An examination of the organizational factors that contribute to police officer perceived organizational support

Dustin Cody Gaines

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AN EXAMINATION OF THE ORGANIZATIONAL FACTORS THAT
CONTRIBUTE TO POLICE OFFICER PERCEIVED
ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT

A Thesis
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts
in
Criminal Justice

by
Dustin Cody Gaines
June 2011
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Approved by:

Dr. Jacinta Gay, Criminal Justice Department

Dr. Stephen Tibbetts

Dr. Pamela Schram

Date 05/12/11
ABSTRACT

Using a sample of patrol officers from a southern Californian police department that oversees a high poverty and crime jurisdiction, a series of multiple regressions were calculated to attempt to explain antecedents to perceived organizational support. The independent variables tested were the perception of the department being appropriately inclusive in its decision-making processes, how positive respondents were on their relationship with their immediate supervisors, the perception of how professionally dedicated respondents' peers were, and the perception of how well work-related information and direction is provided. Some demographic control variables were included. All independent variables were statistically significant as predicted. Policy and research implications are discussed.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Correspondence concerning this paper should be addressed to Dustin Cody Gaines, Department of Criminal Justice, California State University, San Bernardino, California, 5500 University Parkway, San Bernardino, California 92407-2393. E-mail: dcodygaines@coyote.csusb.edu
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

According to the Bureau of Justice Statistics (2007), there are 17,000 policing agencies in the United States within state, county, and citywide levels of operation. This includes the employment of roughly 730,000 sworn officers. These officers are entrusted with arrest and use of force powers that assist them in enforcing law and order. The police have a wide range of responsibilities from the supervision of and care for a jurisdiction to the analysis of structural or systematic causes of crime within a community (Gaines & Kappeler, 2008). In service to the public, the police respond to emergency calls, investigate crimes, patrol for criminal activity, educate the community in affairs relating to personal security and public safety, detain suspected criminal offenders, assist in criminal prosecution, and provide general service to citizens. Citizens view the police as public servants and expect these services to be provided in an efficient and effective manner.

As a public institution, police organizations receive tax monies from the public and in return provide services to the public. This symbiotic relationship has been summarized in institutional theory (Crank, 2003; Giblin & Burruss, 2009). Institutional theory focuses primarily on service organizations and their relationship with the consumers they serve. Institutional theory maintains that for service organizations to exist, they must meet the needs and expectations of
their clientele. Crank (2003) identified elements of institutional organizations that lead to a sort of paradox in their motives. Even though these organizations mirror the behavior and structure of their constituencies and define their goals through a loose coupling they share with communities, they are highly resistant to scrutiny in terms of goal accomplishment and methods for accomplishing goals. Institutional theory explains the relationship between police departments and the citizens they serve and how changes in one ultimately affect the other, but in unintuitive ways.

Through quality management, police departments may strengthen their workforces' commitment to reacting to their constituencies' needs and may, in turn, reassess their goals. Part of this commitment is that officers must feel that they are a part of the organization (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). When police officers feel valued by the department, they are more likely to be committed to the department and its objectives and management practices. This thesis examines the relationship between selected management practices and the degree to which officers feel valued. When police officers believe that they are valued by their department, they feel a greater degree of satisfaction with their jobs (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). When officers feel valued, their productivity likely increases (Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lynch, 1998). It is important to examine the factors that affect officers' feelings of being valued.

This study examines four management domains and their impact on officers' feelings of being valued. These four management domains are:
inclusiveness in decision-making, supervisor relationship, professionalism, and communicated direction. Management acts as the human representative of the organization and all acts by management that improve the feelings of value by officers should improve their perceptions of being valued by their department.

Research on police organizational structure has been conducted, in part, to examine police officer morale, job satisfaction, commitment, and productivity. Improvement in all these areas is desired by police executives. Efforts have been made to improve management practices; making decision-making within departments more inclusive to non-managers (Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008), ensuring professional conduct among officers, improving communications, maintaining a reliable system of monitoring and guidance through line officers' supervisors, and properly directing officer behavior towards better practices (Peak, Gaines, & Glensor, 2010). Improvements in these areas may lead to gains in officer and department