engagement and civic attitudes.

H5: Police employees' sense of engagement contributes positively to civic attitudes.

H6: Police employees' sense of engagement mediates the effects of participation on civic attitudes.

Figure 2 depicts the conceptual framework for the study and the hypothesized relationships among the variables.
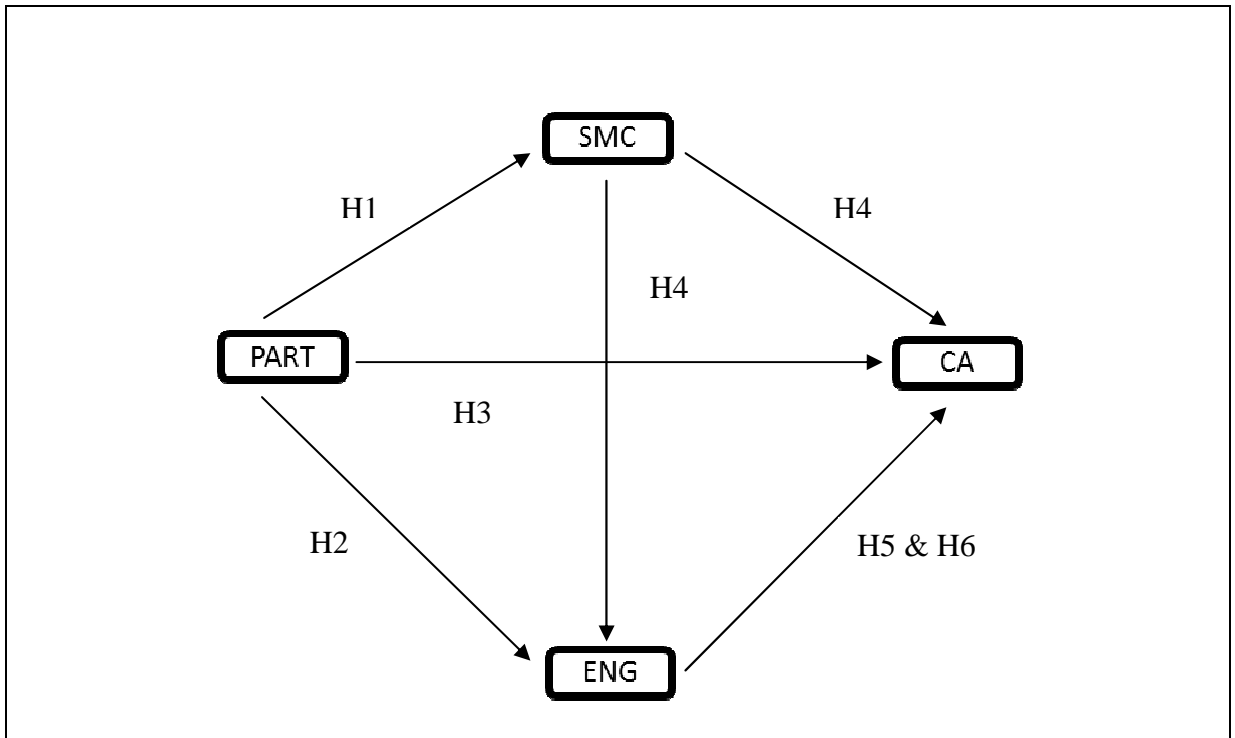
Figure 2: *Conceptual Framework and Research Hypotheses*

Definition of Key Terms

Variables and Conceptual Definitions

  Employee Participation: Employee participation refers to the range of mechanisms used to involve the workforce in decisions at all levels of an organization, whether undertaken directly with employees or indirectly through their representatives (Wilkenson et al., 2010).

  Socio-Moral Climate: Socio-moral climate exists when all or most organizational members regularly confront issues, problems, and conflicts; when there is open and free communication concerning the norms, values and rules of the organization; when there are reliably supportive, trusting, and respectful relationships; and when internal and external organizational responsibility is allocated and shared according to the abilities of the employees (Pircher-Verdorfer, 2010; Weber et al., 2008; 2009).

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Employee Engagement: Employee engagement consists of a persistent and pervasive affective cognitive state of *vigor* and *dedication* while at work that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual, or behavior. Vigor is a state of high energy and resilience; dedication is marked by a sense of enthusiasm, identification, inspiration, and pride (Schaufeli et al., 2009).

Civic Attitudes: Civic attitudes are comprised of one's awareness and affective opinions toward social problems, community involvement, and belief in one's ability to make a difference (Mabry, 1998).

Operational Definitions

Employee Participation: In this study, employee participation consisted of individual respondent perceptions of their personal involvement in tactical and strategic organizational decision-making. It was assessed according to 12 self-report questionnaire items adapted from Weber et al. (2009) and Wegge et al. (2010). Respondents were asked to rate their perceived level of participation in tactical and strategic organizational decision-making according to a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from a low level of "I am not involved at all" to a high level of "I take part in the decision-making."

Socio-moral Climate: In this study, socio-moral climate consisted of individual respondent perceptions of the climate within their police agencies according to: open confrontation with issues; open communication; supportive, trusting and respectful relationships; and internal and external organizational responsibility. This was assessed according to 18 self-report questionnaire items adapted from Weber et al (2009) and Pircher Verdorfer (2010). Respondents were asked to rate the perceived level of socio-

moral climate within their agencies according to a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from a low of "Strongly disagree" to a high of "Strongly agree."

Employee Engagement: In this study, employee engagement consisted of individual respondent perceptions of their personal *vigor* and *dedication* while at work. It was assessed according to eight self-report questionnaire items adapted from Schaufeli et al. (2002). Respondents were asked to rate their perceived level of work engagement according to a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from a low of "Strongly disagree" to a high of "Strongly agree."

Civic Attitudes: In this study, civic attitudes consisted of individual respondent perceptions of their attitudes toward community service, volunteerism, and civic responsibility. It was assessed according to five self-report questionnaire items adapted from Mabry (1998). Respondents were asked to rate their civic attitudes according to a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from a low of "Strongly disagree" to a high of "Strongly agree."

Limitations and Assumptions of the Study

Internal Limitations

Limitations of this study include both internal and external validity concerns. With regard to internal validity, the study tested only predictive relationships. There was no attempt to establish causal relationships between the variables because an experimental control group design was not employed. Second, the study relied on voluntary questionnaire data, attendant with the respondent bias concerns of such data (Fowler, 2002).

The study employed a cross-sectional, single method, quantitative design. Relying solely on survey questionnaire data opens the study to internal validity threats due to common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKensie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Reio, 2010). Common method variance (CMV) refers to bias in the data that may be attributable to measurement method rather than the latent variables the measures are purported to represent. This is a particular problem with respect to self-report, quantitative survey data due to the systematic bias that questionnaires can elicit, thereby artificially inflating or deflating correlations.

Data gathering procedures that can help control for CMV include providing for the anonymity of respondents, providing clear instructions that offer no bias toward a preferred answer, using clear and concise language for all scale items, and counterbalancing the order of questions (Reio, 2010). All of these provisions were incorporated into the design of this study.

CMV can also be examined statistically. Harmon's single factor test suggests that CMV is likely a problem if a single factor is found to explain most of the variance among the measures (Podsakoff et al., 2003). In this study, confirmatory factor analysis was employed to analyze the data and revealed that four different factors, rather than a single factor, explained most of the variance. This tends to improve confidence in the conclusions. Further, the measures represented both attitudinal (i.e. SMC, civic attitudes) and behavioral (i.e. participation, engagement) constructs, which provides an element of cross-validation. Regardless, additional research using alternative measures, such as qualitative interviews or observational data, is warranted to provide convergent evidence in support of the study findings.

External Limitations

Fifteen medium-sized police agencies from across the U.S. participated in this study, yielding a total potential population of 4,222 police employees. Of these, 1,891 individuals completed the entire survey questionnaire. While this is a relatively large sampling of police employees, the generalizability of the results to all police agencies and police employees is still limited because the sampling method was based on purposive rather than random sampling. This was due to access considerations. Police agencies and police chiefs are often not open to the prying eyes of outsiders (Bradley & Nixon, 2009; Bradley, Marks, & Nixon, 2006; Canter, 2004; Engel & Whalen, 2010). Further, rank-and-file police officers can be averse to research efforts generally (Johnston & Shearing, 2009; Thacker, 2008; Wood, Fleming & Marks, 2007). Consequently, the sample and population consisted only of agencies to which the author was able to gain reliable access. Since the population for the study did not include all police agencies and police employees in the country, the results may or may not be generalizable to all American police. Therefore, the primary focus of this research remains exploratory. However, the relatively large data set that encompassed over 50% of the potential sample population, from 15 different agencies spread across the country, is a strong sample that likely provides a degree of generalizability to police in the U.S.

Assumptions

The assumption has been made that employee participation is very limited in American policing. This is based on the lack of documented research on the topic, as well as the opinions of multiple police researchers (Cordner, Scarborough & Sheehan, 2004; Fridel, 2004; Maguire & Katz, 2002; Maguire, Shin, Zhao, & Hassell, 2003; Marks

& Sklansky, 2008; Mastrofski, 1998; Paoline, 2003; Sklansky, 2007). This may, in fact, be a spurious assumption since no large-scale, multi-agency research on police participation could be located in the literature. That was part of the purpose of the study – to gain some empirical insight into this question.

In addition, certain assumptions with regard to the dependence/independence of the variables were made in generating the hypotheses for the study. These assumptions about the order and direction of the influential relationships among the variables were based on the available literature and were tested using various quantitative statistical techniques.

<div align="center">**Significance of the Study**</div>

Practical Implications

To date, there have been very few studies concerning employee participation in policing. All appear to be single site case studies of participative initiatives (Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008; Toch, Grant, & Galvin, 1975; Wycoff & Skogan, 1994). Further, according to the originators of the construct, there have been no studies of socio-moral climate in the police field or in an American context. Therefore, this study may be the first multiple agency assessment of employee participation in policing and is the first research into socio-moral climate in either law enforcement or an American context.

Inasmuch as police agencies continue to have problems with labor-management relations (e.g. Delord et al., 2008), ethical and performance issues (e.g. Crank & Caldero, 2010; Ortmeier & Meese, 2010), and difficulty in effecting organizational change or new service models (e.g. Fridell, 2004; Sklansky, 2007; Skogan, 2004), this study has particular relevance. New modes of police management may be called for. Public

confidence surveys for the police have consistently dropped over the last 30-years, spurring greater research within the law enforcement field on organizational rather than individual interventions in order to attempt to reverse this trend (Klockars, Ivkovich, & Haberfeld, 2004). Numerous studies in other fields have linked organizational participation to a wide array of positive organizational and workforce outcomes (e.g. Strauss, 1998; Wilkenson et al., 2010), yet the concept has not been widely studied nor understood in law enforcement circles. Insights gained from this study may have practical implications for police administrative thinking, as well as police leadership development.

Finally, the study deals with a significant issue. Police have a difficult job, on which much depends. They must perform a delicate balancing act between freedom and security (Alderson, 1979). Questions of ethics, engagement, democratic ideals, and civic responsibility are of particular concern in negotiating this balance.

Theoretical Implications

As the first English translation and application of the socio-moral climate scale to an American context and, in particular, a paramilitary police setting (W. Weber, personal communication, September 13, 2011), this study extends the knowledge concerning SMC in different cultural settings. While conceptually similar to previous studies by Weber and associates (2008; 2009) and Pircher-Verdorfer (2010), as well as sharing aspects with Kohlberg and associates (1971; 1985), this study took place in a far different context. High school students and their schools, and European industrial workers and their cooperatives, are far removed from American police officers and their paramilitary agencies. Inasmuch as context has been consistently identified as either a limiting or

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facilitating factor in other studies of organizational participation (Cotton et al., 1988;

Heller, 2003; Kerr, 2004; Strauss, 1998), socio-moral climate (Weber et al., 2008; 2009;

Pirsher-Verdorfer, 2010), and employee engagement (Schaufeli, Bakker & Van Rhenen,

2009), this study stretches those contextual limits. The findings also contribute to the

still-emerging engagement literature by describing its interrelations with participation,

socio-moral climate, and civic attitudes. Finally, the results bring into question widely

held conceptions concerning the autocratic nature of police organizations. The full

theoretical implications of the study are discussed in detail in Chapter V.

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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

One of the aims of this study was to assess the perceived level of employee

participation in American policing. This chapter will begin by defining the construct of

participation and then examine why it has taken on increasing importance in human

resource management. What is known about participation in policing will be discussed,

as well as its potential importance for that field. Finally, the constructs which make up

the dependent variables in this study will be defined and explained; in particular the

constructs of socio-moral climate, employee engagement, and civic attitudes. This will

provide a foundation for the study's research hypotheses and hypothesized model.

Employee Participation

Employee Participation (EP) is an umbrella term that refers to the systematic

involvement of employees in decision-making. Beyond notions of individual employee

autonomy, organizational participation implies the sharing of power, influence, and

responsibility between superiors and subordinates, groups of subordinates, or

participatory bodies on an organizational level (Wegge et al., 2010). This can occur at

various levels and intensities, can be direct or indirect (via representatives), formal or

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informal. It can run the gamut from employee suggestion systems to co-determinative

work councils (Wilkinson, et al., 2010).

There are actually many terms that are closely related to this concept: shared

leadership, organizational democracy, participative management, collaborative

management, employee influence, participative leadership, etc. (Heller, 2003). While

these terms may refer to practices that differ in their structure and degree, they all share

the common features of employees participating in organizational decision-making and

exerting influence (Heller, Pusic, Strauss, & Wilpert, 1998; Wilkinson et al., 2010).

Why Participation?

Well into the 20th century, theorists disagreed over the best way to manage

organizations. The debate pitted the rationality of scientific management (e.g. Taylor,

1911; Weber, 1947) against the humanist perspectives of organizational psychology (e.g.

Lewin, 1947; Maslow, 1954). While advances in industrial psychology slowly

ameliorated this debate, global forces intervened to push participation to the forefront of

management theory.

Scientific Management

Initially, principles of scientific management gained ascendency in every aspect

of human enterprise (Lynch, 1998). Scientific management was a product of the

Progressive Movement, with its belief in the power of science to intercede on behalf of

the human condition, both economically and socially (Eisner, 2000). It also fed the

industry's hunger for efficiency and productivity. The Progressivist reform agenda

sought a more rational design for social institutions in order to promote economic

opportunity, prosperity, and justice (Eisner 2000). Consequently, Taylor's (1911) time

and motion studies looked for ways to speed production and reduce waste, Weber's

(1947) principles of hierarchy, unity of command, division of labor, and rule-based

decision-making professionalized bureaucracy, and Gulick's (1937) POSDCORB

(planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting) ensured

accountability and rationality. However, scientific management came in for criticism on

the grounds that it treated people as little more than the passive instrumentalities of

industry and for creating inflexible bureaucracy (Lynch 1998; Dantzker 1999).

Organizational Humanism

Elton Mayo's studies in the Hawthorne Plant of the Western Electric Company

between 1924 and 1932 opened the door to consideration of the human element in the

production process (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939). What came to be known as the

Hawthorne studies made clear that things like social norms, interpersonal relationships,

leadership, ego, status, attention ("Hawthorn effect"), and worker input could all

significantly impact productivity. The importance of psychology in the workplace and of

the individual as a level of analysis became apparent.

Organizational humanism emerged as a prominent field of study and is reflected

in foundational research, such as Herzberg's (1966) motivation-hygiene factor theory,

McGregor's (1960) theory X and Y, and Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs. These

theories shared common threads based in human motivation and workplace behavior.

They recognized the weaknesses of the scientific management approach and proposed

"The Human Side of Enterprise" (McGregor, 1960) as an alternative conceptualization

that sought to value rather than control human resources.

Management, Knowledge, and Participation

Eventually, elements of both scientific management and organizational humanism were incorporated into modern management theory (Bolman & Deal, 2003; Likert, 1967; Lynch 1998). Management came to recognize that structure, systems and authority must share their place in the workplace alongside industrial and organizational psychology.

However, the advent of the knowledge era and global competition shifted the emphasis toward the human resource side of the equation. In an unstable, rapidly evolving, and globalized environment, enterprises turned to their human capital for flexibility, adaptability, and the organizational learning that could keep them competitive (e.g. Drucker, 2002; Heifetz, 2000; Senge, 1990). Creativity and innovation are clearly human assets that cannot be owned per se by a corporate entity. Power has therefore devolved to those who are doing knowledge work, which is the new means of production (e.g. Cloke & Goldsmith, 2002; Drucker, 2002; Raelin, 2004). This has fundamentally altered the relationship between management and workers. Raelin (2004) described the shift this way:

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

This shift in the traditional relationship between management and worker has moved the decision-making process down within organizations (Belasco & Strayer, 1993; Butcher & Clarke, 2002). As never before, employees are included in organizational decisions (Butcher & Clarke, 2002; Pearce, Hoch, Jeppeson & Wegge, 2010; Wegge et al., 2010). This is evident in the widespread use of team-based work, autonomous job design, and structurally supported employee involvement (Al-Yahya, 2009; Cloke & Goldsmith,

2002; Drucker, 2002; Pearce & Conger, 2003; Wilkinson et al., 2010). It may be that

Cloke and Goldsmith (2002) were a bit premature in their pronouncement that "The Age

of Management is finally coming to a close" (p. 3); but clearly, the stock of front line

workers in a knowledge-based economy has risen, and with it their opportunity for input,

influence, and participation.

Participation Research

Participation research has asserted an array of positive outcomes associated with

the involvement of employees in decision-making. For instance, research has linked

participation to improved employee commitment (e.g. Meyer & Allen, 1997; Weber et

al., 2009; Unterrainer, Palgi, Weber, Iwanowa, & Oesterreich, 2011), job satisfaction

(e.g. Kim, 2003; Wagner, 1994; Wood, 2010), perceptions of organizational support (e.g.

Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo & Lynch, 1998; Rhoades & Eisenerger, 2002),

organizational citizenship behavior (e.g. Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-LaMastro, 1990;

VanYperen, van den Berg, & Willering, 1999), community-related value orientations

(Spreitzer, 2007; Weber, et al., 2008; 2009; Unterrainer et al., 2011); lower absenteeism

and turnover (Huselid, 1995; McLagan & Nel, 1995); improved labor-management

relations (e.g. Ospina & Yaroni, 2003; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008); better

organizational efficiency and productivity (Birdie et al., 2008; Huselid, 1995); and even

improved employee health (Foley & Polanyi, 2006). These findings have led many

private and public enterprises to embrace inclusive decision making as an operational

strategy in order to leverage human capital in a highly volatile economic environment

(e.g. Cloke & Goldsmith, 2002; Drucker, 2002).

Some writers have extended the workplace advantages of participation to the larger society. In *Participation and Democratic Theory*, Pateman (1970) argued for a 'spillover thesis' in which participation in the workplace could result in greater socio-political participation generally. Not unlike Dewey, Pateman saw the experiential learning potential of the workplace for cultivating good citizenship. In her view, the real value of employee participation was not in increased productivity or profitability, but in furtherance of democratic values. Democratic theorists have argued that institutions, be they educational or occupational, have the power to shape individual attitudes and behavior so that democratic experiences at work may potentially spill beyond the workplace (Macpherson, 1977; Pateman, 1970). However, empirical evidence for the spillover effect is uneven (Carter, 2006; Greenberg, 2008). Several studies have established that participation may have some impact on political action, but the effect is highly context specific. For instance, the structure and intensity of participation, organizational size, individual worker expectations, external circumstances, the level of autonomy, and level of interpersonal conflict can all affect whether employee participation has any impact on political participation (Greenberg, 2008; Greenberg, Grunberg, & Daniel, 1996).

While many studies have linked participation with positive workforce outcomes, several meta-analyses, as well as original studies of workplace participation, have showed mixed results (Cotton et al., 1988; Coyle-Shapiro, 1999; Kahnweiler & Thompson, 2000; Locke & Schweiger, 1979; Wood, 2010). A common thread appears to be the importance of context and the degree and structure of participation (e.g. Cotton et al., 1988; Heller, 2003; Strauss, 1998). Further, effects of participation are often thought

to be mediated by other variables, such as perceived organizational support, organizational culture, or various demographic characteristics (e.g. Kahnweiler & Thompson, 2000; Kerr, 2004; Strauss, 1998). Kerr (2004) cautioned, that participation is not a panacea; "it fulfills its promise only under certain conditions and circumstances, and those limitations need to be recognized and respected" (p.94). Generally, employee participation should support the mission of the organization, take situational constraints into account, and have the full backing of organizational leaders (Argyris, 1998; Kerr, 2004; Strauss, 1998). If these conditions are met, there seems to be agreement that participation can positively impact the workforce and the organization.

The IDE studies. The Industrial Democracy in Europe studies (IDE, 1981; 1993), conducted in 1977 and 1987, were the most comprehensive studies of employee participation that have been attempted. The cross sectional and longitudinal IDE research aimed to measure employee participation across Europe. In the first study (IDE, 1981), a questionnaire survey was circulated among 7,832 randomly selected employees in 134 companies from 12 countries. The second study (IDE, 1993), ten years later, surveyed 96 organizations in 11 countries. In both cases, employees were asked to rate their level of decision-making influence from a low of 1 ("no influence") to a high of 5 ("very much influence").

Both the 1977 and the 1987 studies found relatively low levels of employee participation ("little influence") across most companies and countries, with the single exception of the former Yugoslavia where participation was rated in the low to moderate category ($M = 2.44$). Further, there was not much change over the ten year span of the studies. Participation seemed to increase in enterprises in three countries and declined in

one. The overall levels of participation remained in the "little influence" category. The most significant factors affecting participation seemed to be economic conditions (unemployment) and the presence of rules and policies either facilitating or restricting employee participation. Of these, economic factors were the stronger predictor. During times of economic downturn and unemployment perceived employee participation fell while the influence of upper management increased. The general level of participation was low enough that the authors of the studies questioned the viability of employee influence as a significant factor, "Furthermore, given such a very low level of participation, even in Germany where legally supported co-determination has existed since the early 1950s, is it reasonable to expect participation to produce measurable improvement in an organization's profitability or a reduction in conflict?" (p. 149). The IDE (1981; 1993) authors concluded that formal organizational structures (rules and policies) were the most reliable means of supporting employee participation in the workplace. They expressed little confidence in informal or ad hoc arrangements.

Recent participation research. More recent participation research, with direct relevance to this study, involved investigations of the relationships between participation and the constructs of employee commitment, organizational climate, and pro-social orientations. As previously noted, in studies of 33 enterprises in Germany, Austria, and Italy, Weber et al. (2008; 2009) and Pirscher-Verdorder (2010) found associations between participation and perceptions of socio-moral organizational climate, commitment, and pro-social orientations. Specifically, participation explained a significant degree of the variation in socio-moral climate, affective commitment and pro-social orientations. Further, their model indicated a partial mediating role for socio-moral

climate between participation and the other variables. Similarly, in research carried out with 606 employees in Israeli Kibbutzim and European enterprises, Unterrainer et al. (2011) found that perceived participation predicted employee affective commitment, as well as ethical and humanitarian value orientations.

Participation and Police

The research on employee participation has been somewhat limited in the field of policing (Marks & Sklansky, 2008; Sklansky, 2007). It has come principally in two areas. First, participation has been studied within the context of officer attitudes toward community oriented policing. Second, there have been a few single-site case studies of participative initiatives and the associated outcomes in law enforcement agencies.

Community oriented policing is a strategy that seeks to partner police with their community constituents in addressing crime concerns. It is a proactive, problem-solving approach to crime control, but has been somewhat controversial among police who have tended to dismiss it as public relations or social work (Fridell, 2004; Skogan, 2004). Research in this area has explored the degree to which participatory management styles affect line-officer acceptance of, confidence in, and satisfaction with community policing (e.g. Adams, Rohe & Arcury, 2002; Wycoff & Skogan, 1994). The findings suggest that police officer participation in decision-making is conducive to acceptance of community policing. Yet, the research also indicates that these findings have had little impact on police organizational structure or managerial practices, which have tended to remain hierarchical and authoritarian (Fridell, 2004; King, 2004; Mastrofski, 1998; Vito, Walsh & Kunselman, 2005).

Beyond studies that investigated the impact of participation on community

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policing, some research has explored other aspects of police workforce participation. Several studies in Oakland, California in the 1970s (Muir, 1977; Toch, Grant & Galvin, 1975) experimented with internal police democratic processes in the hope that such reforms might foster greater respect for civil liberties (spillover effect). The results were encouraging; researchers found that training in democratic values, creating opportunities for employee participation, and use of participative management approaches could improve police-citizen interactions and reduce incidents of police violence. The innovative approaches in Oakland were eventually abandoned because militant police unionism in that same timeframe caused police leaders to shy `away from notions of officer empowerment (Sklansky, 2006).

A quasi-experimental study in the Madison, Wisconsin Police Department in the early 90s found that, in addition to facilitating acceptance of community policing, a participative Quality Leadership initiative resulted in significantly higher police job satisfaction and stronger task identity among officers (Wykoff & Skogan, 1994). In one experimental police precinct, officers were afforded extensive autonomy and involvement in workplace decision-making, including selection of their supervisors. Other police precincts were held as control sites. The participative precincts were evaluated at three points in time using questionnaire data gathered from experimental and control group police officers. Perceived participation was significantly higher in the experimental group, as were perceptions of job satisfaction and stronger task identity. The Madison experiment eventually waned following the retirement of the Madison Police Chief who implemented it (D. Cowper, personal communication, February 14, 2011).

In a two-year study of high involvement of rank-and-file police employees in

organizational decision-making, Steinheider and Wuestewald (2008) found that participation significantly predicted employee commitment, morale, and improved perceptions of labor-management relations. They also found correlations with discretional employee productivity and reduced citizen complaints. Beck (1999), in a study of police officers in Australia and New Zealand, found employee involvement in decision-making to be a mediator between officer commitment and perceived organizational support. In studies of correctional and probation officers, Slate, Wells and Johnson (2003), Farkas (2001), and Simmons, Cochran and Blount (1997), the researchers concluded that employee participation may reduce stress and burnout in some cases.

Why is participation important to policing? The results of the foregoing studies indicate that generally positive outcomes are associated with the involvement of police employees in organizational decision-making. However, apart from these isolated cases, it would appear, and many believe, that law enforcement in the U.S. has not significantly modified its traditional autocratic approach to human resource management (Cowper, 2000; Fridell, 2004; King, 2004; Mastrofski, 1998; Silvestry, 2007). In fact, some believe that police management has moved in the direction of even greater command and control since the widespread adoption of Compstat-type supervision police oversight in the late 1990s, which emphasizes top-down accountability and data-driven operational strategies (Eterno & Silverman, 2006). Certainly, the subject of police participation has not been sufficiently studied, so it is hard to say whether police management is currently liberalizing or tightening its approach to human resource management (Toch & Grant, 2005; Marks & Sklansky, 2008; Sklansky, 2007).

However, the general consensus among researchers, and some police leaders, is that police organizations need to flatten their levels of bureaucracy and liberalize their administrative decision-making in order to leverage human resources in the same way that private industry does, as well as to promote quality, fairness, and unbiased service to all segments of the community (e.g. Bayley, 2008; Fridell, 2004; Goldstein, 1990; Kelling, 1999; Marks & Sklansky, 2008, Mastrofski, 1998; Ortmeier & Meese, 2010; Paoline, 2003; Sklansky, 2007, Skogan, 2004; Wycoff & Skogan, 1994).

The ultimate hope for the internal democratization of police organizations is that such reforms will help foster Pateman's (1970) "spillover effect" in terms of greater respect for democratic rights and values among the police generally (Sklansky, 2007). As Power et al., (1989) remark, "How ironic it is that in a democratic society so few of us are prepared to conduct our daily lives in a democratic manner" (p. 299). This may be the basic paradox of police management. On the one hand, officers are given ultimate authority to deprive citizens of life and liberty, while on the other they are not trusted to provide meaningful input concerning their own work lives. Cordner, Scarborough, and Sheehan (2004) described the issue:

> What organizational structure and management style are appropriate for such an enterprise (police work)? If we were to judge by the typical police department, our answer would be a hierarchical, centralized organization with an authoritarian, punishment-oriented management style. Some observers doubt, however, that this style of administration is best suited to manage workers (police officers) whose jobs involve making momentous life-and-death discretionary decisions, in unpredictable situations, without the benefit of supervisory advice. We agree with these observers (p. 39).

In the process of setting up these various organizational constraints, police leaders often manage to disenfranchise their employees, thereby contributing to workforce resistance, alienation, and stratification (Cordner, et al., 2004; DeLord et al., 2008; Kelling, 1999;

Sklansky, 2006; Skogan, 2004; Toch & Grant, 2005). Studies have found a high degree

of polarization between police officers based on rank, seniority, gender, ethnicity, even

job specialization (King, 2004; Paoline, 2003; Paoline & Terrill, 2003; Sklansky, 2006).

Often, police administrators find themselves squaring off against police unionists and

various subgroups in adversarial relationships, making cooperation difficult and

reinforcing autocratic decision making (Cordner, et al., 2004; DeLord et al., 2008; Marks

& Sklansky, 2008). Given these problems, American law enforcement will find it

difficult to engage the assets of an increasingly talented and educated workforce, thereby

hindering innovation and new service models. Further, autocratic, behavioral-type

management practices and training methodologies do little to develop the critical

reasoning skills that are so important to police officer performance on the street (Birzer &

Tannehill, 2001).

      The ethical context of policing. Certainly, the ethical dilemmas police officers

face are complex and consequential. In the context of policing, moral reasoning goes

beyond simple legalistic interpretation of statutes. Police work is a high risk enterprise.

The work is inherently discretionary, usually takes place out of sight of direct

supervision, and requires extra-legal resolutions to problems that frequently are not

covered by regulations manuals (Bitner, 1967; Delattre, 2002; Hall, 2000; Wilson, 1968;

2000). Yet, police organizations typically address questions of ethics and morality only

minimally as part of the official police academy curriculum, with little practical or

continuing reinforcement other than formal discipline (Ortmeier & Meese, 2010; Crank

& Caldero, 2010). Experiential learning opportunities in law enforcement are rarely

mined for their inherent growth opportunities (Alarid, 1999; Gottschalk, 2008; Ortmeier

& Meese, 2010). Ironically, as Bitner (1967) and Wilson (1968) demonstrated decades ago, command and control management is a fallacy in policing. Police discretion rules the street, not the policy manual or formal supervision. Ethics researchers and police reformers point to the importance of developing healthy organizational climate and a degree of self-regulation among police officers as imperatives for the future of policing (Cordner et al., 2004; Crank & Caldero, 2010; DeLord et al., 2008; Marks & Slansky, 2008; Ortmeier & Meese, 2010; Sklansky, 2007; Toch & Grant, 2005). Certainly, Kohlberg (1971; 1985) believed that ethical reasoning was advanced through healthy organizational climate, and his just community school studies support this theory (Power et al., 1989).

As noted, employee participation has been tied to a number of potential workforce and organizational outcomes. Based on the literature, the present study hypothesized that employee participation in decision-making contributes to better organizational climate, increased employee engagement, and stronger civic attitudes.

Socio-Moral Climate

Kohlberg's 'just community' approach posed the question of whether fundamental democratic values such as fairness, responsibility, service, civic mindedness, critical thinking, and moral competencies can be advanced through a community of participation (Power et al., 1989). Although Kohlberg focused on the moral development of the individual, he hypothesized that this was facilitated through a communitarian context; the growth of the individual through creation of a social system of collective norms, cohesiveness, and moral atmosphere (Gibbs, 2003; Power & Reimer, 1978; Power et al., 1989). Subsequent researchers have focused more on the community aspects of

Kohlberg's ideas in both school and work contexts (Gibbs, 2003; Higgins-D'Alessandro & Devyani, 1997; Lempert, 1994; Oser, Althof & Higgins-D'Alessandro, 2008). These studies have concentrated on the community as the locus of control rather than the individual.

Following the work of Kohlberg, German researchers Hoff, Lempert, and Lappe (1991) concluded from a longitudinal study of industrial workers that just community occupational arrangements could contribute to workers' moral stage progression (as cited in Lempert, 1994). Lempert (1994) further reasoned that direct involvement of employees in workplace debate concerning rules, norms, and values leads to internal cognitive conflict and the subsequent search for fair resolutions. This, coupled with participation in shared decision-making, promotion of personal responsibility, and the creation of supportive emotional networks can foster moral stage progression. Lempert concluded, "Since the most convincing moral lessons are taught by real experiences, 'moral' workers are not only required, but also produced by 'moral' work" (p. 467).

Weber, Unterrainer and Hoge (2008) introduced the concept of *socio-moral atmosphere* as a sub-domain of organizational climate. This concept was further refined in research conducted by Weber et al. (2009) and Pirscher-Verdorder (2010), resulting in the conception of socio-moral climate (SMC). Drawing heavily on Kohlberg's just community concept, socio-moral climate exists when the majority of organizational members regularly confront issues, problems, and conflicts; when they engage in open communication and participative cooperation concerning organizational values, norms, and rules; when responsibility for internal and external organizational interests are jointly shared; when there are reliable, trusting, supportive, and respectful relationships; and

when there is appropriate organizational concern for the individual. The existence of socio-moral climate is presumed to have an impact on organizational members' values, attitudes and behavior, as well as the development of sophisticated moral competencies.

Climate versus Culture

The concepts of organizational climate and organizational culture both refer to a collective social phenomenon. Culture is typically taken to represent the behavioral regularities of a group, including the norms, values, formal philosophies, and shared mental models that underlie behavior, as well as all the symbols and rituals that display these cultural assumptions (Schein, 2010). Culture consists of all the structures, processes, and shared expectations that influence the thinking and behavior of organizational members. As Schein (2010) pointed out, culture imposes a belief set on prospective group members:

> The culture of a group now can be defined as a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, which has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems (p. 18).

In contrast, the concept of climate (as used in the sense of SMC) is a more subjective and interactional construct, wherein the individual is as much the source of climate as is the organization; the individual interacts with, interprets, and co-constructs meaning with the organizational context (Weber et al., 2009). Climate, as an aspect of culture, represents how organizational members interact with each other and outsiders (Ashkanasy, Wilderom, & Peterson, 2000). Climate is also behaviorally oriented, whereas the construct of culture refers to the values that underlie behavior (Schneider, 2000; Svyantek & Bott, 2004).

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With relevance to the present study, assumptions about an organizational construct, such as climate, can be inferred by aggregating individual data concerning shared perceptions and psychological meanings within a sample (James, 1982). Patterson et al. (2005) point out that behaviorally-oriented climate research has typically been conducted via quantitative means, while culture research has usually been pursued through qualitative methods.

Socio-Moral Climate Links to Participation

Weber and associates (2008; 2009) and Pirscher-Verdorfer (2010) have posited that SMC is most likely to develop in organizations marked by democratic management practices and have found some preliminary evidence for this in some small manufacturing enterprises in Austria, Italy, and Germany. Their results indicated a link between organizational democracy and the development of socio-moral climate, as well as increased employee commitment and community-related value orientations, wherein SMC partially mediated the effects. As the level of participation in decision-making increased, so too did the perceptions of socio-moral climate, as well as commitment and pro-social orientations (Weber, et al., 2009). Like Kohlberg's just community schools, worker participation in all aspects of their enterprise seemed to promote communitarian and humanitarian values.

Hoff, Lempert, & Lappe (1991), Lempert (1994), as well as Weber and associates (2008; 2009) and Pirscher-Verdorfer (2010), provide support for Kohlberg's ideas, but within the workplace rather than the school. Their findings suggest that participative occupational frameworks have the capacity to foster justice-oriented work climates,

commitment, pro-social community orientations, and individual moral stage development. The linchpin in this conception is participation.

These studies on participation and socio-moral climate have also linked participation to commitment (Pirscher-Verdorfer, 2010; Weber et al., 2008; 2009). Commitment is similar to the newer concept of engagement, although there are important distinctions (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008). In some respects, engagement is thought to be a more robust construct since it is behaviorally, rather than attitudinally, anchored (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Saks, 2006). Consequently, this study also describes the associations between participation and employee engagement.

Employee Engagement

Employee engagement (EE) is a relatively new construct that emerged first in the practitioner literature and only more recently in the academic field (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Consequently, there is considerably less empirical research on engagement and its theoretical frame is still emerging (Rich, Lepine & Crawford, 2010; Macey & Schneider, 2008). Bakker and Schaufeli (2008) noted that while there have been more than 2 million internet hits on "employee engagement" (as of 2008), there were only 61 research articles in the *PychInfo* database. Consulting firms and practitioner journals frequently use the term "engagement" to refer to a general state of emotional attachment and discretionary effort in the workplace (Baumruck, 2004).

Kahn (1990) conceptualized engagement in terms of psychological presence at work, with Rothbard (2001) adding the components of attention and absorption. Other researchers concentrated on the antithesis of engagement by studying negative workplace constructs, such as burnout (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001; Schaufeli, Salanova,

Gonzalez-Roma & Bakker, 2002). These investigations viewed engagement as a sort of immunization against burnout and stress in the workplace. Maslach et al. (2001) proposed that engagement might consist of energy, involvement, and efficacy in juxtaposition to the negative characteristics of exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy.

Boosted by the positive organizational scholarship movement, which studies positive workplace phenomena (Cameron & Casa, 2004), engagement theory crystallized into a set of affirmative propositions. Saks (2006) generally defined employee engagement as "…a distinct and unique concept that consists of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components that are associated with individual role performance" (p. 602). He further distinguished it from organizational commitment (OC), organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and job involvement, noting that these constructs are less interactive than engagement and more attitudinal. Macey and Schneider (2008), on the other hand, asserted that engagement is *inclusive* of OC and OCB. Saks also distinguished between organizational engagement and job engagement. Employees may like their chosen profession, but not be fully engaged within a particular organization. Similarly, a particular project may be engaging, but the organizational context is not. In this respect, Saks found significantly higher job than organizational engagement in his study of Canadians employed in a variety of occupations. Saks also pointed out that broad conceptualizations of engagement tend to overlap pre-existing constructs such as organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior; greater precision is needed for scholarly research.

Schaufeli and colleagues' (2002) conception of *vigor, dedication, and absorption* provided greater specificity for the concept of engagement. Further, these characteristics

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are subsumed within an overriding attitude of psychological involvement, "Rather than a momentary and specific state, engagement refers to a more persistent and pervasive affective cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual, or behavior" (Schaufeli et al., 2001, p. 74). The authors defined vigor as a state of high energy and resilience when at work. Dedication is marked by a sense of enthusiasm, identification, inspiration, and pride. Absorption is a state of mind wherein one is completely engrossed in the work to the exclusion of time or other distractions. Schaufeli, Bakker, and Van Rhenen (2009) would later deemphasize the criterion of absorption as it tends to be a more context specific, task-related phenomenon.

Social exchange theory (Gouldner, 1960) has been used to explain how the antecedents of organizational engagement work (Saks, 2006). Social exchange theory hypothesizes that a reciprocity relationship arises when employees receive economic, work-related, or socio-emotional resources from their organization. This creates trusting, loyal, committed relationships wherein employees engage more deeply with their work roles. Therefore, some of the principal antecedents of engagement are provision of resources (economic, work-related, and socio-emotional) (Schaufeli, Bakker & Van Rhenen, 2009), feedback and autonomy (Maslach et al., 2001), perceived organizational support (Muse, Harris, Giles & Field, 2008), fairness and safety (Saks, 2006; Kahn, 1990), and job satisfaction (Harter, Schmidt & Hayes, 2002). Notably, these antecedents are closely aligned with the criteria for socio-moral climate and describe several of its sub-domains.

Employee engagement has been linked to a number of outcomes, including improved organizational and business unit performance (e.g. Harter et al., 2002), reduced

employee burnout (Maslach et al, 2001; Schaufeli, et al., 2001), increased organizational

citizenship behavior (Rich et al., 2010; Saks, 2006), as well as better employee retention

(Saks, 2006; Schaufeli, Bakker & Van Rhenen, 2009), organizational commitment and

job involvement (Harter, et al., 2002; Muse, et al., 2008), service quality and

organizational citizenship behavior (Harter, et al., 2002; Rich et al., 2010).

Employee Engagement versus Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment and organizational engagement are similar concepts.

In fact, Bakker and Schaufeli (2008) have noted that some critics argue that it amounts to

'putting old commitment wine in new engagement bottles.' However, most engagement

researchers do draw distinctions between the two constructs (Macey & Schneider, 2008;

Saks, 2006). Several point to the behavioral orientation of engagement (Bakker &

Schfaufeli, 2008; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Saks, 2006). In contrast, commitment

appears to be more attitudinal. This is evident in the oft used Meyer and Allen (1997)

commitment scale:

Affective domain: *"This organization has a great deal of meaning for me."*

Continuance domain: *"I believe I have too few options to consider leaving this*

organization."

Normative domain: *"This organization deserves my loyalty."*

The organizational commitment domains are based on attitudes or emotional

criteria. Ajzen (2005) defines an attitude as "a disposition to respond favorably or

unfavorably to an object, person, institution, or event" (p. 3). While attitudes are

predictors of future behavior, they are less powerful than intentions or past behavior

(Ajzen, 2005). Organizational engagement is likewise attitudinal, but engagement scales

also assess behavioral data. For instance, the engagement scale developed by Schaufeli et al. (2001) contains the following questions relating to past or present behavior: "*At my work, I feel bursting with energy*"; "*At my work, I always persevere, even when things do not go well*"; "*I feel strong and vigorous when I'm studying or going to class.*" Many of the items in an engagement scale reflect current or past behavior, as well as intentions for the future. By and large, commitment scales do not measure current or past behavior in the way that engagement scales do. This makes engagement scales more robust in that they measure behavior which is under the control of the respondent. In addition, as an antipode of burnout, engagement displays discriminant validity when measured against negative burnout factors (Schaufeli et al., 2001). For example, Schaufeli et al. (2009) found a "positive gain spiral" in which engagement factors directly countered burnout factors, leading to recursive cycles of improvement.

Generally, engagement seems a more holistic construct than commitment. Commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, and job involvement are all constructs that are subsumed within the concept of employee engagement (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008; Saks, 2006).

Engagement Links to Civic Attitudes

Based on the service nature of police work, as well as research indicating that engagement contributes to service quality and organizational citizenship behavior (Harter, et al., 2002; Lepine & Crawford, 2010), it was hypothesized in this study that there would be an association between engagement and civic attitudes. In a study of firefighters, Rich et al. (2010) found that engagement predicted organizational citizenship behavior, as well as a wide array of positive work behaviors and attitudes. They opined

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that "perhaps engagement increases the breadth of the activities that individuals consider to be part of their roles…they simply throw their full selves into their roles, which they understand to include any activity that could potentially contribute to their effectiveness" (p. 628). Like firefighting, police work is a public service with a broad social context. It is expected that police employees would be generally civic minded. However, employee engagement may vary individually and organizationally. This study examined whether participation and / or organizational climate might contribute to greater engagement and therefore also translate into more positive civic attitudes. Certainly, pro-social orientations have been noted as an outcome in most of the 'just community' research that has been conducted in both school and occupational settings (Pirscher-Verdorfer, 2010; Power et al., 1989; Unterrainer et al., 2011; Weber et al., 2008; 2009).

Civic Attitudes

Perspective-taking is important to the development of empathy which, in turn, is key to the development of pro-social orientations and positive civic attitudes (Gibbs, 2003; Hoffman, 2000). For Kohlberg (1985), perspective-taking was central to his conceptualization of cognitive moral development and just community. He felt that the social give and take of dialogic debate among peers helps facilitate perspective-taking and the integration of new ideas into one's existing moral framework. Respect for democratic ideals and positive civic attitudes are presumed to emerge as a byproduct of moral stage progression. Based on the just community theories of Kohlberg (1971; 1985) and the research of Hoff, Lempert, & Lappe (1991), Lempert (1994), Weber and associates (2008; 2009), and Pirscher-Verdorfer (2010), that link participation, socio-moral climate, and pro-social orientations, it was hypothesized in this study that

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democratic participation will contribute to stronger communitarian values. Further, these communitarian values may be expressed both internally within organizations (SMC and employee engagement) and externally with respect to the larger society (civic attitudes).

Mabry (1998) looked at the development of positive civic attitudes in the context of service learning. Service learning is a form of experiential learning that immerses students in community activities or volunteerism as part of a formalized curriculum and has been touted as promoting positive civic attitudes (Mabry, 1998; Sax & Austin, 1997). Civic attitudes are defined as one's awareness of and affective opinions toward social problems, community involvement, and belief in one's ability to make a difference (Giles & Eyler, 1994; Mabry, 1998). In Mabry's research, she found that participation in service learning activities did contribute to more positive civic attitudes among college students.

Summary

The competing paradigms of scientific management and organizational humanism were eventually incorporated into a holistic approach to management that called for structure and supervision on the one hand, and attention to the psychological aspects of the workplace on the other (Dantzker, 1999; Lynch, 1998). The advent of the knowledge era shifted the balance toward the human resource side of the scale as organizations sought to tap their human capital in order to remain competitive in a global economy (Boleman & Deal, 2003; Drucker, 2002). Generally, organizations have moved away from bureaucratic management, toward flattened hierarchies with more participative and inclusive arrangements that can better leverage workforce knowledge and capabilities (Butcher & Clark, 2002; Cloke & Goldsmith, 2002; Pearce et al., 2010).

A fairly deep body of research has tied employee participation to a variety of positive workforce outcomes (e.g. Heller, 2003; Strauss, 1998; Wilkenson et al., 2010). However, relatively little of this research has occurred in a police context (e.g. Marks & Sklansky, 2008; Sklansky, 2007; Toch & Grant, 2005). Consequently, not much is known about the state of participation in American policing. What is known is limited to single site case study research. The general consensus among researchers and many police practitioners is that employee involvement in organizational decision-making is very limited, that authoritarian management styles persist, and that these factors contribute to labor-management conflict and complicate adoption of new service models (e.g. Bayley, 2008; Fridell, 2004; Jackson, 2012; Sklansky, 2007). Chapter I established a theoretical framework that transfers Kohlberg's (Power et al., 1989) research on just community schools to the organizational setting and ties it to the creation of socio-moral climate, employee commitment, and pro-social orientations (Weber et al., 2008; 2009). The foregoing review of the participation literature further yields a hypothesized model for this study that links police participation to improved socio-moral organizational climate, greater employee engagement, and positive civic attitudes.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Research Design and Approach

The general approach of this research involved a quantitative, empirical, multivariate analysis capable of assessing the relationships among several variables. Meyers, Gamst and Guarino (2006) observed that human behavior is complicated and multi-dimensional and that social researchers must often turn to quantitative multivariate research approaches that are capable of analyzing multidimensional phenomena comprehensively. The study's purpose was to gain an initial indication of perceptions of employee participation in multiple police organizations, and to describe its potential linkages to several associated variables as identified in the literature. The first research question for the study inquired into the current perceived level of employee participation in American policing, while the second research question described the influential relations among employee participation, engagement and civic attitudes. Six research hypotheses were developed based on a review of the employee participation literature.

In order to assess the hypothesized influential relations among the identified variables as set out in Chapter I, a fairly large sample of police officers from multiple agencies was required to support use of a multivariate research design. Questionnaire

methodology and quantitative data analysis are the most efficient methods of gathering

and assessing large samplings of perceptual and attitudinal information (Fowler, 2002).

The unit of analysis was at the level of the individual in terms of police employees'

perceptions and attitudes toward the identified variables. There was no attempt to

analyze employee participation independent of perceptual and attitudinal data.

However, as Ajzen (2005) pointed out, the principle of compatibility indicates that

attitudes, including those assessed through self-report scales, have a high correlation with

actual behavior.

Population and Sample

Although the study was interested in describing employee participation in

American policing generally, as noted in the limitations section of Chapter I, access to

police data is often problematic due to cultural and administrative obstacles (Bradley &

Nixon, 2009; Canter, 2004; Engel & Whalen, 2010; Johnston & Shearing, 2009; Thacker,

2008; Wood, Fleming & Marks, 2007). Consequently, access considerations dictated that

purposive sampling be used to generate the sample cases for this study. Purposive

sampling is a non-random sampling method that nonetheless can be representative of a

population based on prior knowledge and the needs of the research (Fraenkel & Wallen,

2003). Only those employees who work for agencies to which the author was able to

gain access were included in the study's population and sample.

All the police departments that participated in this study were member agencies of

the Benchmark Cities Survey, which is a voluntary, annual compilation and comparison

of data as contributed by 28 municipal police departments from across the United States.

The Benchmark City agencies regularly exchange information on factors such as crimes

and crime rates, demographics, organizational characteristics, personnel, equipment,

policies, productivity, budgets, and a wide array of other statistical information. The

Benchmark agencies are all considered mid-size municipal police departments of

between 150 and 550 employees, serving primarily urban or suburban communities of

between 85,000 and 300,000 people. Due in part to the author's prior affiliation with this

group of police departments and police chiefs, 15 Benchmark police agencies from 10

states eventually agreed to participate in the study. Table 1 displays the police

departments that took part in the study and their respective frequencies.

Table 1

Participating Agencies and Frequencies (n = 1891)

Agency	Frequency	Percent
Bellevue, WA PD	87	4.6
Boise, ID PD	117	6.2
Boulder, CO PD	91	4.8
Broken Arrow, OK PD	81	4.3
Chesapeake, VA PD	220	11.6
Edmond, OK PD	51	2.7
Fort Collins, CO PD	62	3.3
Fremont, CA PD	109	5.8
Henderson, NV PD	290	15.3
Lakewood, CO PD	271	14.3
Norman, OK PD	62	3.3
Olathe, KS PD	144	7.6
Richardson, TX PD	119	6.3
San Angelo, TX PD	47	2.5
Springfield, MO PD	140	7.4
Total	1891	100.0

The study population consisted of the current employees of the foregoing

agencies; a population of 4,222 individuals. All the employees who made up the

population were solicited via e-mail to participate in the research by completing an online

survey questionnaire during their normal duty hours. A total of 2,211 individuals filled

out the survey, but of these, 303 questionnaires had missing data and another 17 were

eliminated as outliers and not included in the final sample (see data analysis section for

details). The final sample frame consisted of 1,891 individuals who voluntarily

completed the entire survey questionnaire (52% of the population).

The response rates from the various agencies varied from a low of 28% to a high

of 85% of potential employee respondents. Of the 1,891 police employees who answered

the entire questionnaire, 77% were sworn officers. The remainder worked in various

non-sworn (civilian) capacities, such as records, communications, animal control, jail, or

administrative positions. The majority of respondents were male (72%), with the largest

group between 41-50 years of age (36%), followed closely by the 31-40 age-group

(34%). In terms of job tenure, the majority of respondents (55%) had at least 11-years or

more with their respective agency; 24% had 5-years or less on the job. Over half the

sample (57%) had bachelor degrees or higher, with 38% of the remaining respondents

having had at least some college. Nearly half the sample worked in Patrol (48%),

followed by Detective assignments (15%). In terms of rank, which can be expected to

affect perceptions of involvement in decision-making, 2% of the sample were senior

executives (division commanders or higher), 7% were middle managers, 18% were first

line supervisors, and 72% were baseline employees. The majority of respondents (55%)

were not members of a union or collective bargaining unit. Only 12% had served in

some capacity as a union representative.

Instrumentation and Variables

All the research constructs were measured using questionnaire-based, multi-item scales taken from pre-existing, psychometrically validated instruments used in previous studies. A five-point Likert-type scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) was used to score all items. In some cases, items were adapted to a police context. The survey instrument was comprised of five sections representing demographic data and each of the four variables considered in the hypothesized model (Appendix A):

1. Demographic data - agency, age, gender, education, rank, years of service, assignment, union affiliation.

2. Independent (exogenous) latent variable: Perceived level of participation - 12 items adapted from Weber et al. (2009) and Pirshcer-Verdorfer (2010).

3. Dependent (endogenous) latent variable and mediating variable: Perceived level of organizational socio-moral climate - 18 items adapted from Weber, Unterrainer, & Schmid (2009) and Pircher Verdorfer (2010).

4. Dependent (endogenous) latent variable and mediating variable: Perceived level of engagement - 8 items from Schaufeli, et al., (2001).

5. Dependent (endogenous) latent variable: Attitudes toward civic involvement/responsibility: 5 items from Mabry (1998).

Participation

The participation items were taken from Weber et al. (2009). In that study, 43 items, adapted from the original IDE Participation Power Scale (IDE, 1981), were used to measure individually perceived participation (α=.98). That scale has now been used in four studies to measure participation (Pirshcer-Verdorfer, 2010; Unterrainer et al., 2011; Weber et al., 2008; 2009). This scale was originally adapted from the extensive, well

validated Industrial Democracy in Europe studies (IDE, 1981; 1993). The present study used only 12 of the original 43 items (Weber et al., 2008) in order to keep the overall length of the questionnaire manageable from the standpoint of police officers' voluntary, on-duty time commitment. With the help of police officers, minor contextual and language changes were made to the Weber et al. version to achieve a better fit for police respondents. The 12 participation items used for this study had good reliability (α=.93). The participation scale was divided into the sub-domains of *strategic* and *tactical* participation in decision-making (Weber et al., 2008). *Strategic* participation refers to organization-wide decision-making affecting mission, major infrastructure, or organizational policies. *Tactical* participation consists of day-to-day operational matters or unit level objectives and practices. The following are sample items for strategic and tactical employee participation:

In which of the following areas of decision-making do you participate directly within your team, work unit, or as part of a committee?

> *Strategic: Changes in mission statement, values, or goals for your department;*

> *Tactical: Routine operational planning to carry out work squad/unit objectives.*

Socio-Moral Climate

The socio-moral climate scale was originally developed by Weber et al. (2008; 2009) and is comprised of 24 items measuring five subdomains: *open confrontation with conflicts; open communications and participative cooperation; reliable appreciation and respect; trust and responsibility; and organizational concern for the individual* (Weber et al., 2009; Pircher Verdorfer, 2010). The reliability of the scale is α=.89.

For this study, the SMC questionnaire was translated from the original German version. Prior to this study the scale had not been used in an English speaking, American context. Both language and cultural issues arise when translating and adapting a scale to a different culture (McGorry, 2000); in this case from a European business context to an American police context. Therefore, a backward and forward translation procedure was used to translate the instrument into English (McGorry, 2000). The scale was first translated from German into English by the originators of the scale (Weber et al., 2009; Pircher Verdorfer, 2010). The translated version was then forwarded to a second bi-lingual translator, who translated it back into German for comparison. A team of two English speakers and two bilingual (German/English) speakers then examined the translated version for clarity, common language, cultural adequacy, and contextual understanding (Appendix F). Inconsistencies were reconciled and the final English version was produced (Appendix G).

In addition, with the help of American graduate students at the University of Oklahoma and police officers from the Broken Arrow, Oklahoma, Police Department, the translated version of the SMC scale was further evaluated for face validity and contextual understanding. The language was also modified slightly to achieve a better fit for police respondents (i.e., some police terms were substituted). These modifications were also examined by the originators of the scale (Weber et al., 2008; 2009; Pirscher-Verdorder, 2010) for consistency with its original intent (face validity; Appendix G). For this study, 18 items were ultimately selected to measure SMC and displayed good reliability (α=.95). Examples of SMC items include: *In our police department, we deal frankly with*

conflicts and disagreements; and *In our agency, people are treated with respect*

regardless of their rank or position.

Engagement

The engagement scale was based on the Utrecht work engagement scale originally

developed in the Netherlands (Schaufeli et al., 2001). This scale has since been validated

in English-speaking contexts. Engagement, as drawn from Schaufeli et al. (2001), is

comprised of the sub-domains of *vigor* and *dedication,* consisting of 6 items for vigor

(α=.80) and 5 items for dedication (α=.91)*.* As originally developed, that scale also

contained the domain of *absorption,* but this was later dropped by Schaufeli and

associates (2009) as being too project-specific. For this study, 8 engagement items were

selected from the Schaufeli et al. scale, 4 for vigor and 4 for dedication. In this study, the

engagement items had a reliability of α=.87. The following are examples of employee

engagement items:

Vigor*: When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.*

Dedication*: I am enthusiastic about my job*.

Civic Attitudes

The civic attitudes scale has primarily been applied in educational settings in

connection with service learning models. It was taken from Mabry (1998), who in turn,

had drawn items from Markus, Howard and King (1993) and Myers-Lipton (1994). In

Mabry's study, the scale displayed reliability of α=.80. No police-specific modifications

were necessary for the civic attitudes scale. In this study, the civic attitudes items

displayed acceptable reliability (α=.75). Sample items for civic attitude items are:

Individuals have a responsibility to help solve social problems; and *I feel like I can make*

a difference in the world. Table 2 summarizes the sources of the instrument items and reliability.

Table 2

Research Instrument Description and Reliability

Construct	Item Source	Items	Reliability α
Participation	Weber et al. (2009)	12	.93
SMC	Weber et al. (2009)	18	.95
Engagement	Schaufeli et al. (2001)	8	.87
Civic Attitudes	Mabry (1998)	5	.75
Demographic		9	

Instrument Pilot Test

In March of 2011, the survey instrument for this study was piloted at the Benchmark Cities Annual Summit in Overland Park, Kansas. A paper version of the questionnaire was administered to 33 police chiefs, senior staff members, and police planners in attendance at the conference. This was done to test the clarity, face validity, and applicability of the instrument for a police context. It also served the purpose of allowing the police chiefs in attendance to evaluate it first hand and decide if they wanted their agencies to participate in the study. Based on feedback, several minor language changes were made to clarify a few of the items and for a better fit with the intended police respondents. The respondents for the pilot test of the instrument also found the face validity of the items to be good; the items appeared to them to assess the intended constructs of the study.

However, at this same time, a significant alteration of the instrument and the scope of the study did occur. Initially, the intent of the study was to survey only police *officers*. During the pilot test, the chiefs unanimously wanted *all* their employees surveyed and not just sworn personnel. Consequently, this adjustment was made and civilian employees were added to the population of the study. The language of the questionnaire was altered to include all police employees regardless of sworn or non-sworn status.

Procedures

The proposed study was first presented to the attendees at the annual Benchmark Cities Police Summit in March, 2011. As noted, a paper version of the questionnaire was piloted with the chiefs and other officials at the conference. Based on feedback, the questionnaire was modified for clarity and civilian employees were added to the sample pool. A follow-up e-mail was sent to all 28 police chiefs who participate in the Benchmark Cities Survey. The study goals and procedures were explained; an introductory letter, informed consent form, and a copy of the actual questionnaire were attached for their perusal. An electronic version of the questionnaire was posted on Survey Monkey (http://www.SuveyMonkey.com) and the link was provided to the Benchmark Cities chiefs. An agency participation letter was also attached that the chiefs were asked to sign and return (Appendix C). Ultimately 15 police chiefs elected to have their agencies participate in the web-based research.

The police chiefs of the respective agencies were asked to forward the information concerning the survey to their officers with instructions for accessing the online questionnaire. An invitation letter (Appendix D) and a participant information

sheet (Appendix E) were attached to the chiefs' e-mails to their employees. These documents explained the purposes of the survey research, that employees' participation was entirely voluntary, and that no benefit or penalty would attach to their participation. Further, all respondents would remain anonymous; no identifying information would be collected other than aggregated demographic data and the name of the respondent's agency. The chiefs would have confidential access to the aggregated results/analysis for their agencies and the study in total, but not individual employee responses.

Online Questionnaire

Online surveys, like mail surveys, are the most practical approach for data gathering from multiple sites and relatively large samples (Fowler, 2002). Since this study solicited responses from several thousand respondents from 15 agencies nationwide, use of internet technology was warranted due to the logistics involved and the cost factor.

The Survey Monkey version of the questionnaire was posted online from May 2, 2011 to August 4, 2011. The agency chiefs varied somewhat as to when they e-mailed the survey link to their employees. Respondents were able to complete the questionnaire via their work e-mails. Upon accessing the online questionnaire, respondents were greeted with an information sheet identical to the one the chiefs had e-mailed to them (Appendix E). At the bottom of the information sheet there appeared an advisement that by clicking "yes, I agree" or "no, I do not agree" respondents were indicating their willingness to participate in the study. The questionnaire consisted of a total of 51 items and required approximately 10 minutes to complete. During data gathering, it appeared a technical glitch may have resulted in an inordinate number of incomplete responses (303)

that had to be discarded and a number of outliers (17) were identified and eliminated in case-wise deletion, as described in the data analysis section. The missing data exhibited no particular pattern that was related to demographic variables or other discernible systematic bias. However, the sample was large enough that this did not impair the overall data analysis. Only complete questionnaire responses were included in the final data analysis.

Data Analysis

The intent of this research was to assess the structural relations among several attitudinal variables in a police context, including organizational participation, socio-moral climate, employee engagement, and civic attitudes. Multivariate analysis is particularly useful in the elimination of alternative hypothetical explanations because it allows for the statistical control of competing variables (Agresti & Finlay, 2009; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). This level of control detects spurious hypotheses, chain relationships (intervening variables), suppressor variables (variables that mask relationships), and statistical interaction (control variables affecting relationships at different values).

Prior to examination of the influential relations among the constructs, the sample cases were examined for missing data and checked for outliers. There were 303 cases with missing data. Since missing data can skew statistical analyses, particularly when using structural equation modeling techniques, these cases were eliminated from the sample using listwise deletion (Kline, 2011; Shumacker & Lomax, 2010). This available case method approach was possible due to the large size of the sample. The sample was also checked for univariate and multivariate outliers, or unusual cases that fell outside the

normal distribution of the sample (Knoke, Bohrnstedt, & Potter Mee, 2002). Histograms

and scatterplot displays were used to detect cases that fell more than three standard

deviations beyond the mean for any single variable, while the Mahalanobis distance

procedure in SPSS was used to detect cases with extreme scores on two or more variables

(Kline, 2011; Shumacker & Lomax, 2010). These casewise detection procedures resulted

in the deletion of 17 outliers. The final dataset consisted of 1,891 cases. The

measurement instrument applicability was then assessed for internal item consistency and

the item-to-factor associations were examined via confirmatory factor analysis. Having

confirmed these aspects, the influential relations among the variables and fit of the

hypothesized model were examined using correlational analysis, multiple linear

regression, and structural equation modeling (SEM). All data analyses were done using

SPSS version 19.0 and LISREL version 8.8 statistical software.

Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive statistics were used to describe the general characteristics of the

sample in terms of means, standard deviations, and distributions. Demographic variables

such as age, gender, rank, tenure, education, and union affiliation were assessed for

significance via frequencies, Pearson Correlation Coefficient, and Chi Square analysis.

The study's first research question asked: *What is the current perceived level of*

participation in organizational decision-making among police employees? To gain some

understanding regarding this question, the mean participation in decision-making scores

for the Weber et al. (2008) sample was obtained from the authors of that study (C.

Unterrainer and W. Weber, personal communication, September 23, 2011). Those data

were then compared with the mean participation (tactical and strategic) scores of the

1,891 police employees in this study. This comparison was possible because the questionnaire items and scoring of the participation scales for this study and that of Weber et al. were nearly the same. Weber and associates typed the 33 business enterprises in their study into five groups according to the level of structurally anchored organizational democracy they found:

- *Hierarchical Organizations:* Firms with little or no democratic structure or employee participation.

- *Social Partnership Organizations*: Firms that exhibit some employee participation in tactical (but little strategic) decision-making either directly or through some representational body. These firms may also incorporate capital shares or profit sharing arrangements.

- *Employee Owned Organizations / Worker Cooperatives:* Companies in which employees have stock ownership and some strategic decision-making authority.

- *Democratic Reform Organizations:* Firms with direct participation of employees in tactical decision-making and representational employee co-determination boards for strategic matters.

- *Self-Governed Employee-Owned Organizations:* Firms in which employees decide directly on tactical and strategic affairs.

Weber et al. deliberately selected both traditionally-run, hierarchical firms, and democratically-oriented firms for their study. By comparing the means of police employees with Weber et al.'s sample, it was possible to approximate where the police fell in this continuum of democratic organizational decision-making.

Reliability, Validity, and Correlation Coefficient Analysis

The main reliability concern of this research was ensuring the internal reliability of the survey questionnaire; that all of the items for the given constructs consistently measured what they are purported to (Knoke, Bohrnstedt & Potter-Mee, 2002; Salkind, 2005). The reliability of the questionnaire instrument was tested using zero-order correlation coefficient estimates and Cronbach's α coefficient estimates. These techniques determine the inter-construct relationships among the proposed research variables and the internal consistency of the observed items (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). A Chronbach's α coefficient of .70 or greater is generally required for establishing reliability of the items (Knoke, Bohrnstedt & Potter-Mee, 2002). All scales were determined to have acceptable internal reliability (see Tables 2 and 6).

Validity concerns in this study were ameliorated somewhat by the fact that the questionnaire items had previously been validated in other research (Thompson, 2004). Therefore, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was not necessary (Hair et al., 2006; Thompson, 2004). However, construct validity was established through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for acceptable data fit within the hypothesized factor structure. CFA is the principal method of establishing whether measured items truly represent their theoretical constructs by verifying the item-to-factor associations and the underlying dimensions of the constructs (Kline, 2011; Salkind, 2005). CFA is a deductive method for testing items that are used to measure a latent variable (Agresti & Finlay, 2009; Hair et al., 2006; Kline, 2011). This was carried out as the first step of the structural equation modeling analysis of the data. The CFA examined both the item-to-factor loadings to ensure the items measured their intended constructs, as well as goodness-of-fit indices. According to the CFA analysis, all the item-to-factor loadings were determined to be

greater than .32, or within the acceptable range (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006) and the goodness-of-fit indices showed acceptable fit to the data (Hair et al., 2006; Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullin, 2008). In addition, covariance among the latent constructs, as well as with the demographic data, was initially evaluated using Pearson correlation coefficient analysis.

Multiple Linear Regression

The research model hypothesized that more than one independent variable may exert influence over other variables in the model. In addition, the results of the Pearson correlation coefficient analysis indicated significant covariance between *participation, socio-moral climate, engagement,* and *civic attitudes.* Therefore, multiple linear regression was used to further assess the relationships among these variables. Specifically, effect-size analysis and path analysis were employed to examine the magnitude of both the direct and indirect effects of the variables on each other (Kline, 2011; Pehzahur, 1997).

Three regression equations representing the major hypothesized relationships of the model were analyzed. For each equation, an endogenous variable was taken as the dependent variable, while other directly related endogenous or exogenous variables served as the independent variables. Regression analysis of effects uses the magnitude of the independent variable standardized regression coefficient (β) as an indicator of the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable (Kline, 2011; Pehzahur, 1997). A unit change for the standardized coefficient reflects a unit standard deviation change in the dependent variable, while holding all other independent variables constant (Pedzahur, 1997).

The effects-size analysis was subsequently used to conduct a path analysis in which the standardized regression coefficient (β) represented a path coefficient for the relationships between the variables (Pehzahur, 1997). The path coefficients reflected the size of the direct and indirect effects of the independent variables on the dependent variables. Direct effects consisted of the value of the path coefficients. Indirect effects, as occurring through intervening variables, were calculated as the products of the path coefficients as traversed between the two variables. The total effect, also called the *effect coefficient*, of an independent variable towards a dependent variable was calculated by summing the direct and indirect effects (Kline, 2011; Pehzahur, 1997). Histograms for residuals and scatterplots for regression diagnostics were used to assess the statistical assumptions for the foregoing regression procedures (Pehzahur, 1997) (see Appendices J and K).

Mediation Effects

Weber et al. (2008; 2009) and Pircher-Verdorfer (2010), found a mediation effect for socio-moral climate between organizational democracy, employee commitment, and pro-social orientations. Mediation is present when an independent variable explains a mediator variable, which then explains a dependent variable (MacKinnon, Warsi, & Dwyer, 1995). For this study, the mediation effects of SMC and engagement were assessed first with the Sobel test (Kline, 2011; MacKinnon, Warsi, & Dwyer, 1995), which purportedly works well in studies with large samples (Preacher & Leonardelli, 2003). The Sobel statistic is calculated as a Z-score according to the following formula:

$$Z = ab / \sqrt{b^2 s_a^2 + a^2 s_b^2}$$

For the foregoing formula, the terms a and s_a are the unstandardized regression coefficient and associated standard error for the independent variable predicting the mediator variable in a regression equation. The terms b and s_b are the unstandardized regression coefficient and associated standard error of the mediator variable predicting the dependent variable in a regression equation that also includes the mediator as an independent variable. The null hypothesis of the Sobel test indicates that the mediation effect would be 0.

In addition, the mediation effects of the latent variables were evaluated through direct and indirect effects decomposition. Effects decomposition examines the significance of the standardized path coefficients of the latent variables in an SEM model (Holbert & Stephenson, 2003; Kline, 2011).

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)

In addition to multiple linear regression, the data were also analyzed using a structural equation modeling approach. Much like regression analysis, SEM produces a series of path coefficients that represent the strengths between the variables postulated in the model. SEM, however, has several advantages over regression that yield a more complete analysis. Regression techniques analyze each equation separately for the purpose of estimating parameters, but SEM is able to simultaneously process the equations to more effectively and completely use the available information (Knoke, Bohrnstedt, & Potter Mee, 2002). In addition, regression assumes that variables are measured without error, but SEM provides the ability to model the study's measurement structure and, therefore, analyze measurement error, which is often a significant source of bias (Hair et al., 2006; Schumacher & Lomax, 2010). Due to this capability to

simultaneously analyze the relationships among the variables and take measurement error

into account in the process, SEM can offer a more robust analysis (Knoke, Bohrnstedt, &

Potter Mee, 2002; Schumacher & Lomax, 2010).

In this study, participative management was hypothesized as the independent

(exogenous) variable, with SMC, engagement and civic attitudes as dependent

(endogenous) variables. It was also expected that some mediation would occur (SMC as

a mediator between participation and the other constructs and engagement as a mediator

between participation and civic attitudes). Because there are multiple relationships

among the domains and possibly multiple influences, structural equation modeling was

employed to test the hypotheses related to the study's second research question.

Structural equation modeling (SEM) is a form of multivariate analysis that

contains elements of regression, factor analysis, and path analysis (Kline, 2011; Salkind,

2005; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). SEM facilitates the statistical modeling of complex

relationships between observed and latent variables while taking measurement error into

account (Kline, 2011; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). It can be used to test hypothesized

relationships between variables based on assessed data with a high degree of validity and

reliability. Unlike regression analysis, SEM offers flexibility in examining variables

(dependent/independent variable interaction). SEM utilizes a measurement model and a

structural model sequence. The measurement model uses CFA to examine the observed

variables vies-a-vie the hypothesized underlying constructs, while the structural model

determines the actual relationships between the constructs in comparison to the

hypothesized model. SEM requires an underlying theory because it tests the fit between

specific data and a hypothesized model. It compares goodness of fit indices with

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competing models. SEM is a robust treatment for determining the complex

interrelationships that were present in this study.

For this research, the SEM analysis was conducted in two steps. The first

assessed the measurement model validity using confirmatory factor analysis to determine

whether the measurement items actually represented their intended latent constructs in

terms of the factor structure of the measurement model. The second step assessed the

structural relationships among the proposed research variables in the hypothesized model.

A number of fit indices have been developed to help researchers interpret the quality of

fit between the hypothesized model and their data. This can sometimes lead to spurious

reporting of goodness-of-fit in that there may be a tendency to only report those indices

that best fit the model (Hooper, Coughlan & Mullen, 2008). Following the advice of

Hooper, Coughlan, and Mullen (2008), this study relied primarily on absolute fit indices

for the goodness-of-fit assessment since their calculation does not rely on comparison

with any baseline model. Unlike incremental fit indices, absolute fit measures look only

at theory – data fit. The only incremental fit index used was the non-normed fit index

(NNFI), which does compare to a baseline model. The absolute fit indices used were the

Chi-square, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index

(CFI), standardized root mean residual (SRMR), and goodness-of-fit index (GFI).

LISREL 8.8 software was used to conduct the SEM analysis. Table 3 provides additional

details concerning the goodness of fit indices that were used.

Table 3

Goodness-of-Fit Indices

Indices		Definition	Fit Criteria
X^2	Chi-square	Assesses fit of a specific model as well as comparison between two models.	The smaller, the better the fit
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	Establishes a hypothesis of close fit between the model and population.	<.05: good fit .05-.08: reasonable .08-.10: mediocre >.10: poor fit
CFI	Comparative Fit Index	Degree of fit between the hypothesized and null measurement models.	>.90
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Square Residual	A standardized value of the average residuals of covariance/correlation matrix.	<.08
GFI	Goodness-of-fit Index	Measure of the amount of variance and covariance in sample data that is jointly explained by sample data.	>.90
NNFI	Non-normed Fit Index	Compares model being testing to a baseline model, taking into account the degree of freedom	>.90

Source: Hair et al. (2006); Hooper, Coughlan and Mullen (2008); Schumacker and Lomax (2010).

Summary of Data Analysis Strategies

The first study research question was addressed through descriptive statistics and comparison with the typology of organizational democracy as developed by Weber et al. (2008). Demographic data were analyzed via descriptive statistics and hierarchical multiple linear regression. The second research question and the study hypotheses were analyzed using Pearson correlation coefficient analysis, hierarchical multiple linear regression, and the two-step process of structural equation modeling (measurement model

and structural model) that includes confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Table 4

illustrates the statistical analysis techniques that were used for the study's research

questions, descriptive variables, and hypotheses.

Table 4

Research Questions, Hypotheses, Statistical Technique

Research Question/Hypotheses	Data Analysis
RQ1: What is the current perceived level of participation in organizational decision-making among police employees?	Descriptive Statistics
Demographic Variables	Descriptive Statistics, Correlation Coefficient, Multiple Regression
RQ2: What are the structural relationships between employee participation, engagement and civic attitudes in a police context?	See Hypotheses
H1: Participation contributes significantly to police employees' perceptions of socio-moral climate.	Correlations, Multiple Regression, SEM
H2: Participation contributes significantly to police employees' sense of engagement.	Correlations, Multiple Regression, SEM
H3: Participation contributes significantly to police employees' civic attitudes.	Correlations, Multiple Regression, SEM
H4: Police employees' perceptions of socio-moral climate mediate the effects of participation on engagement and civic attitudes.	Correlations, Multiple Regression, Sobel Test, SEM, Path Decomposition
H5: Police employees' sense of engagement contributes significantly to civic attitudes.	Correlations, Multiple Regression, SEM
H6: Police employees' sense of engagement mediates the effects of participation on civic attitudes	Correlations, Multiple Regression, SEM, Path Decomposition

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

The purpose of the study was to assess the level of police employee participation in organizational decision-making and its potential influence on socio-moral climate, employee engagement, and civic attitudes. The study was guided by two research questions: *RQ1 - What is the current perceived level of participation in organizational decision-making among police employees?*; *RQ2 - What are the structural relationships among employee participation, engagement, and civic attitudes in a police context?* To answer the first research question, a document and narrative analysis was done comparing the results of this study with that of Weber et al. (2008). Specifically, the responses of the police employees for the participation scale items were compared to those of the European workers as gathered by Weber et al. (2008). Side-by-side comparison of the means of the two samples enabled a ranking of police employees according to the typology of organizational hierarchy as conceptualized by Weber and colleagues. To answer the second research question, five hypotheses were developed and tested via several statistical methods, including correlation coefficients, multiple linear regression, and structural equation modeling techniques. The results are presented in this chapter in order of research question.

Research Question 1

A review of the literature indicates that relatively little is known about the degree of employee participation that currently exists in American (or international) policing (Marks & Sklansky, 2008; Sklansky, 2007; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008). Previous police participation research has looked only at single site case studies, giving no indication of the general level of perceived participation across the field of policing (Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008; Toch & Grant, 2005; Toch, Grant, & Galvin, 1975; Wycoff & Skogan, 1994). Therefore, the approach of this study was broader, gathering data from employees of 15 American police agencies in 10 states.

Weber and associates typed the 33 business enterprises in their study into five categories based on the degree of employee participation they found ($n = 542$), as well as analysis of the management structure, policies, and communication practices of the enterprises. Both this study and the Weber et al. study used the same participation scale. The police data ($n = 1,891$) for this study were then compared to that of the European workers and against the corresponding typology of organizational hierarchy. Based on this comparison (see Table 5), it appeared that police employee participation fell between traditional *hierarchical organizations* that exhibit little or no employee participation and *social partnerships*, which exhibit a significant degree of employee participation, principally at the tactical decision-making level. *Social partnership* enterprises are characterized by direct or representative employee input on working conditions and operations. Many social partnership enterprises employ unions or work councils that perform this function, as well as other forms of formal and representative employee

involvement in tactical decision-making. Table 5 presents the mean participation values

for the police and the European worker samples.

Table 5

Participation Means for Police and European Workers

Type of Organization	Mean Strategic Participation	Mean Tactical Participation
Hierarchical	1.4159	1.9654
Police	1.8705	2.3187
Social Partnership	2.0974	2.5497

Source: C. Unterrainer and W. Weber (personal communication, September 23, 2011)

The finding that police employee participation fell approximately between

hierarchical and social partnership companies in both *strategic* and *tactical* decision-

making was unexpected based on the prevailing opinion that police organizations are

currently hierarchical and bureaucratic (e.g. Bayley, 2008; Fridell, 2004; Jackson, 2012).

Police unionization may account for some of this higher than expected level of

participation (about 45% of the police sample was unionized). However, typically police

union contracts deal primarily with pay and benefits, while operational planning and

execution, as well as tactical and strategic managerial decisions are reserved under

management rights clauses (DeLord et al., 2008). Further, union affiliation was not

significantly correlated with perceived level of participation for the police sample.

Therefore, it would appear that the presence of unions in 45% of the sample did not

account for the higher than expected level of police participation. Not surprisingly, for

the police sample there was significant correlation between perceived level of

participation in organizational decision-making and the demographic variable of rank

(Table 6). However, the European sample was comparable is this respect as it also

included various ranks of supervision and management personnel in equivalent

proportions (Weber, et al., 2008).

These findings indicated that police employees felt they had greater involvement

in organizational decision-making than has heretofore been assumed. This casts police

organizations in a somewhat different light. They may, in fact, not be the bastions of

traditional bureaucratic hierarchy that is typically supposed and for which they are often

criticized (e.g. Bayley, 2008; Cowper, 2000; Fridell, 2004; Jackson, 2012; Maguire &

Katz, 2002; Mastrofski, 1998; Sklansky, 2007; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008). At

the very least, this finding calls for a re-examination and further research. The

implications are discussed in greater detail in Chapter V.

Research Question 2

Previous research indicates that participation plays a part in the creation of a

positive socio-moral work climate (e.g. Weber et al., 2008; 2009: Pirscher-Verdorder,

2010). It has also been found that participation can positively influence employee

affective commitment (Weber et al., 2008; 2009; Unterrainer et al., 2010), a construct

that is acknowledged to be similar to employee engagement (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008).

Weber et al. (2008; 2009), Pirscher-Verdorder (2010), and Unterrainer et al. (2010) also

found connections between employee participation and pro-social orientations, while

Mabry (1998) established that active participation in service learning (volunteerism) had

a positive effect on student civic attitudes. Based on these findings, it was anticipated in

this study that police employee participation in organizational decision-making would

positively influence perceptions of socio-moral climate, sense of engagement, and civic

attitudes and that there would be additional influential relationships among the variables.

Prior to testing of the hypotheses related to the second research question, basic analyses

were conducted to test instrument scale reliability and validity.

Basic Statistical Analysis

Measurement Reliability and Validity

As described in the methods section, sample data screening using listwise deletion

eliminated all missing data cases, and outliers were removed using casewise deletion. All

the measurement scales for this study were previously validated in other research (IDE,

1981, 1993; Mabry, 1998; Pirshcer-Verdorfer, 2010; Schaufeli et al., 2001; Weber et al.,

2009). However, there was no indication in the literature that several of the scales

(participation, SMC, and civic attitudes) had ever been applied in an American police

context, and one scale (SMC) had to be translated from German into English for the

study. Therefore, it was necessary to ensure reliability and validity of the measurement

scales (Hair, et al., 2006). Internal consistency for each construct measurement scale was

assessed using zero-order correlation coefficient estimates and Cronbach's alpha

coefficient estimates. In addition, construct validity was testing using confirmatory

factor analysis.

Correlation coefficients were computed among the four latent variables and the

seven demographic variables of rank, sworn status, tenure, gender, age, education, and

collective bargaining status. Correlations were determined to be significant at a p value

of less than .05. As noted in Table 2, all of the latent constructs displayed acceptable

correlation and scale reliability (Cronbach's α of between .75 and .95). The constructs of

participation and socio-moral climate were moderately correlated ($r_{1891} = .52, p < .01$).

Socio-moral climate was also moderately correlated with engagement ($r_{1891} = .54, p <$

.01), as were engagement and civic attitudes ($r_{1891} = .57, p < .01$). This indicates a

positive correlation between participation and SMC, SMC and engagement, and

engagement and civic attitudes.

Although several of the demographic variables were correlated with the latent

variables that comprise the hypothetical model, only the demographic of rank was

strongly correlated with participation ($r_{1891} = -.68, p < .01$) (note: rank was reverse-coded,

lower score denoted higher rank). The higher the rank of the respondent, the more likely

they were to report a higher degree of personal involvement in organizational decisions.

The rest of the demographic covariates were only weakly associated with the latent

constructs, although still at a statistically significant level. No doubt, the size of the

sample influenced the significance of these correlations (Salkind, 2005). As noted in

connection with the first research question, union affiliation was not significantly

correlated with participation, although there was a weak, but significant, negative

correlation with socio-moral climate ($r_{1891} = .14, p < .01$) and engagement ($r_{1891} = .08, p$

$< .01$). That is, unionized employees were slightly less likely to report positive

perceptions of socio-moral climate and engagement. Age and education were both

positively correlated with participation and socio-moral climate. Older, more educated

employees were somewhat more likely to perceive higher levels of participation and

SMC. Age was also weakly correlated with engagement and civic attitudes – the older

the respondent, the more likely they were to display positive job and civic engagement.

Females were slightly more likely to perceive SMC ($r_{1891} = .14$, $p < .01$) and harbor more positive civic attitudes ($r_{1891} = .07$, $p < .01$).

Overall, the correlation coefficients showed acceptable inter-correlation among the latent constructs and, other than rank, the demographic variables displayed only weak inter-correlation with the latent variables. Table 6 displays the correlation coefficient's and scale reliability for the four latent variables and the demographic variables.

Table 6

Correlations among Variables and Scale Reliability (n = 1,891)

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Participation	2.11	0.99	(.93)									
2. Socio-Moral Climate	3.14	0.94	.52**	(.95)								
3. Engagement	4.14	0.57	.31	.54**	(.87)							
4. Civic Attitudes	4.29	0.57	.26	.37	.57**	(.75)						
5. Rank	4.59	0.77	-.68**	.27	-.15	-.16						
6. Sworn	1.23	0.42	-.043	.19**	.02	.052	.12					
7. Tenure	2.50	1.05	.34	.028	.03	0.3	-.43**	-.16**				
8. Gender	1.27	0.45	-.11	.14**	.03	.07**	.13**	.64**	-.11**			
9. Age	2.53	0.93	.29**	.14**	.10**	.08**	-.34**	.18**	.61**	-.11**		
10. Education	3.31	1.15	.20**	.08**	.01	.04	-.22**	-.22**	.08**	1.4**	-.00	
11. Union	1.55	0.49	.01	.14**	.08**	.03	-.05*	.21**	-.01	.15**	.07**	-.01

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ Note: Score reliabilities are presented in parentheses on the diagonal.

Rank was coded: 1 = Chief/Deputy Chief, 2 = Major/Division Commander, 3 = Captain/Lieutenant, 4 = Sergeant/Corporal, 5 = Officer/Baseline Employee; Sworn was coded 1=sworn, 2=non-sworn, gender was coded 1= male, 2=female; Education was coded 1=high school, 2=some college, 3=associate degree, 4=bachelor degree, 5=master's degree, 6=doctorate; Tenure was coded 1=0-5 years, 2=6-10 years, 3=11-15 years, 4=16-20, 5=21+; Age was coded 1=21-30, 2=31-40, 3=41-50, 4=51+; Union membership was coded 1=union member, 2=non-member.

Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

Because the hypothesized model assumed that there may be more than one independent variable at work and due to Pearson correlation coefficient results indicating significant covariance among the latent variables, multiple linear regression techniques, specifically effects and path analysis, were used to further determine the direct and indirect effects of these relationships (Pehzahur, 1997). Three regression equations were derived from the hypothesized model and tested. These regression equations tested hypotheses *H1, H2, H3*, and *H5*. The Sobel test for mediation among the variables was also performed to test hypothesis *H4* and *H6* (MacKinnon, Warsi, & Dwyer, 1995; Preacher & Leonardelli, 2003).

Hypotheses *H2* posited that participation would act as an independent, influential variable for engagement, while hypotheses *H4* and *H6* proposed that SMC and engagement would act as respective mediating variables. Therefore, for the first regression equation the dependent variable was engagement, with the associated independent variables of socio-moral climate and participation. Twenty-nine per cent of the variance in engagement ($R^2 = .290$, $F = 386.411$, $p < .001$) was explained by the independent variables. The regression coefficient for participation ($\beta = .047$, $t = 2.061$, $p = .039$) was significant, but weak. The regression coefficient for socio-moral climate ($\beta = .513$, $t = 22.68$, $p < .001$) was significant and stronger. The residual term for the regression equation, calculated by taking the square root of the expression $1 - R^2$, was determined to be .843.

Hypothesis *H2* proposed participation as an independent, influential variable for socio-moral climate. So, for the second regression equation the dependent variable was

socio-moral climate, with an independent variable of participation. Approximately 27% of the variance in socio-moral climate as the dependent variable was explained by participation (R^2 = .268 F = 690.453, p < .001). The regression coefficient for participation (β = .517, t = 26.276, p < .001) was significant, thereby supporting the hypothesized predictive influence of participation toward socio-moral climate. The residual term for the regression equation was calculated to be .856.

Hypothesis *H3* proposed that participation would act as an influential, independent variable for civic attitudes, while Hypothesis *H4* and *H6* posited that both SMC and engagement would help mediate this relationship. Hypothesis *H5* proposed that engagement would also significantly predict a portion of the variance in civic attitudes. Therefore, the final regression equation took civic attitudes as the dependent variable, with the associated independent variables of participation, SMC, and engagement. Approximately 34% of the variance in the dependent variable of civic attitudes was explained by the independent variables (R^2 = .336, F = 318.785, p < .001). The regression coefficient for participation was fairly weak, but significant (β = .074, t = 3.369, p = .001). Similarly, the regression coefficient for socio-moral climate (β = .052, t = 2.106 p = .035) was significant, but weak. However, engagement significantly and more strongly predicted civic attitudes (β = .521, t = 23.384, p < .001). These effect-size analyses support Hypothesis *H5* that employee engagement contributes to civic attitudes, and more moderately support Hypotheses *H3* and *H4* that participation and SMC also contribute to civic attitudes. The residual term for the equation was calculated to be .815. Table 7 summarizes these data.

Table 7

Effects Analysis with Regression Coefficients

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	β	p
Engagement	PART	.047*	.039
	SMC	.513*	.001
SMC	PART	.517*	.001
Civic Attitude	PART	.074*	.001
	ENG	.521*	.001
	SMC	.052*	.035

*Note: *Significant at $p \leq .05$*

Results of the effects analysis were used to construct the path analysis model to further assess direct and indirect effects. Figure 3 shows the research model with associated path coefficients and residuals obtained from the three regression equations of the effects analysis. All path coefficients were found to the significant at $p = .039$ or less.
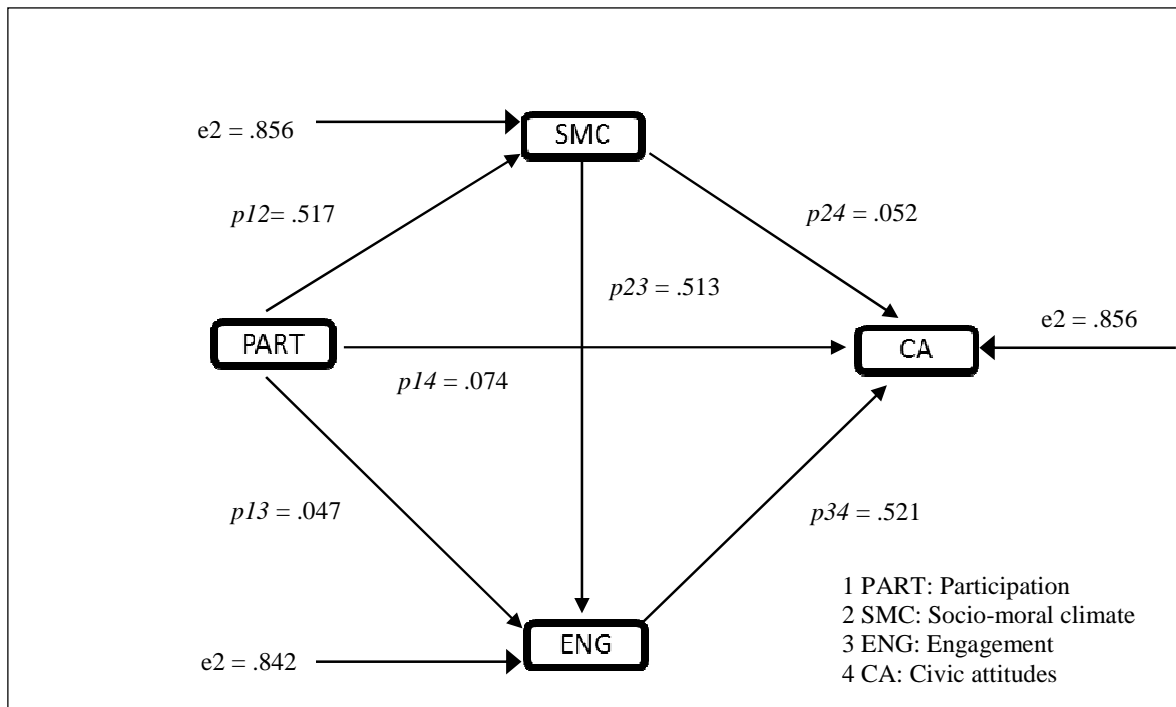
Figure 3: Research Model with Path Coefficients and Residuals

Effects on engagement were present from participation and socio-moral climate variables. Participation had a small direct effect on engagement ($p13$ =.047), as well as an indirect effect through socio-moral climate ($p12p23$ = (.517)(.513) = .265), for a total effect of .312. Socio-moral climate had only a direct effect on engagement ($p23$ = .513) for a total effect of .513. Socio-moral climate, therefore, was the more important variable than participation in regards to engagement based on the criteria of total effect (*effect coefficient*). However, socio-moral-climate was directly and significantly influenced by participation ($p12$ = .517), suggesting a mediation effect for SMC.

Effects on civic attitudes were present from participation, engagement, and socio-moral climate variables. Participation had a weak direct effect on civic attitudes ($p14$ = .074), as well as indirect effects through engagement ($p13p34$ = (.047)(.521) = .024), socio-moral climate ($p12p24$ =(.517)(.052) = .027), and through engagement and socio-moral climate ($p13p23p34$ = (.517)(.513)(.521) = .138) for a total effect of .263. Engagement had only a direct effect on civic attitudes ($p34$ = .521) for a total effect of .521. Socio-moral climate had a small but significant direct effect on civic attitudes ($p24$ = .052) and a significant indirect effect through engagement ($p23p34$ = (.513)(.521) = .267) for a total effect of .319. Engagement, therefore, had the highest effect towards civic attitudes, with participation and SMC exhibiting significant but weak direct effects and moderate indirect effects. The indirect effects of SMC and participation on civic attitudes through engagement suggest mediation.

Test for Mediation

Research hypothesis *H4* posited that social-moral climate would mediate the effects of the predictor (or independent) variable participation, on the criterion (or

dependent) variables of engagement and civic attitudes. Research hypothesis *H6* posited that engagement would mediate the effects of participation on civic attitudes. Therefore, the study's model presented three instances of mediation, all involving participation as the independent variable, with socio-moral climate and engagement serving as mediating variables. The Sobel test is the recommended regression technique for testing mediation effects where sample sizes are large (MacKinnon, Warsi, & Dwyer, 1995; Preacher & Leonardelli, 2003). For the Sobel test, the a, s_a, b and s_b values were determined from two regression equations. In the first case, engagement was the dependent variable; in the second and third cases civic attitudes was the dependent variable.

Coefficients and standard errors from the required Sobel test regression equations, as well as the calculated *Z*-score and associated probability level for a two-tailed test with normal distribution for the two cases of mediation in the model are presented in Table 8. A *Z*-score > │1.96│ is the critical value of the test ratio for mediation (Preacher & Leonardelli, 2003).

Table 8

Sobel Test Results

IV:Mediator:DV	a	s_a	b	s_b	Z	p
PART:SMC:ENG	.491	.019	.033	.016	2.056	.040
PART:SMC:CA	.491	.019	.057	.014	4.022	< .001
PART: ENG: CA	.218	.015	.431	.018	12.42	<.001

Note: Significant at $p \leq .05$

According to the results of the Sobel test, socio-moral climate appeared to mediate between participation and engagement ($Z = 2.056$, $p = .040$) and between

participation and civic attitudes ($Z = 4.022$, $p < .001$), thereby supporting hypothesis *H4*.

Hypothesis *H6* was also supported by the Sobel test, in that engagement also mediated

the effects of participation on civic attitudes ($Z = 12.42$, $p < .001$). These results imply

that police employees feel more engaged with their job duties and community

responsibilities as a result of a healthy socio-moral work climate, which is promoted

through increased opportunities for organizational participation.

Structural Equation Modeling Analysis

Multiple linear regression analyzes each regression equation separately in order to

estimate parameters and assumes no measurement error. However, structural equation

modeling (SEM) offers the advantage of simultaneous analysis, thereby processing the

available data more completely and taking measurement error into account in the process

(Schumacher & Lomax, 2010). Therefore, the hypothesized model and the associated

research hypotheses were further evaluated using SEM. A two-step approach was taken

for the SEM analysis: (1) confirmatory factor analysis to assess the measurement model

factor structure and validity of the research constructs, and; (2) analysis of the structural

relationships among the variables (Hooper, Couglan, & Mullen, 2008; Schumacker &

Lomax, 2010).

Measurement Model and Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The following model-to-data fit indices were used to evaluate the factor structure

of the variables: chi-square estimates (χ^2), adjusted chi-square estimates (χ^2 / df),

goodness-of-fit index (GFI), comparative fit index (CFI), non-normed fit index (NNFI),

root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and the standardized root mean

square residual (SRMR). The chi-square results were statistically significant for the

measurement model and each of the latent variables, indicating a lack of model fit with the data. However, the chi-square test is sensitive to sample size and nearly always rejects the model when sample sizes are large (in this case the sample was $n = 1891$) (Hooper, Couglan, & Mullen, 2008). The other CFA results support the item-to-factor associations and the construct validity of the proposed research model (CFI = .97; NNFI = .96) (Hooper, Couglan, & Mullen, 2008). The fit indices and error term estimates indicate acceptable psychometric properties of the latent constructs and associated sub-domains. Approximately 93% of the variance and co-variance of the research constructs was explained by the collected data (GFI=.93) and further, the small error terms (RMSEA = .08; SRMR = .05) support an acceptable fit between the research constructs and the data (Chen, Curran, Bollen, Kirby, & Paxton, 2008; Hooper, Couglan, & Mullen, 2008; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). The measurement model factor loadings for the four latent variables and their respective sub-dimensions ranged from .61 to .93, well within acceptable limits (Hair et al., 2006) (see Figure 4).

Table 9

Measurement Model Fit Indices of CFA

Model Fit Indices	df	χ^2	χ^2 / df	RMSEA	SRMR	GFI	CFI	NNFI
Participation	55	1121.2*	21.15	.11	.04	.90	.97	.97
Socio-moral climate	130	1457.6*	11.21	.08	.04	.96	.99	.98
Engagement	19	304.12*	16.00	.09	.04	.96	.98	.96
Civic Attitudes	5	91.092*	18.21	.09	.04	.98	.97	.95
Measurement Model	71	1041.8*	13.78	.08	.05	.93	.97	.96

Note: *$p < .001$

Separate CFAs were conducted for each construct of the proposed research model: participation, socio-moral climate, employee engagement, and civic attitudes. The confirmatory factor analysis supported the two factor structure of participation, five factor structure of socio-moral climate, two factor structure of engagement, and single factor structure of civic attitudes. Table 10 in Appendix L contains the complete CFA factor loadings for the study's four latent variables.

The CFA for the 12-items comprising the study's independent (exogenous) latent variable of participation which, following Weber et al. (2008), consisted of the dimensions of *strategic* and *tactical* decision-making, demonstrated that the factor loadings for all of the items' fell between .46 and .83, within acceptable error limits (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). A second, higher order CFA was conducted to test whether the two dimensions of *strategic* and *tactical* decision-making comprise a single factor. The respective total measurement model factor loadings for the sub-domains of *tactical* and *strategic* decision-making were both .89. The estimates of the comparative fit indices (GFI, CFI, NNFI) were all above .90, supporting the two dimension factor structure of participation (Hair et al, 2006; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010).

Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted in similar fashion for the latent variables of socio-moral climate, engagement, and civic attitudes. The factor loadings for the 18 items comprising the five sub-domains of socio-moral climate ranged from .44 to .88, again, within acceptable error limits (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). All fit indices (RMSEA, SRMR, GFI, CFI, NNFI) showed good model-to-data fit (see table 9) and support the five sub-domains of socio-moral climate. The total measurement model factor loadings for the sub-domains of SMC were all good: .86 for *open confrontation*

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with conflicts; .91 for *open communication*; .90 for *appreciation and respect*; .93 for *trust and responsibility*; and .81 for *organizational concern for the individual*.

The item-to-factor loadings for the eight engagement items ranged from .47 to .89. The two-factor engagement scale showed good fit to the data (RMSEA = .09; SRMR = .04; GFI = .96; CFI = .98; NNFI = .96). The overall measurement model factor loadings were .89 for *vigor* and .80 for *dedication*. CFA results supported the two dimension factor structure of engagement. Finally, confirmatory factor analysis indicated acceptable item-to-factor associations for the five items comprising civic attitudes, with item-to-factor loadings between .50 and .73.

Structural Model Analysis

SEM analysis of the structural model can help determine the extent to which the theoretical model fits the data (Kline, 2011; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). Goodness of fit indices were used to assess the adequacy of the model fit (see table 3). The strength of the hypothesized relationships were assessed by the magnitude of the estimated parameters and the squared multiple correlations for the structural equations. This allows for an estimation of the amount of variance in the endogenous variables that is accounted for by the exogenous variables (Kline, 2011; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010).

Analysis of the hypothesized model via structural equation modeling showed an acceptable fit for all indices (χ^2 = 978.76; df = 71; p = .00; RMSEA = .08; NNFI = .96; CFI = .97; SRMR = .05; GFI = .93). Statistical significance ($p < .05$) for the relationships between the exogenous and endogenous variables is determined by a t-value higher than │1.96│(Kline, 2011; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). The standardized path coefficients indicate that participation explains 57% of the variance in socio-moral

climate (SPC = .57; *t* = 23.46) and 8% of the variance in civic attitudes (SPC = .08; *t* =

2.56); socio-moral climate explains 57% of the variance in engagement (SPC = .57; *t* =

19.76); and engagement explains 69% of the variance in civic attitudes (SPC = .69; *t* =

17.07). However, the direct relationship between participation and engagement (SPC =

.04; *t* = 1.53), as well as the relationship between SMC and civic attitudes (SPC = -.06; *t*

= -1.65), were both non-significant. Figure 4 displays the influential relationships among

the study constructs, with path coefficients and overall structural model fit.
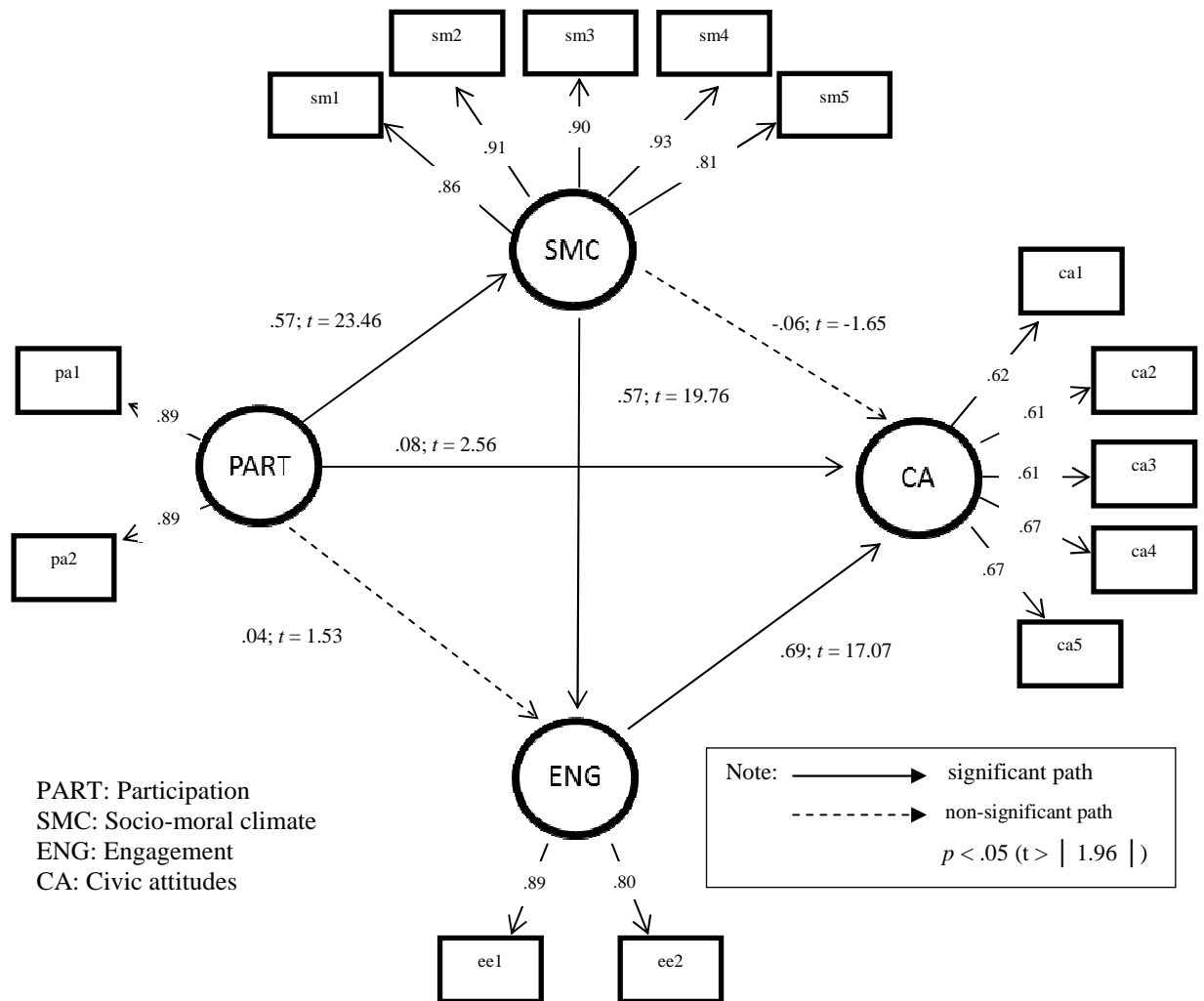
Figure 4: Structural Relationships with Path Coefficients

Examination of SEM direct and indirect standardized path coefficients (SPC) can further explain the influential relations contained in a structural model (Holbert & Stephensen, 2003; Kline, 2011). Table 11 displays the SEM path decomposition for each of the latent variables.

Table 11

Decomposition of Effects

Hypothesis	Path	Standardized Coefficient / (*t*-value)		
		Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Total Effect
H1	PART → SMC	.57 (23.46)*	--	.57
H2	PART → ENG	.04 (1.53)ns	.32	.36
H3	PART → CA	.08 (2.56)*	.22	.30
H4	PART → SMC → ENG		.32	
H4	PART → SMC → CA		-.03	
H5	ENG → CA	.69 (17.07)*	--	.69
H6	PART → ENG → CA		.03	

Note: *t-value > $\left| 1.96 \right|$. ns – Statistically non-significant.

Total effects (both direct and indirect) indicate that participation predicts socio-moral climate (.57) directly, and engagement (.36) and civic attitudes (.30) both directly and indirectly. This supports hypotheses *H1, H2*, and *H3*. Further, socio-moral climate mediated the influence of participation on engagement (.32) and civic attitudes (.22), thereby supporting hypothesis *H4*. Engagement had significant direct effects on civic attitudes (.69), supporting hypothesis *H5*, and also transmitted indirect effects from participation to civic attitudes (.03), supporting hypothesis *H6*.

There were two non-significant paths represented in the SEM analysis (see figure 4): SMC→CA and PART→ENG. However, in both cases, while the direct paths were non-significant, there were significant indirect effects through other variables. Inconsistent mediation is indicated when the direct and mediated effect of an exogenous variable have opposite signs (Holbert & Stephensen, 2003; Kline, 2011; Mackinnon,

Krull, & Lockwood, 2000), as was the case with the paths SMC→CA (SPC = -.06) and

PART→SMC (SPC = .57). In that case, the effects of participation on civic attitudes are

mediated by SMC, but they are passed through engagement first rather than directly onto

civic attitudes. The presence of engagement suppresses the effects of SMC on civic

attitudes, resulting in the non-significant, negative path SMC→CA. Similarly, the non-

significant path PART→ENG (SPC = .04) may be due to the mediation of SMC which

transmits the indirect effects of participation to engagement (.32). These results support

hypotheses *H4* and *H6* regarding the mediation effects of SMC and engagement and may

account for the non-significant direct paths PART→CA and SMC→CA.

Summary

The research model hypothesized that employee participation would explain a

significant portion of the variance in socio-moral climate, as well as employee

engagement and civic attitudes. Further, the model hypothesized that socio-moral

climate and engagement would act as mediating variables. Correlation coefficients

indicated significant co-variance among the latent variables, while multiple regression

total effect coefficients and path analysis supported the influential relationships of the

hypothesized model, including the mediation roles of SMC and engagement as confirmed

by the Sobel tests. The SEM measurement model analysis and CFA indicated acceptable

item-to-factor associations, as well as validity of the research constructs and

measurement model fit. Structural model analysis supported the hypothesized model as

well, indicating that participation is a relatively strong direct predictor of socio-moral

climate (SPC = .57; $t = 23.46$) and a significant direct predictor of civic attitudes (SPC =

.08; $t = 2.56$); socio-moral climate acts as a mediator and accounts for a significant

portion of the variance in engagement (SPC = .57; t = 19.76) and engagement, in turn, is

a strong predictor of civic attitudes (SPC = .69; t = 17.07). Analysis of the direct and

indirect SEM standardized path coefficients supports a multiple mediator model in which

both socio-moral climate and engagement transmit some of the effects between the

variables. Participation becomes an important predictor of engagement and civic

attitudes primarily through intervening variables (SMC and ENG). Table 12 summarizes

the hypotheses tests.

Table 12

Summary of Hypotheses Tests

Research Question/Hypotheses	Results
RQ2: What are the structural relationships between employee participation, engagement and civic attitudes in a police context?	See Hypotheses
H1: Participation contributes significantly to police employees' perceptions of socio-moral climate.	Supported
H2: Participation contributes significantly to police employees' sense of engagement.	Supported
H3: Participation contributes significantly to police employees' civic attitudes.	Supported
H4: Police employees' perceptions of socio-moral climate mediate the effects of participation on engagement and civic attitudes.	Supported
H5: Police employees' sense of engagement contributes significantly to civic attitudes.	Supported
H6: Police employees' sense of engagement mediates the effect of participation on civic attitudes	Supported

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary of the Study

There is increasing recognition among police scholars and practitioners that

traditional, paramilitary police management approaches are out of touch with the

demands of contemporary law enforcement and with the nature and capabilities of the

modern police workforce (Conser, 2012; Cowper, 2000, 2012; Fridell, 2004; Jackson,

2012; King, 2004; Maguire & Katz, 2002; Marks & Sklansky, 2008; Paoline, 2003;

Sklansky, 2006, 2007). Many of these critical assessments of police administration also

call for bottom-up management shifts that afford greater autonomy and involvement in

decision-making for baseline officers. Yet, employee participation in organizational

decision-making, as well as its associated workforce outcomes, is an under-researched

topic in the police field (Marks & Sklansky, 2008; Sklansky, 2007). A review of the

literature found no systematic, large scale studies of employee participation in policing.

Purpose and Hypotheses

Research in other fields suggests that a variety of positive outcomes can result

from allowing employees to participate in organizational decision-making (e.g. Cotton et

al., 1988; Strauss, 1998; Wilkenson et al., 2011). The purpose of this study was to gain

an initial insight into the level of participation that currently exists in American police

organizations and whether this has linkages to other workforce variables. Specifically,

the research examined whether involvement of police employees in decision-making has

an effect on their perceptions of organizational climate, sense of work engagement, and

their civic attitudes. The following latent variables comprised the research constructs for

the study:

Employee Participation (EP): An umbrella term that refers to the systematic involvement

of employees in decision-making. Employee perceptions of their involvement in both

strategic and tactical decision-making were assessed in this study. Participation was

presumed to be the primary independent variable capable of influencing the other

variables.

Socio-Moral Climate (SMC): A daily work climate marked by open communication,

respect, trust, appreciation, frank expression of ideas and opinions, and participative

cooperation (Weber et al., 2009; Pircher Verdorfer, 2010). SMC is considered to be a

healthy work climate that is conducive to ethical conduct and a sense of responsibility,

both internally and externally.

Employee Engagement (EE): Essentially this refers to a person's psychological presence

at work. It is a persistent and pervasive cognitive state of vigor and dedication while at

work that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual, or behavior.

(Schaufeli et al., 2009).

Civic Attitudes (CA): These comprise one's awareness and affective opinions toward social problems, community involvement, and belief in one's ability to make a difference (Mabry, 1998).

In designing this study, the foregoing variables were chosen because they are all important workforce factors with relevance to policing and they have been associated with each other, or similar constructs, in other research (Weber et al., 2008; 2009; Pirscher-Verdorfer, 2010; Unterraniner, et al. 2010). Further, these factors fall within the influence of police managers who can choose whether or not to create a participative environment (Marks & Sklansky, 2008; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008). Socio-moral climate describes a healthy, cohesive, and ethical atmosphere that is particularly desirable in police organizations because it is believed to promote a positive work ethic and sense of internal and external responsibility (Weber et al., 2008; 2009; Pirscher-Verdorfer, 2010). Engagement is an important workforce factor as it directly impacts employee work ethic and is an antipode to burnout (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Schaufeli et al. 2001). Finding ways to keep employees engaged is particularly important in the public sector where the financial incentives are not as flexible and the civil service protections can be extensive (Hurd, 2003). And finally, maximizing the communitarian and civic values of police employees furthers the ultimate mission of policing.

A literature review yielded two research questions, a conceptual model, and five hypotheses. The first research question inquired into the level of participation that currently exists in police organizations, at least from the perspective of police employees. The second research question explored the relationships between participation, socio-moral climate, employee engagement, and civic attitudes.

Six hypotheses were developed in connection with the second research question:

H1: Participation contributes significantly to police employees' perceptions of socio-moral climate.

H2: Participation contributes significantly to police employees' sense of engagement.

H3: Participation contributes significantly to police employees' civic attitudes.

H4: Police employees' perceptions of socio-moral climate mediate the effects of participation on engagement and civic attitudes.

H5: Police employees' sense of engagement contributes significantly to civic attitudes.

H6: Police employees' sense of engagement mediates the effect of participation on civic attitudes.

Procedures

In March of 2011, 15 medium size police agencies from 10 states, all affiliated with the Benchmark Cities Survey, agreed to take part in a survey questionnaire study. Employees from each these agencies were solicited to participate in the research. A 51-item questionnaire using previously validated questions was posted on Survey Monkey from May 2 to August 4, 2011. The potential population for the study included 4,222 individuals from the 15 police departments. Ultimately, 2,211 police employees participated in the survey, a relatively high response rate of 52%. Deletion of missing data and outliers yielded a final research sample of 1,891 cases. The data were analyzed using descriptive and correlational statistics, multiple linear regression, and structural equation modeling.

Results

To address the study's first research question regarding the level of police employee participation in organizational decision-making, the means of the police sample were compared with the means of the European workers (*n*=542) that Weber et al. (2008)

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obtained. Surprisingly, this comparison revealed that police organizations in the study

were not strictly hierarchical. They fell between traditional hierarchical bureaucracies

that exhibit little or no employee participation and social partnership enterprises, which

allow for some employee involvement, principally at the tactical level.

With regard to the second research question, the correlation coefficients show that

all the latent variables are positively and significantly correlated (see table 5). Further,

the measurement model exhibited acceptable scale reliability (α .75 - .95) and CFA

established acceptable item-to-factor scale validity. Multiple linear regression tended to

support the study hypotheses if total effect, or *effect coefficients*, were taken into account.

The effect coefficients and path analysis, which considered both direct and indirect

effects, supported the significance of the relationships between participation, socio-moral

climate, engagement, and civic attitudes. Sobel tests supported a mediation model in

which socio-moral climate and engagement partially mediate the relationships of the

model.

Generally, the structural equation modeling analysis was in agreement with the

regression results. Participation directly accounted for 57% of the variance in socio-

moral climate (*H1*) and 8% of the variance in civic attitudes (*H3*). Socio-moral climate,

in turn, predicted 57% of the variance in engagement (*H4*), which then accounted for

69% of the variance in civic attitudes (*H5*). The *t*-values showed all these relationships to

be statistically significant. In addition, effect decomposition showed that the impacts of

participation on engagement (*H2*) and civic attitudes (*H3*) were principally indirect

effects (see Table 11) and were much stronger when the mediation roles of socio-moral

climate and engagement were considered (*H4, H6*). It appeared the primary path of the

model flowed from participation to socio-moral climate, to engagement, and then to civic attitudes. Finally, SEM supported the study's hypothesized four factor model. The magnitude of the estimated parameters, the squared multiple correlations for the structural equations, and the model's goodness-of-fit to the data supported its structural relations. Table 12 summarized the conclusions concerning the study's six research hypotheses.

Conclusions and Discussion

Conclusions

The first conclusion that can be drawn from this study is that police organizations are not strictly hierarchical in their administration. The 1,831 police employees from 15 departments from across the country who completed the survey indicated that they are more involved in organizational decision-making than what is typically found in traditionally managed hierarchical companies according to the typology of organizational hierarchy developed by Weber et al., (2008). Obviously, there was variation in the level of employee participation among the different police departments involved in the study, but generally police employees appear to have more input than assumed in the literature, especially at the tactical, everyday job level.

Second, correlation coefficients, multiple linear regression, and structural equation modeling support the associations between the variables. Hypotheses *H1, H2, H3, H4, H5,* and *H6* were all supported by the data, regardless of statistical technique employed. Path analysis, Sobel tests, and effects decomposition suggest a mediation model whereby employee participation in organizational decision-making contributes to the creation of socio-moral climate which, in turn, contributes to employee engagement.

This engagement is directed both internally toward organizational responsibilities and externally toward the community (civic attitudes), which is the focus of the organization.

Discussion

Lawrence Kohlberg (1971) conceived of "just community" schools in which the students would take on responsibility for running their school (Power et al., 1989). He theorized that such an arrangement would help grow the students in terms of citizenship and moral development; that they would learn through experience the meaning of responsibility, respect, commitment, democracy, and ethical decision-making. His idea was that one cannot simply teach these qualities, they must be practiced through experiential learning. Like Dewey (1916), Piaget (1932), Vygotsky (1934), and Durkheim (1925), he felt that such lessons must be taught in a social environment, in a climate of justice and open communication wherein the learners are actively engaged. Empirical studies on Kohlberg's just community schools substantiated his beliefs (Power et al., 1989).

Transferring this concept of just community to organizations, it takes the form of socio-moral climate (SMC) (Weber et al., 2008, 2009; Pirscher-Verdorfer, 2010). Active participation is an integral component of SMC and a principle antecedent of it (Weber et al., 2008; 2009). The present study confirmed that participation is an important predictor of SMC and that organizational climate is a significant predictor of workforce engagement. It could be that inclusive participation helps create a positive workplace climate and a sense of ownership (Weber, et al., 2009), which in turn elicits a reciprocity response from employees wherein they become more engaged. This engagement extends beyond the bounds of the organization to influence employee civic attitudes toward the

community as well, particularly when service to the community represents the mission of the agency. Since the path from participation to engagement is not direct, but is mediated by socio-moral climate, the issue of organizational climate takes on added importance.

A socio-moral climate is one that is open, communicative, participative, trusting, supportive, and respectful. Such an environment appears to encourage internal and external engagement and responsibility among employees. Organizational culture, as the underlying value system of a social group (Schein, 2010), and organizational climate as the individual's subjective perception of culture (Ashkanasy, Wilderom, & Peterson, 2000), are two sides of the same coin that "address a common phenomenon: the creation and influence of social contexts in organizations" (Denison, 1996, p. 646). Together, these constructs can influence employee attitudes, behavior, and work ethic (Schneider, 2000; Svyantek & Bott, 2004). However, public sector organizations have paid scant attention to the matter of culture / climate. Parker and Bradley (2000) point to the traditional bureaucratic orientation of public agencies as the reason for this neglect:

> The literature on public organizations, therefore, suggests that they have traditionally under-emphasized developmental and rational aspects of organizational culture because they have lacked an orientation towards adaptability, change, and risk-taking (developmental culture) and have lacked an orientation towards outcomes such as productivity and efficiency (rational culture). Instead, these organizations have been oriented towards a hierarchical culture because of their emphasis on rules, procedures, and stability. (p. 4).

Kohlberg's (1971) "educative democracy," as practiced in the just community schools of the 1970s, helped create an environment of trust and responsibility that matured the ethical reasoning and civic behavior of students. It appears that the same sort of 'just community' mechanism may be possible in the workplace if proper attention is paid to

the cultivation of organizational climate. Inclusive participation of employees in day-to-day organizational operations is a principal component in this process.

Implications

Theoretical Implications

The theoretical implications of this study are three fold: (A) it establishes that police employees are generally more involved in organizational decision-making than previously assumed; (B) it confirms the linkages between employee participation, SMC, engagement, and civic attitudes, and extends this theoretical frame to a paramilitary police context; and (C) it is the first application of an English version of the SMC scale to an American context.

A. Police Participation. This paper has cited a large body of literature that is critical of police administration as being antiquated, authoritarian and bureaucratic. Having worked in the field for over 30-years, I count myself among these critics. It was fully expected that the data would support this proposition; that police organizations would fall squarely in the traditional, hierarchical category of the Weber et al. (2008) typology wherein employee input is nearly non-existent. Surprisingly, they did not. On average, the employees of the departments that took part in this study indicated that they are much more involved in organizational decision-making than is generally found in a hierarchical enterprise. They fell in-between a hierarchical organization and a social enterprise. Social enterprises are marked by regular consultation with employees on operational (tactical) matters. In the 1980 and 90s, the IDE studies (1981; 1993) found relatively low levels of employee participation across Europe, with the highest level of participation coming from the worker cooperatives of the former socialist Yugoslavia

(M=2.44). Against this backdrop, police organizational participation fares pretty well

(M=2.11). In fact, two police departments in this study (M=2.81; M=2.52) *exceeded* the

Yugoslav cooperatives (M=2.44). All this points to far less authoritarianism in American

policing than has been generally assumed in the scholarly and professional literature.

The rhetoric concerning participatory forms of management in policing has

gained considerable attention in recent years; in academic and professional journals, and

at conferences and executive development trainings (Marks & Sklansky, 2008). It is

noteworthy that five (one-third) of the agencies involved in this study had implemented

significant structural measures to facilitate employee input and communication prior to

taking part in the study. This fact was discovered only in the course of the research and

was completely unplanned and unexpected. No doubt, many of the police leaders of the

15 agencies that took part in the research had previously been exposed to the bottom-up

participation debate and may have already modified their management styles accordingly.

It came as an interesting revelation that contemporary police management is not as

autocratic as previously believed and may, in fact, be in the midst of a paradigm shift

toward more participatory and inclusive forms of leadership.

B. Participation, Socio-Moral Climate, Engagement, and Civic Attitudes.

The data established significant linkages between the major constructs of the

study and supported the research hypotheses. Directly and indirectly, participation

explained well over half the variance in socio-moral climate, socio-moral climate

predicted over half the variation in engagement, and engagement accounted for the

majority of the variation in civic attitudes. According to multiple goodness-of-fit indices,

the hypothesized model displayed acceptable fit to the data. These findings replicated

portions of research conducted on participation and SMC by Weber et al. (2008; 2009) and extended it to a paramilitary police context.

The study provides further support for the efficacy of participatory forms of management and contributes to the still emerging engagement literature by describing its interrelations with participation, socio-moral climate, and civic attitudes. As an independent variable, participation appears to have a relatively powerful impact on the climate of an organization which, in turn, can significantly affect worker engagement. Also, as noted, workforce engagement can have a number of positive outcomes, including, in this case, favorable civic attitudes. It is noteworthy that the present research revealed a relatively high level of police job engagement. The sample mean for engagement was M=4.14 on a Likert scale of 1 to 5. It bodes well for the police profession that, on average, its employees are highly engaged with their law enforcement role and that this translates into positive civic attitudes (M=4.29).

C. An English Version of the SMC Scale. In order to assess socio-moral climate, it was necessary to generate a translated version of the original German SMC scale and then apply it to a new American police context. The original SMC scale was developed and validated by Weber et al. (2008) in Europe, based on groundwork laid by Hoff, Lempert, and Lappe (1991) and Lempert (1994). The scale was further refined by Pirscher-Verdorfer (2010). This scale, comprised of 24 items, was in German and had only been used in Germany, Austria and German speaking firms of Northern Italy. It measures five subdomains: *open confrontation with conflicts; open communications and participative cooperation; reliable appreciation and respect; trust and responsibility; and organizational concern for the individual.* The reliability of the scale was

determined by Weber et al. (2008) to be α=.89. For this study, the SMC questionnaire

was translated from the original German version into English using a backward and

forward translation procedure (McGorry, 2000). The originators of the scale (Pirscher-

Verdorfer, 2010; Weber et al. 2008) assisted with the translation procedure. Ultimately,

the scale was translated and examined by two bi-lingual German/English speakers and

two English speakers. The translated instrument was examined for clarity, common

language, cultural adequacy, and contextual understanding (Appendix F). Four iterations

of the instrument were examined in this backward and forward translation process until

all inconsistencies were reconciled and a final English version was agreed upon

(Appendix G).

Graduate students from the University of Oklahoma and police volunteers from

the Broken Arrow, Oklahoma, Police Department assisted with further screening of the

English version of the SMC scale for face validity and contextual understanding. Some

minor language modifications were made to better adapt the instrument to a police

context. The English version was then re-examined by the originators of the scale

(Pirscher-Verdorder, 2010; Weber et al., 2008; 2009) for consistency with its original

intent (face validity). In the end, 18 of the original 24 SMC items from the German scale

were selected for the present study. These items were further screened during a pilot test

of the questionnaire with 33 police executives at a meeting of the Benchmark Cities in

March of 2011. Only very minor wording clarifications were made following the pilot

test. For instance, because the police chiefs wanted non-sworn employees added to the

study sample, all wording relating to "officer" was changed to "employee."

McGorry (2000) cautioned that the nuances of language, cultural understandings, and contextual considerations can impair the psychometric reliability and validity of questionnaire scales when they are translated. Certainly, for this study, the contextual considerations were important, as a European business context is very dissimilar to an American police context. However, in the end, both the German originators of the scale and American police experts agreed that the English version had good face validity. Further, the translated scale exhibited better reliability (α=.95) than the German version and confirmatory factor analysis indicated acceptable construct validity.

The construct of socio-moral climate in its present conception is relatively new (Weber et al., 2008). Yet, it is emerging by virtue of several studies, including this one, as an important variable within the organizational climate literature. Its link with participation and its mediating role with other constructs reinforces the notion that organizational climate can be a defining element in organizations that has implications for other workplace variables (Schein, 2010). The extension of the SMC construct to English speaking contexts, and even paramilitary contexts, contributes to the understanding of both it and the concept of organizational climate generally.

Practical Implications

Military style organizational structure and autocratic management approaches were adopted within policing at a time when political influence and corruption represented a real threat to democratic notions of justice. Authoritarian supervision and bureaucratic professionalism were seen as the most expedient and reliable ways of curbing police abuse of power; ensuring that police would be insulated from political cooptation and yet still obedient to civilian oversight. While this approach may have

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made sense when it was adopted early in the twentieth century and did, in fact, move the police toward more solid footing, it has far less relevance today in a global, technological environment that values proactive, diverse, community-focused crime control strategies. A very recent critique by Jackson (2012) summarizes the problem:

> Police organizations are highly formalized and authoritarian…there is a marked difference between front-line personnel and supervisors; there are extensive policies and procedures governing officer behavior and conduct; officers must seek approval before they can make some basic decisions; and the emphasis is on organizational control rather than organizational efficacy. These characteristics work well in routine, predictable, and fixed-work environments; policing work environments would rarely be described in such terms (p. 14).

However, the results of this study suggest that perhaps Jackson's critique is already losing its bite and that many police leaders are currently responding to the problem. This study establishes a baseline understanding that contemporary police organizations are not strictly hierarchical in their administrative practices. The data provided by police employees from across the country suggests that they feel they have at least some opportunity for organizational input. This indicates that police administrators have begun to question their traditional paradigms; that they recognize that inclusion of employees has advantages over autocracy. It indicates that change has begun.

Given the well-researched outcomes of workplace participation (Cloak & Goldsmith, 2002; Cotton et al., 1988; Heller et al., 1998; Pircher-Verdorfer, 2010; Strauss, 1998; Weber et al., 2008; 2009; Wegge et al., 2010; Wilkenson et al., 2010; Wood, 2010; Unterrainer et al., 2010; VanYperen et al., 1999), including some research in police organizations (Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008; Toch & Grant, 1975; 2005; Wykoff & Skogan, 1994), this is a welcome change. Allowing employees a voice in the

business, including the business of justice administration, has real potential for improving the workplace and the work product.

Economic factors. When I attended the Benchmark Cities Summit in Overland Park, Kansas, in March of 2011 to administer a pilot test of the study questionnaire, I was struck by how concerned the chiefs were about maintaining the morale of their agencies during the recent economic recession. Many agencies had suffered huge budget cuts, employee layoffs, contract concessions, and the like. Given these hard realities, police administrators are grasping for non-monetary means of buoying the spirits of their troops and maximizing their existing human resources (Haberfeld, 2011).

For most of the history of American policing, human resources have been undervalued. In fact, they have been viewed more as a liability than an asset (Sklansky, 2007). Workforce performance and motivation have been assumed to be a function of improving pay and benefits (DeLord et al., 2008). Now, police administrators find that they cannot offer attractive employment contracts to their unions and are even taking concessions back in order to avoid further layoffs (Haberfeld, 2011). Consequently, they are more open to considering non-monetary incentives.

An interesting aspect of the study that was not reported in the results section involved an analysis of economic factors. All the participating chiefs were asked to supply background on budgetary impacts to their respective agencies since 2008; whether their departments had suffered layoffs, hiring freezes, severe budget cuts, pay rollbacks, etc. The agencies reflected the regional variations in the economic recession. Some had only experienced mild budget freezes or reductions. Others had suffered fairly severe budget cuts and reductions in force. Interestingly, when economic information was

compared with the disaggregated survey data for each of the 15 agencies, no correlations were found between economic factors and the data for socio-moral climate, engagement, or civic attitudes. In other words, there was no positive or negative correlation between bad economic news and bad workforce attitudes. In fact, two of the economically hardest hit agencies actually had the highest mean values for socio-moral climate, employee engagement, and civic attitudes. One of these agencies had even suffered a 6% pay cut and pension reductions the day before the survey went out. It is conjecture, but it may be that, in these cases, a preexisting socio-moral climate actually helped these departments weather the economic storm. Both of these departments also displayed high mean values for employee participation.

For public sector organizations during times of economic difficulty, a tightly knit workforce, operating in a socio-moral climate of participation, open communication, respect, and responsibility, may be the best insurance that money can't buy.

Implications for Occupational and Law Enforcement Education

The outcomes of this study are relevant to police occupational education and executive development training. Occupational education has always been critically important to the field of law enforcement (Carter, Sapp, & Stephens, 1989). In every dark era of policing, reformers have pointed to education and training as key factors for improvement of the police service (Danzker, 1999; Kelling, 1996). The present and future will only accelerate this imperative. Technology, globalization, demographic changes and economic instability are megatrends that are affecting every aspect of our society (Canton, 2006; Friedman, 2007), and no less so the business of law enforcement (Schafer, Buerger, Myers, Jensen, & Levin, 2012). There is increasing recognition that

solitary leaders cannot have all the answers, and so organizations have been turning to teams, inter-disciplinary work groups, and participatory management schemes in order to increase organizational learning and adaptability (Cloke, & Goldsmith, 2002; Drucker, 2002; Mans & Sims, 2001; Raelin, 2003, 2004, 2007; Thompson, 2011; Wilkenson et al., 2010). Police executive education and training will need to account for this shift as it prepares tomorrow's police leaders.

P**olice executive development training.** The present study affirms the positive workforce benefits that attach to participative management practices. The private sector has recognized this for some time and more recently the public sector has begun to follow suit (Al-Yahya, 2009; Ospina & Yaroni, 2003). However, the mindset shift for managers from individual decision-making to shared decision-making is not automatic. As Gordon (2001) points out, this is a fairly dramatic paradigm shift "away from the traditional 'dominator' model of leadership toward a 'partnership' model; away from hierarchies toward flat organizations; away from an emphasis on 'ranking' people toward 'linking' them" (p. vii). Making this adjustment requires new specialized skills in team facilitation, non-directive leadership techniques, conflict resolution, open communication, and action-based learning strategies (Gordon, 2001; Raelin, 2003, 2007).

Yet, for such training to even gain a foothold it may be necessary to overcome the skepticism and resistance that traditional managers are likely to harbor. Sharing power can be a threatening experience for many managers (Fenton-O'Creevy, 1998; Mills & Ungson, 2003). Given this, training on new, more participatory forms of management may have to focus as much on attitudinal change as on knowledge transfer. The

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methodology of training may be every bit as important as the message. This is where an evidence-based approach may be useful.

Evidence-based training involves delivery of new concepts through both declarative knowledge (principles) and procedural knowledge (implementation 'know how') (Rousseau & McCarthy, 2007). Case-based, problem-based, and active-learning methodologies are preferred for this kind of training in order to provide participants with factual, contextualized examples of theoretical concepts (Raelin, 2000; 2003). Further, direct involvement of practitioner-instructors can enhance uptake of evidence-based training and help overcome participant resistance to the implementation of new management approaches, such as participatory leadership (Steinheider, Wuestewald, & Pirscher-Verdorfer, in-press).

Limitations and Further Research

Because the present study used a single method approach of quantitative, empirical, multivariate analysis, threats from common method variance cannot be excluded (Podsakoff et al., 2003). However, the common method variance problem was ameliorated somewhat in this study by using previously validated scales, anonymous response protocols, and pilot testing of the survey instrument. In addition, confirmatory factor analysis indicated that the items loaded on four separate factors without any apparent cross-factor loadings, thereby supporting discriminant validity of the findings. Yet, it is possible that some common method variance entered the results because the police participants for this research received their survey links directly from their chiefs. Even though the questionnaire data was anonymous, this might have added a bias to the

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results. Unfortunately, this was unavoidable because open access to police employee e-mails was not available.

In any event, there is a strong need for qualitative research consisting of employee interviews to further explore and explain the links between the variables that were studied here. Such qualitative research could further enhance the data and cross-validate the conclusions. It may also explore variables that were not studied here, but nonetheless may have affected the results.

This research indicates that employee participation in the field of policing has real promise for improving law enforcement organizational climate and workforce engagement. Further, the results suggest that the level of employee participation in American policing is greater than generally assumed. Inasmuch as participation has been shown to have important organizational and workforce benefits (e.g. Heller, 2003; Heller, Pusic, Stauss, & Wilpert, 1998; Pirscher-Verdorfer, 2010; Weber, Unterrainer, & Höge, 2008; Weber, Unterrainer, & Schmid, 2009; Wilkenson, Gollan, Marchington, & Lewin, 2010), this tantalizing prospect deserves further research and confirmation. As a cross-sectional study, this research sets a baseline for longitudinal data gathering in the future that includes behavioral as well as attitudinal data (Ajzen, 2005). Future studies should consider examination of archival data, such as statistics on employee productivity, or even observational studies to further substantiate self-report survey data regarding participation, socio-moral climate, engagement, etc.

In addition, longitudinal trends could be examined to see if participation is increasing or decreasing in the agencies that took part in this study, as well as in law enforcement generally. The baseline data presented here could also be used for pre/post-

test studies within individual agencies of management interventions, training programs, or external factors. In addition, the agencies that cooperated with the study can all be classified as medium-sized departments of similar demographic makeup. Replication of the research with samplings of both large and small agencies would provide a clearer picture of the state of employee participation in American policing. Similarly, with regard to socio-moral climate, this study, as well as those by Weber and associates (2008; 2009), Pirscher-Verdorfer (2010) and Unterrainer et al. (2010,) only examined small or medium size enterprises. The dynamics of organizational culture and climate may be different in larger organizations and deserves more study (Schein, 2010).

An interesting ancillary of the research was that severe economic factors did not correlate with employee perceptions of any of the individual or organizational variables. Since it appears it will be a long, slow economic recovery, it would be valuable to further explore whether employee involvement in organizational decision-making and the presence of socio-moral climate can have an insulating effect on workforce engagement in the face of external threats, such as a budget crises. Case studies of some of the most economically impacted agencies could shed light on strategies for maintaining employee morale and work ethic during bad economic times.

Recommendations for Practice

Policing has been regarded as one of the last remaining bastions of traditional bureaucratic management (e.g. Jackson, 2012; King, 2004). The results here suggest that this may be changing; that police leaders are in the midst of a paradigm shift in how they view their human resources. The fact that 15 police chiefs freely chose to take part in a study aiming to assess employee participation is, in itself, revealing. Terms such as

"participative leadership," "participative management," "shared leadership," and "officer empowerment," increasingly appear in police administration textbooks, professional journals, and executive seminars. From all appearances, including the results of this study, it seems there is movement toward more inclusive management approaches in the law enforcement profession.

Given that police leaders have limited financial resources for engaging their employees, participative decision-making and a supportive work climate are inexpensive alternatives. Weber et al. (2008; 2009) have recommended that organizations adopt structurally anchored participation, i.e. formalized systems for employee inclusion. Certainly, research has documented the positive influence that anchored participation has on employee commitment, productivity, labor-management relations, community relations, and task identity in law enforcement contexts (Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008; Toch, Grant, & Galvin, 1975; Wycoff & Skogan, 1994). However, informal participative arrangements have also been shown to be effective in generating positive workforce outcomes in police contexts (Wuestewald & Steinheider, 2012). Adoption of 'softer' management styles that stress facilitation, coaching, and participative decision-making by front-line supervisors, middle managers, and senior executives is therefore recommended (Cloke & Goldsmith, 2002; Raelin 2003, 2007).

The findings concerning SMC reveal the role that organizational climate can play in generating employee engagement with the job and the community. Climate is a function of several variables, one of which is employee participation in workplace decision-making. This, combined with organizational concern for the individual, respect, trust, support, open communication, and meaningful responsibility, will contribute to the

creation of socio-moral climate (Pirscher-Verdorfer, 2010; Weber et al, 2008; 2009).

These are qualities that police leaders should seek to cultivate in their departments.

Naturally, it is important that chief executives model these characteristics, but it is

equally important that intensive training take place at all levels in order to imbed these

practices in the fabric of an organization.

Concluding Thoughts

The research presented here has explored the relationships between several key

workplace variables. But really, this study is about leadership. On one level, the

constructs that were studied are abstractions that help describe social phenomena. On

another, they are tangible representations of the relationships between people. What the

results are saying is that human enterprise depends to a large extent upon how people

relate to one another. Their willingness to engage their talents and energy on behalf of

each other and their organization is often a function of the quality of the relationships that

have been built. It seems we have not finally learned this lesson about the human factor

despite all the research and experience. Over 50 years ago, Douglas McGregor (1960),

the originator of Theory X and Theory Y, offered the following on why leadership often

goes awry:

> I have come to the conviction that some of our most important problems
> lie elsewhere... The reason is that we have not learned enough about the
> utilization of talent, about the creation of an organizational climate
> conducive to human growth. The blunt fact is that we are a long way from
> realizing the potential represented by the human resources we now recruit
> into industry (p. vi).

The modern era is too complicated and dynamic to go it alone. It requires the

collective. This calls for leadership that is more participative, collegial, and nuanced. If,

through leadership, police administrators can foster more inclusive relationships and thereby create a positive work climate, then they are going to be more successful in building effective organizations. During my time as a police chief, I unequivocally found this to be true. Throughout those years, I was continually reminded of the advice of Professor Mark Moore (2000) of the Harvard Kennedy School: "The thing about leadership is….never do it alone."

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APPENDICES

Appendix A   Organizational Participation Questionnaire

Please answer each question by filling in the blank or putting an "X" in the box to the left of your response to multiple choice questions.

Agency: _____

Years of Law Enforcement Experience:

☐ 1-5   ☐ 6-10 ☐ 11-20   ☐21+

Rank: ☐ Chief / Deputy Chief

          ☐ Major / Division Commander

          ☐ Captain / Lieutenant (Shift Commander)

          ☐ Sergeant / Corporal (Squad Leader)

          ☐ Officer

Gender: ☐Male ☐ Female

Age: ☐ 21-30   ☐ 31-40   ☐41-50 ☐51+

Highest Education Level Achieved:

☐ High School   ☐ Some College

☐ Associates Degree   ☐ Baccalaureate Degree

☐ Masters Degree   ☐ Doctorate Degree

Are you a member of a collective bargaining unit?   ☐ Yes ☐ No

If so, have you served in a senior leadership position within the union (President, Board of Directors) or on a bargaining committee? ☐ Yes   ☐ No

Please mark an "X" in the box that best describes your involvement in decision-making within your department, team, work unit, or as part of a committee. If you make a mistake or want to change your answer, please circle the correct "X" mark.

		I am not involved at all	I am informed about the matter	I can give my opinion beforehand	My opinion is taken into account	I take part in the decision-making
1.	Changes in mission statement, values, or goals for your department.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	Approval of the budget for your department, division, unit or work group.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	Major capital investment (purchase of vehicles, large-scale equipment, new facilities, or major new initiatives.)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	Major changes in the organization of a division or work unit.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	Election or appointment of members to a governing body.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	Establishment of departmental operating principles, policies, or procedures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	Routine operational planning to carry out work squad/unit objectives.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	Preparation of the budget for the department, squad, division, or work unit.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	Process improvement (cost savings, new procedures, technology, protocols, innovations.)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	Purchasing new equipment (tools, supplies.)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	Selection of employees to a job, specialty assignment or work unit.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12.	Selection or evaluation of a superior officer.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please mark an "X" in the box that best describes the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. If you make a mistake or want to change your answer, please circle the correct "X" mark.

		Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
1.	In our police department, we deal frankly with conflicts and disagreements.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	In our agency, people are treated with respect regardless of their rank or position.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	In our agency, you can speak your mind without fear of negative consequences.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	People in our department feel responsible for the welfare of the larger community.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	We try to balance the needs of the individual with the interests of the department.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	Tensions between management and employees are discussed openly in our agency.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	Every member of our organization is valued as a person and not just a number.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	Employee suggestions and concerns are taken seriously in our agency.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	In our department, supervisors trust people to act responsibly.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	When dealing with personal problems, employees can count on the understanding of others in our organization.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	Differing views about important matters are handled openly in our organization.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12.	In our police department, honest mistakes can be forgiven.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13.	In our agency, we can question principles and practices that are no longer useful.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14.	People feel responsible for one another in our department.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15.	Complaints about working conditions are taken seriously in our agency.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16.	In our organization, everyone is respected.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

		Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
17.	In our police department, employees participate in important decision-making.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18.	In our department, everyone is entrusted with important work according to their skills.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19.	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20.	It is important to help others, even if you don't get paid for it.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21.	At work, I have a lot of energy.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22.	I feel like I can make a difference in the world.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23.	At work, I always persevere, even when things don't go well.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24.	Individuals have a responsibility to help solve social problems.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25.	I can continue working for very long periods of time.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26.	I find my job challenging.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
27.	I am enthusiastic about my job.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
28.	I am proud of the work I do.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
29.	People, regardless of how successful they are, ought to help others.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
30.	I find my work full of meaning and purpose.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
31.	People should give some time for the good of their community or country.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Thank you for your time and cooperation in completing this questionnaire.
It is greatly appreciated.

Informed Consent

Project Title: The Structural Relationships between Organizational Participation, Socio-
Moral Climate, Engagement, and Civic Attitudes in a Police Context

Investigator: Todd Wuestewald, Oklahoma State University

Purpose: The purpose of this research study is to examine the degree to which police officers regularly participate in decision-making within their own agencies and the links this might have to their job engagement, their attitudes toward the community, and their perceptions of the climate of their organizations. We are inviting you, along with officers from other police departments, to take part in this research study by completing an online questionnaire.

Procedures: If you decide to participate, you will be asked to complete a research survey questionnaire that will ask for some information about you, such as your age, education, and gender, as well as questions about your job, such as your rank, tenure, etc. The questionnaire will then ask about your level of participation in departmental decision-making, your feelings toward your job and the community, and your perceptions of the work climate in your department. It will take approximately 15 minutes to complete the survey.

Risks of Participation: There are no known risks associated with this research study which are greater than those ordinarily encountered in daily life.

Benefits: This research study will help us to understand whether involving police officers in organizational decision-making can impact their level of job engagement, their civic attitudes, and their perceptions of organizational climate. The results may affect how we view police administrative practice and theory.

Confidentiality: All information will be anonymous since no names or identification numbers will be recorded on the survey. The records of this research study will be kept private and secured. Data from the paper questionnaires will be transferred to a secure computer and then the paper questionnaires will be destroyed. No names or identifiers will be recorded in the data file and only researchers and individuals responsible for research oversight will have access to it. Any written results will discuss only aggregated, group findings and will not include individual responses. It is possible that the consent process and data collection will be observed by research oversight staff responsible for safeguarding the rights and wellbeing of people who participate in research. It is also possible that someone will be able to deduce that you participated in this research study based on your job or rank within your agency; but permission has

been given by your agency for you to participate, as well as assurance that no adverse consequences will occur. Further, specific agencies will not be identified in any subsequent written reports or publications, although aggregated results will be discussed. Only the chief executives of the participating agencies will have access to the aggregated results for their respective agencies.

Contacts: If you have any questions or concerns about this project, please contact **Todd Wuestewald, 918-693-9918, twuestewald@okstate.edu** and/or **Dr. Jihoon Song, 405-744-3613, jihoon.song@okstate.edu.** If you have questions about your rights as a research volunteer, you may contact Dr. Shelia Kennison, IRB Chair, 219 Cordell North, Stillwater, OK 70478, 405-744-3377 or irb@okstate.edu.

Participant Rights: Your participation in this study is appreciated and completely voluntary. You may choose not to participate or may discontinue the survey at any time without any penalty or problem.

I have read and fully understand the consent form. I sign it freely and voluntarily. A copy of this form has been given to me.

_____   _____
Signature of Participant   Date

I certify that I have personally explained this document before requesting that the participant sign it.

_____   _____
Signature of Researcher   Date

Appendix C

Project Title: The Structural Relationships between Organizational Participation, Socio-
Moral Climate, Engagement, and Civic Attitudes in a Police Context

Investigator: Todd Wuestewald, Oklahoma State University

To Whom It May Concern:

I, _____, Chief of Police for the _____
Police Department, am giving consent to Todd Wuestewald, under the auspices of
Oklahoma State University, to conduct an online research survey of police officers of my
department. I understand that the project, entitled "The Structural Relationships between
Organizational Participation, Socio-Moral Climate, Engagement, and Civic Attitudes,"
will assess officer participation in decision-making within my agency and its links to
other organizational variables. I understand that the research survey, which takes
approximately 15-minutes to complete, will be distributed via the officers' work e-mails
and that their participation is entirely voluntary and that no penalty or repercussions will
attach to their decision to participate or not. Participants and their responses will remain
completely anonymous and any results from the research study will be reported only in
aggregated form. No individual responses will be reported, nor will the name of my
agency be published in connection with this research study. At the conclusion of the
study, I will be provided with the aggregated results for my agency.

_____   Date: _____
Chief of Police

_____   Date: _____
Researcher

Appendix D

Letter of Invitation

Dear __(name of agency)_Officer

Your agency, along with a number of other departments, is taking part in a research study concerning police officer participation in organizational decision-making. We are interested in learning about the degree to which police officers are routinely involved in decision-making within their agencies and how this might be related to other factors in the workplace. The research study is being conducted under the auspices of Oklahoma State University (IRB #).

Your Chief has given permission for you to participate in this web-based research study by completing an online survey questionnaire during normal duty hours. Your participation is entirely voluntary and anonymous, and you may withdraw at any time. The questionnaire will not request your identity, nor will your answers be connected to you in any way. The results of this research survey will be reported only in summary form; no individual data will be reported. Further, no benefit or negative consequences will result from your decision of whether or not to participate in this research survey. I have attached an information sheet with more details about the study and the procedures.

It is hoped that the findings from this project will contribute to our understanding of the effects of employee participation in workplace decision-making and that it may contribute to the improvement of police administrative practice. I hope you will take a few minutes to take-part in this research study.

Should you choose to participate, go to (SurveyMonkey URL and link) and follow the links to the questionnaire. It will take approximately 15 minutes to complete the items.

If you have any questions or concerns about this project, please contact **Todd Wuestewald, 918-693-9918, twuestewald@okstate.edu** and/or **Dr. Jihoon Song, 405-744-3613, jihoon.song@okstate.edu.**

Sincerely,

Todd Wuestewald

Oklahoma State University

Appendix E (online version)
Participant Information Sheet

Project Title: The Structural Relationships between Organizational Participation, Socio-Moral Climate, Engagement, and Civic Attitudes in a Police Context

Investigator: Todd Wuestewald, Oklahoma State University

Purpose: This is a web-based survey research study which is looking at the degree to which police officers regularly participate in decision-making within their own agencies and the links this might have to their job engagement, their attitudes toward the community, and their perceptions of the climate of their organizations. We are inviting you, along with officers from other police departments, to take part in this research by completing an online questionnaire.

Procedures: Proceeding with the web-based survey will imply your consent to participate in this research study. If you decide to participate, you will be directed to the questionnaire, which will take about 15 minutes to complete. The questionnaire has some items about you, such as your age, education, and gender, as well as questions about your job, such as your rank, tenure, etc. The questionnaire will then ask about your level of participation in departmental decision-making, your feelings toward your job and the community, and your perceptions of the work climate in your department. When you have answered all the questions, you will be asked to submit your answers.

Risks of Participation: There are no known risks associated with this research study which are greater than those ordinarily encountered in daily life.

Benefits: This research study will help us to understand whether involving police officers in organizational decision-making can impact their level of job engagement, their civic attitudes, and their perceptions of organizational climate. It may affect how we view police administrative practice and theory.

Confidentiality: All information will be anonymous since no names or identification numbers will be recorded on the research survey, nor will the URL of your computer be recorded. The records of this study will be kept private. The data will be kept on a secured web server and only researchers and individuals responsible for research oversight will have access to it. Any written results will discuss only group findings and will not include individual responses, nor any information that will identify you. It is possible that someone will be able to deduce that you participated in this research study based on your job or rank within your agency, but permission has been given by your agency for you to participate, as well as assurance that no adverse consequences will occur. Once again, no names will be collected or identifiers tied to your individual responses.

Contacts: If you have any questions or concerns about this project, please contact **Todd Wuestewald, 918-693-9918, twuestewald@okstate.edu** and/or **Dr. Jihoon Song, 405-744-3613, jihoon.song@okstate.edu.** If you have questions about your rights as a research volunteer, you may contact Dr. Shelia Kennison, IRB Chair, 219 Cordell North, Stillwater, OK 70478, 405-744-3377 or irb@okstate.edu.

Participant Rights: Your participation in this study is appreciated and completely voluntary. You may choose not to participate or may discontinue the survey at any time without any penalty or problem. By clicking below, you are indicating your willingness to participate in this study.

Please print out a copy of this sheet for your information before completing the research survey.

Socio-Moral Climate Scale (first English translation)
Armin, Brigitte, Todd, Brent (4/1/11)

Subject: SMC scale, English version, 1st draft

Subscale 1

Offene Konfrontation mit (nicht destruktiven) Konflikten
Open confrontation of the workers with conflicts

Nr.	Item
1	Wenn es bei uns im Betrieb unterschiedliche Ansichten bei (sehr) wichtigen Angelegenheiten gibt, wird offen damit umgegangen. *1: In our organization, differing views concerning important matters are handled openly.* *2: Differing viewpoints regarding important matters are handled openly in our organization.*
2	Wenn es bei uns Schwierigkeiten mit betrieblichen Vorgaben oder Erwartungen gibt, dann wird das bei uns offen zum Thema gemacht. *1: Difficulties concerning managerial expectations of employees are discussed openly.* *2: Differences concerning managerial expectations of employee performance are discussed openly.*
3*	Wenn es bei uns in prinzipiellen Dingen gegensätzliche Meinungen gibt, redet man *nicht* offen darüber. *1: We don't speak openly concerning disagreements over fundamental organizational principles.* *2: We avoid discussing disagreements over fundamental organizational principles openly.*
4	Wenn es zu Spannungen zwischen Unternehmensinteressen und den Interessen der Arbeitenden kommt, sprechen alle Beteiligten offen darüber. *1: Tensions between management and employees are discussed openly.*
5	Wenn hier jemand ungerecht behandelt oder übergangen wird, so wird dies offen angesprochen. *1: If someone is treated in an unjust manner we address this openly.*
6	In unserem Unternehmen geht man offen mit Konflikten und Interessensgegensätzen um. *1: In our organization we deal openly with conflicts and disagreements.*
7*	Probleme und Konflikte werden bei uns unter den Teppich gekehrt *1: In our organization, problems and conflicts are "swept under the rug."*
8	Widersprüchliche wirtschaftliche Interessen zwischen den Mitarbeiter/innen und dem Unternehmen werden offen diskutiert. *1: Financial conflicts between employees and management are discussed openly.*
9*	Bei uns gibt es zwar Konflikte, man redet aber *nicht* offen darüber. *1: There are conflicts in our organization, but we do not speak openly about them.* *2: Positive formulation: would be the same as Item 6. Thus, elimination of Item considered* .

Subscale 2

Zuverlässig gewährte Wertschätzung
Reliable and constant appreciation, care, and support by supervisors and colleagues

Nr.	Item
1	In unserem Betrieb werden wir als vollwertige Menschen betrachtet und nicht nur als Arbeitnehmer, die funktionieren müssen. *1: Each organizational member is valued as a person and not just as a number.*
2	Das Verhältnis zwischen „ranghöheren" und „normalen" Beschäftigten ist bei uns sehr kollegial und von gegenseitiger Wertschätzung geprägt. *1: In our organization, the relationship between supervisors and subordinates is cooperative and characterized by mutual respect.* *2: In our organization, the relationship between supervisors and subordinates is characterized by mutual respect.*
3	Gegenseitiger Respekt wird bei uns groß geschrieben. *1: Mutual respect is a central value in our organization.*
4	Bei uns findet jede und jeder Beachtung. Man ist sich nicht gleichgültig. *1: Here, we respect and care about everyone.* *2: In our organization everyone is respected.*
5	Bei uns wird man auch dann geachtet, wenn man andere Ansichten oder Überzeugungen vertritt. *1: We respect one another despite differing opinions and beliefs.*
6	Die Mitarbeiter/innen werden unabhängig von der Ausbildung und Qualifikation geachtet. *1: Our employees are treated with respect regardless of their qualifications or position.*
7(1)* 7(2)	Das Vertrauen untereinander lässt in unserem Betrieb einiges zu wünschen übrig. *1: There isn't much mutual trust in our organization.* *2: There is mutual trust in our organization.*
8	Man kann bei uns auch Fehler machen,ohne dafür bestraft zu werden. *1: In our organization, honest mistakes can be forgiven.*

Item nr 8 is taken from Weber's screening Instrument (Weber et al., 2008). Based on the results of my validation study this item has been removed from the SMC scale. However, it reflects an important aspect of the SMC concept and thus, I suggest to reintegrate it. Maybe in the English version it works better.

Subscale 3

Zwanglose Kommunikation und Partizipative Kooperation
Open communication and participative cooperation

Nr.	Item
1	Wer bei uns seine Meinung zu wichtigen Betriebsangelegenheiten äußert, kann damit rechnen, dass er nicht auf taube Ohren stößt. *1: In our organization, everyone has a voice on important organizational matters.*
2	Auf geäußerte Vorschläge und Anregungen bekommt man bei uns genügend Rückmeldung. *1: In our organization, sufficient feedback is given on proposals and suggestions.* *2: In our organization, feedback is given on proposals and suggestions.*
3	Niemand muss sich hier ein Blatt vor den Mund nehmen; jeder kann sich offen zu Meinungen von Entscheidungsträgern äußern, ohne negative Folgen fürchten zu müssen. *1: In our organization, you can speak your mind without fear of negative consequences.*
4	Mitarbeiter/innen werden ermutigt und bestärkt, den eigenen moralischen Standpunkt hinsichtlich Vorgehen und Vorhaben des Unternehmens zu äußern. *1: Employees are encouraged to express their ethical position concerning organizational projects and procedures.* *2: Employees are asked whether they agree with organizational projects and procedures.*
5	Konflikte zwischen Abteilungen / Teams werden am „Runden Tisch" ausgehandelt. *1: Conflicts between teams are negotiated between equals.* *2: When negotiating conflicts, teams are equallz empowered*
6	Auch bei weit reichenden Veränderungen im Unternehmen haben die Mitarbeiter/innen ein Wörtchen mitzureden. *1: Employees have a voice in significant organizational changes.*
7	Anmerkungen, Vorschläge und Einwände jedes Mitarbeiters / jeder Mitarbeiterin werden ernst genommen und berücksichtigt. *1: In our organization, employees' suggestions and concerns are respected and taken seriously.*
8*	Bei uns gibt es für die Mitarbeiter/innen kaum eine Möglichkeit, bestehende Regeln und Normen zu verändern. *1: It is difficult for employees to change existing rules and norms.*
9	An wichtigen Entscheidungen über Regeln der Zusammenarbeit in unserer Firma werden die Mitarbeiter/innen beteiligt. *1: In our organization, employees determine how to cooperate with coworkers.*
10*	Wichtige Entscheidungen, die in unserem Betrieb getroffen werden, beruhen auf der Meinung einiger Weniger. *1: Important decisions in our organization are made by just a few.*
11	Wenn bei uns wichtige Entscheidungen getroffen werden müssen, fließen dabei die Meinungen von vielen Mitarbeitern/Mitarbeiterinnen ein.

	1: In our organization, most employees participate in making important decisions. *2 In our organization, employees participate in making important decisions.*
12	Bei uns gibt es kaum „heilige Kühe". Es ist möglich, Prinzipien in Frage zu stellen, falls sie für den gemeinsamen Erfolg oder die gute Zusammenarbeit nicht mehr taugen. *1: In our organization, we have few 'sacred cows' and we can question principles and practices that are no longer useful.* *2 In our organization, we can question principles and practices that are no longer useful.*

Item nr 12 is taken from Weber's screening Instrument (Weber et al., 2008). Based on the results of my validation study this item has been removed from the SMC scale. However, it reflects an important aspect of the SMC concept and thus, I suggest to reintegrate it. Maybe in the English version it works better.

Appendix G

Socio-Moral Climate Scale (4th / Final English Translation)
Armin, Brigitte, Todd (4/19/11)

Subject: SMC scale, English version, final selected items/subscales

Open Confrontation with Conflicts
1.   In our police department, we deal frankly with conflicts and disagreements.
2.   Tensions between management and employees are discussed openly in our agency.
3.   Here, differing views about important matters are handled openly.

Reliable Appreciation and Respect
1.   In our agency, people are treated with respect regardless of their rank or position.
2.   Every member of our organization is valued as a person and not just a number.
3.   In our police department, honest mistakes can be forgiven.
4.   In our organization, everyone is respected.

Open Communication and Participative Cooperation
1.   In our department, you can speak your mind without fear of negative consequences.
2.   Employee suggestions and concerns are taken seriously in our agency.
3.   Here, we can question principles and practices that are no longer useful.
4.   In our police department, employees participate in making important decisions.

Trust/Responsibility
1.   In our organization, we feel responsible for the welfare of the larger community.
2.   Here, supervisors trust people to act responsibly.
3.   In our police department, people feel responsible for one another.
4.   Here, everyone is entrusted with important work according to their skills.

Organizational Concern for the Individual
1.   Here, we try to balance the needs of the individual with the interests of the department.
2.   When dealing with personal problems, employees can count on the understanding of others in our organization.
3.   Complaints about working conditions are taken seriously in our agency.

Appendix H
Questionnaire Items and Origin
Perceived Organizational Participation Questionnaire Items (Police)

Instruction: In which of the following areas of decision-making do you participate
directly within your team, work unit, or as part of a committee?

1 = I am not involved at all   4 = My opinion is taken into account
2 = I am informed about the matter beforehand   5 = I take part in the decision-making
3 = I can give my opinion

*Strategic Decisions

1.   Changes in mission statement, values, or goals for your department.
2.   Approval of the budget for your department, division, unit, or work group.
3.   Major capital investment (purchase of vehicles, large-scale equipment, new
facilities, or major new initiatives).
4.   Major changes in the organization of a division or work unit.
5.   Election or appointment of members to a governing body.
6.   Establishment of departmental operating principles, policies, or procedures.

*Tactical / Operational Decisions

1.   Routine operational planning to carry out work squad/unit objectives.
2.   Preparation of the budget for the department, squad, division, or work unit.
3.   Process improvement (cost savings, new procedures, technology, protocols,
innovations).
4.   Purchasing new equipment (tools, supplies).
5.   Selection or evaluation of a superior officer.
6.   Selection of employees to a job, specialty assignment, or work unit.

Adapted from:

Weber, W., Unterrainer, C. & Schmid, B. (2009). The influence of organizational
democracy on employees' socio-moral climate and prosocial behavioral
orientations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 30*, 1127-1149.

Wegge, J., Jeppesen, H., Weber, W., Pearce, C., Silva, S., Pundt, A., Jonsson, T., Wolf,
S., Wassenaar, C., Unterrainer, C., & Piecha, A. (2010). Promoting work
motivation in organizations: Should employee involvement in organizational
leadership become a new tool in the organizational psychologist's kit? *Journal of
Personnel Psychology, 9*(4), 154-171.

Socio-Moral Climate Scale (Police)

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement?
Response scale: 1 = strongly disagree   2 = somewhat disagree   3 = neither agree nor disagree   4 = somewhat agree   5 = strongly agree

Open Confrontation with Conflicts
1. In our police department, we deal frankly with conflicts and disagreements.
2. Tensions between management and employees are discussed openly in our agency.
3. Here, differing views about important matters are handled openly.

Reliable Appreciation and Respect
1. In our agency, people are treated with respect regardless of their rank or position.
2. Every member of our organization is valued as a person and not just a number.
3. In our police department, honest mistakes can be forgiven.
4. In our organization, everyone is respected.

Open Communication and Participative Cooperation
1. In our department, you can speak your mind without fear of negative consequences.
2. Employee suggestions and concerns are taken seriously in our agency.
3. Here, we can question principles and practices that are no longer useful.
4. In our police department, employees participate in making important decisions.

Trust/Responsibility
1. In our organization, we feel responsible for the welfare of the larger community.
2. Here, supervisors trust people to act responsibly.
3. In our police department, people feel responsible for one another.
4. Here, everyone is entrusted with important work according to their skills.

Organizational Concern for the Individual
1. Here, we try to balance the needs of the individual with the interests of the department.
2. When dealing with personal problems, employees can count on the understanding of others in our organization.
3. Complaints about working conditions are taken seriously in our agency

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Adapted from:

Weber, W., Unterrainer, C. & Schmid, B. (2009). The influence of organizational democracy on employees' socio-moral climate and prosocial behavioral orientations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 30*, 1127-1149.

Pircher Verdorfer, A. (2010). Das soziomoralische Klima als Bestandteil des Organisationsklimas [The socio-moral climate in organisations]. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Innsbruck, Austria

Employee Engagement Scale

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?
Response scale: 1 = strongly disagree   2 = somewhat disagree   3 = neither agree nor
       disagree   4 = somewhat agree   5 = strongly agree

Vigor

1.   When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.
2.   At work, I have a lot of energy.
3.   At work, I always persevere, even when things don't go well.
4.   I can continue working for very long periods of time.

Dedication

1.   I find my job challenging.
2.   I am enthusiastic about my job.
3.   I am proud of the work I do.
4.   I find my work full of meaning and purpose.

Taken from:

   Schaufeli, W., Salanova, M., Gonzalez-Roma, V. & Bakker, A. (2002). The
       measurement of engagement and burnout: A confirmatory factor analytic
       approach. *Journal of Happiness Studies, 3*, 71-92.

Civic Attitudes Scale

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?
Response scale: 1 = strongly disagree   2 = somewhat disagree   3 = neither agree nor
        disagree   4 = somewhat agree   5 = strongly agree

1.   Adults should give some time for the good of their community or country.*
2.   People, regardless of how successful they are, ought to help others.*
3.   Individuals have a responsibility to help solve social problems.**
4.   I feel like I can make a difference in the world.*
5.   It is important to help others, even if you don't get paid for it.**

Taken from:

Mabry, J. (1998). Pedagogical variations in service-learning and student outcomes: How time, contact, and reflection matter. *Michigan Journal of Community Service-Learning,5*, 32-47

Mabry drew items from:

*Markus, G, Howard, J., & King, D. (1993). Integrating and classroom instruction enhances learning: Results from an experiment. *Educational Evaluation and Police Analysis, 15*, 410-419.

**Myers-Lipton, S. (1994). The effects of service learning on college students attitudes toward civic responsibility, international understanding, and racial prejudice. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Colorado, Boulder, CO.

Appendix I

Questionnaire Items / Data Codes

Participation

Strategic

pa11 Changes in mission, values, or goals for your department.

pa12 Approval of the budget for your department, division,or work group.

pa13 Major captial investment (purchase of vehicles, large-scale equipment, major initiatives).

pa14 Major changes in the organization of a division or work group.

pa15 Election or appointment of members to a departmental decision-making body or committee.

pa16 Establishment of department operating principles, policies, or procedures.

Tactical

pa21 Routine operational planning to carry out squad/unit objectives.

pa22 Give input on the budget for your squad, unit, division, or department.

pa23 Process improvement (create new procedures, cost savings, technology, innovations).

pa24 Purchase of new tools or work materials.

pa25 Selection of employees to a job, specialty, or unit.

pa26 Selection, evaluation, or feedback concerning your supervisor.

Socio-Moral Climate

Open confrontation with conflicts

sm11   In our police department, we deal frankly with conflicts and disagreements.

sm12   Tensions between management and employees are discussed openly in our department.

sm13   Conflicting views about important matters are handled openly in our organization.

Respect

sm21   In our agency, people are treated with respect regardless of their rank or position.

sm22   Every member of our organization is valued as a person and not just a number.

sm23   In our department, honest mistakes can be forgiven.

sm24   In our organization, everyone is respected.

Open communication and participative cooperation

sm31   In our agency, you can speak your mind without fear of negative consequences.

sm32   In our agency, we can question principles and practices that are no longer useful.

sm33   In our police department, employees participate in important decision-making.

Organizational concern

sm41   We try to balance the needs of the individual with the needs of the department.

sm42   Employee suggestions and concerns are taken seriously in our agency.

sm43   When dealing with personal problems, employees can count on the understanding of co-workers.

sm44   Complaints about working conditions are taken seriously in our agency.

Trust based assignment and allocation of responsibility

sm51   In our department, supervisors trust people to act responsibly.

sm52   People feel responsible for one another in our department.

sm53   In our agency, everyone is entrusted with important work according to their skills.

sm54   People in our department feel responsible for the welfare of the community.

Employee Engagement

Vigor

ee11   When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.
ee12   At work, I have a lot of energy.
ee13   I can continue working for very long periods of time.
ee14   At work, I always persevere, even when things don't go well.

Dedication

ee21   I find my job challenging.
ee22   I am enthusiastic about my job.
ee23   I am proud of the work I do.
ee24   I find my work full of meaning and purpose.

## Civic Attitudes

ca1   It is important to help others even if you don't get paid for it.
ca2   I feel like I can make a difference in the world.
ca3   Individuals have a responsibility to help solve social problems.
ca4   People, regardless of how successful they are, ought to help others.
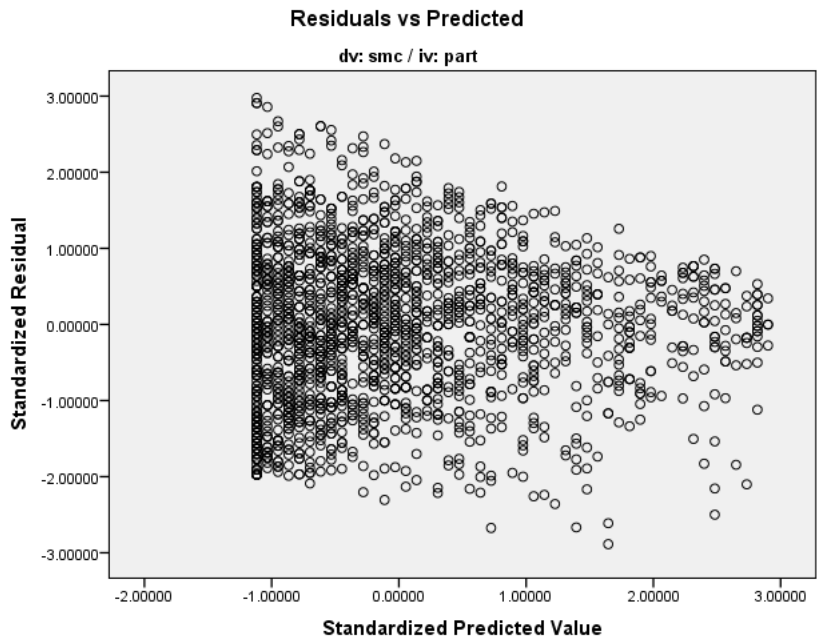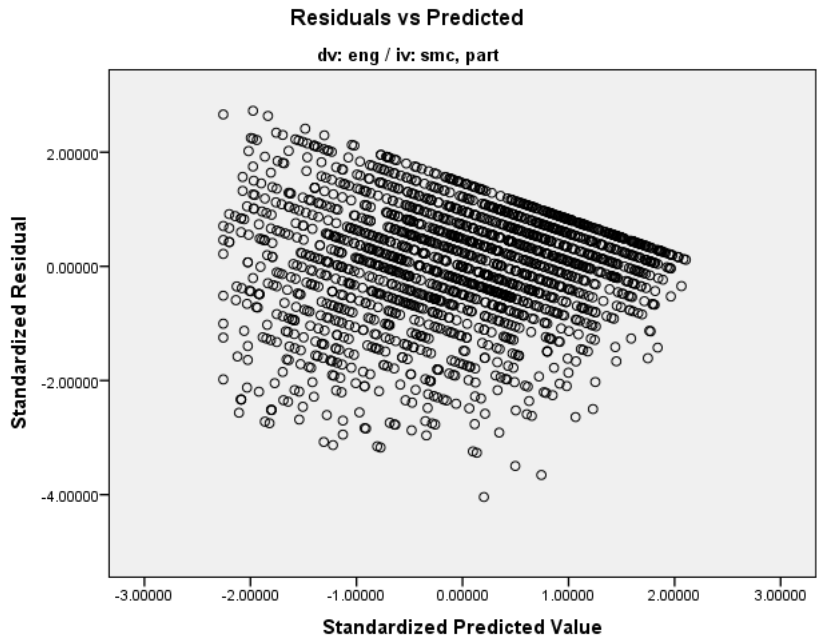ca5   People should give some time for the good of their community or country.

Appendix J

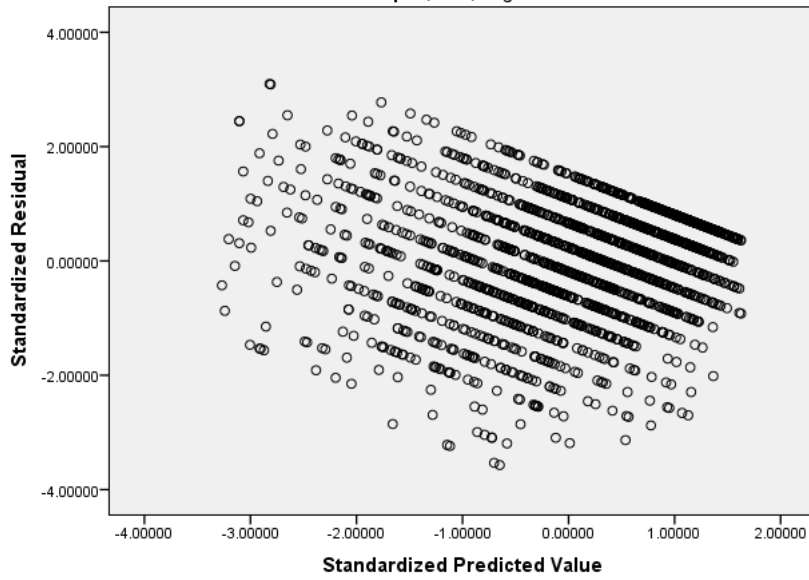**Residual Frequency Distribution for Regression**
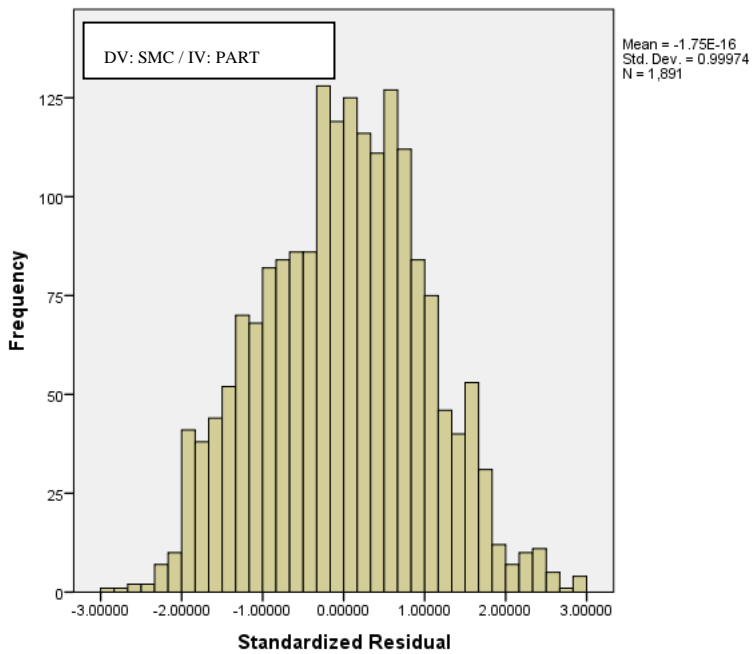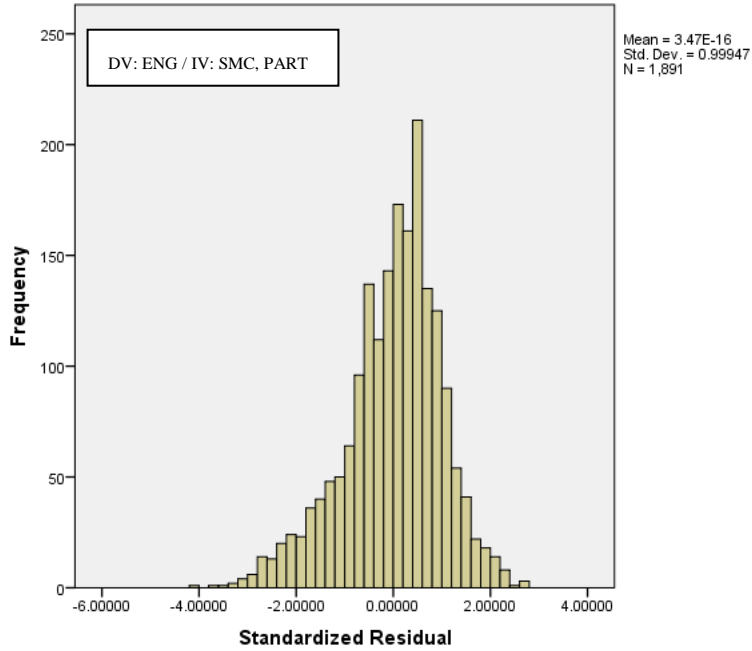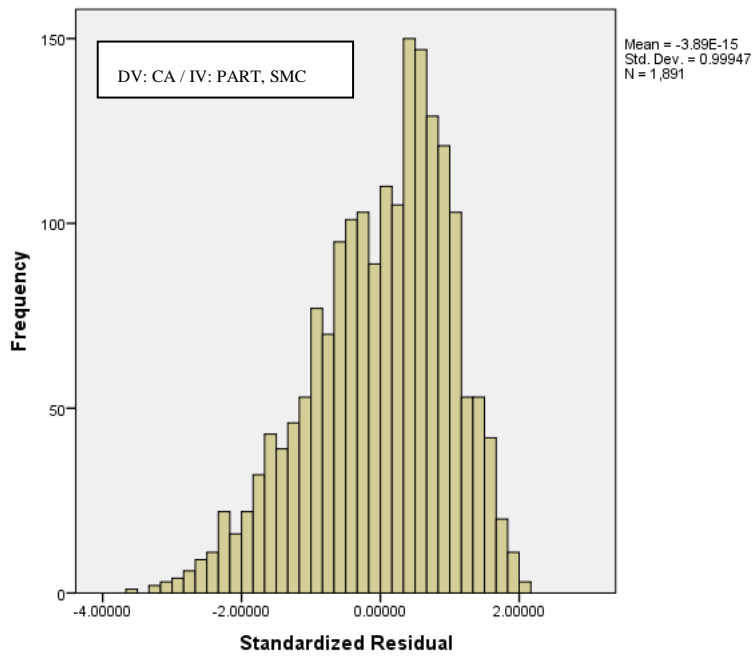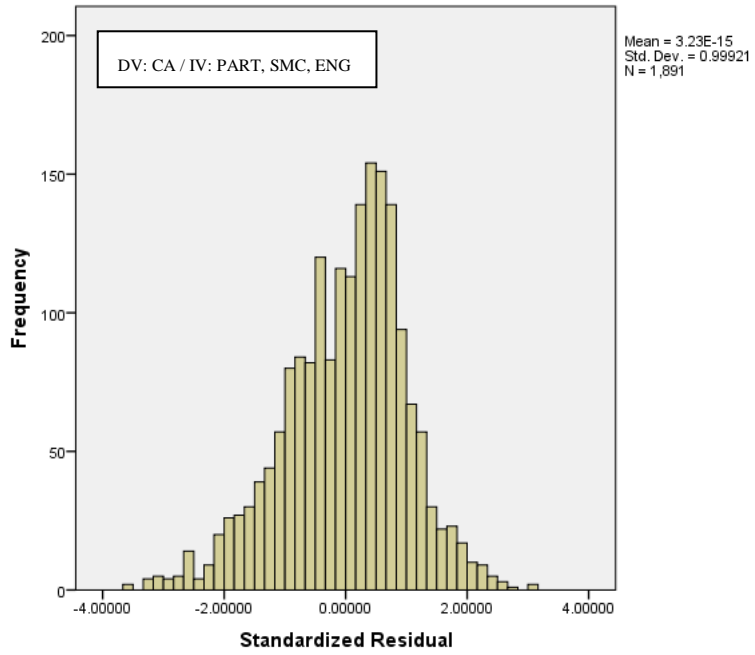
Appendix K

Scatterplots for Regression Diagnostics

Residuals vs Predicted
dv: eng / iv: smc, part
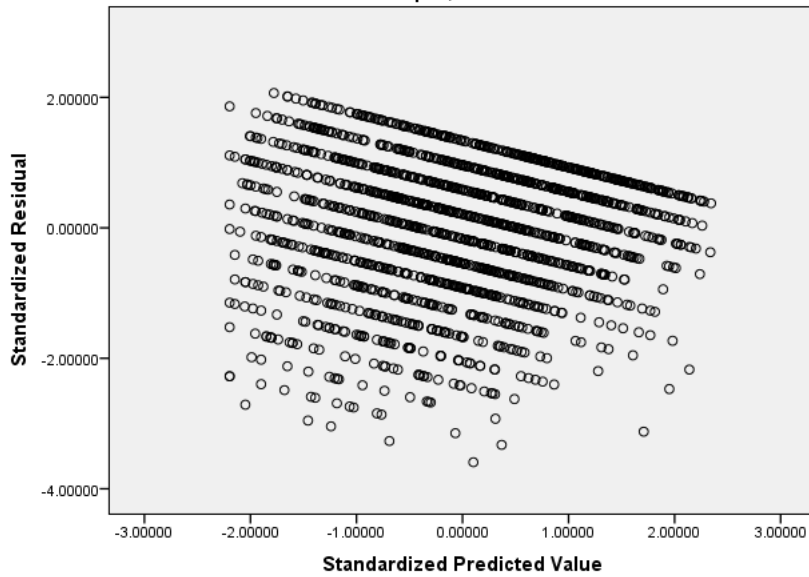

Residuals vs Predicted
dv: smc / iv: part

Residuals vs Predicted

dv: ca / iv: part, smc, eng

Residuals vs Predicted

dv: ca / iv: part, smc

Appendix L
Table 10: *Factor Loadings of the CFA*

Scale Item	Participation	Socio-Moral Climate	Engagement	Civic Attitudes
pa11	.75			
pa12	.82			
pa13	.79			
pa14	.81			
pa15	.60			
pa16	.73			
pa21	.61			
pa22	.83			
pa23	.80			
pa24	.79			
pa25	.75			
pa26	.46			
sm11		.69		
sm12		.75		
sm13		.80		
sm21		.82		
sm22		.88		
sm23		.70		
sm24		.85		
sm31		.81		
sm32		.76		
sm33		.75		
sm41		.79		
sm42		.87		
sm43		.51		
sm44		.82		
sm51		.65		
sm52		.69		
sm53		.70		
sm54		.44		
ee11			.69	
ee12			.72	
ee13			.47	
ee14			.49	
ee21			.72	
ee22			.89	
ee23			.67	
ee24			.75	
ca1				.60
ca2				.50
ca3				.60
ca4				.73
ca5				.73

VITA

Todd C. Wuestewald

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Dissertation: THE STRUCTURAL RELATIONSHIPS AMONG EMPLOYEE
PARTICIPATION, SOCIO-MORAL CLIMATE, ENGAGEMENT, AND
CIVIC ATTITUDES IN A POLICE CONTEXT

Major Field: Education (Occupational Education)

Biographical:

Education:
Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy in Education
(Occupational Education at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater,
Oklahoma in May, 2012.
Completed the requirements for Master of Public Administration at
University of Oklahoma, Norman, OK, 2005.
Completed the requirements for Master of Science in Criminal Justice
at Northeastern State University, Tahlequah, OK, 2002.
Completed the requirements for Bachelor of Arts in English / Criminal
Justice at Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI, 1981.

Experience:
University of Arkansas – Fort Smith, Assistant Professor, 2011-present.
Broken Arrow Police Department, Chief of Police, 2003-2011.
Broken Arrow Police Department, Police Officer, 1982-2011.
Tulsa Police Department, Police Officer, 1981-1982.

Professional Memberships:
International Association of Chiefs of Police, International Police
Executive Symposium, Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences,
American Society of Criminology.

ADVISER'S APPROVAL: _____
Dr. Jihoon Song

Name: Todd C. Wuestewald   Date of Degree: May, 2012

Institution: Oklahoma State University   Location: Stillwater, Oklahoma

Title of Study: THE STRUCTURAL RELATIONSHIPS AMONG EMPLOYEE
PARTICIPATION, SOCIO-MORAL CLIMATE, ENGAGEMENT, AND
CIVIC ATTITUDES IN A POLICE CONTEXT

Pages in Study: 165   Candidate for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Major Field: Education (Occupational Education)

Scope and Method of Study:
        Little is known about the degree of employee participation in
organizational decision-making that currently exists in American policing or what
the linkages may be to other workforce variables. The general approach of the
study involved a quantitative-oriented empirical multivariate analysis to assess
whether involvement of police employees in organizational decision-making has
an effect on their perceptions of organizational climate, sense of work
engagement, and their civic attitudes. An online survey questionnaire was
administered to 1,891 police employees in 15 law enforcement agencies in 10
states.

Findings and Conclusions:
        Police organizations are generally considered to be highly autocratic and
hierarchical. However, in comparing the police data with data gathered in recent
studies of private enterprises in Europe (Weber et al., 2008; 2009), the police
organizations were determined not to be strictly hierarchical. Based on the Weber
et al. typology, police employee participation fell between traditional hierarchical
organizations that exhibit little employee participation and social partnerships,
which exhibit some employee participation at the tactical decision-making level.
        Correlation coefficients, multiple linear regression and structural equation
modeling revealed significant influential relationships between the variables.
Through direct and indirect effects, the independent (exogenous) variable
employee participation significantly contributed to socio-moral climate, employee
engagement, and civic attitudes. Path analysis, Sobel tests, and SEM effects
decomposition suggested a multiple mediator model in which socio-moral climate
and engagement partially mediate the effects among the variables. Goodness-of-
fit indices indicate the study's hypothesized model fits the data with a minimum
of error. The main path of the research model suggests that employee
participation enhances organizational climate, which contributes to employee
engagement, which in turn contributes to positive civic attitudes.

ADVISER'S APPROVAL: _____
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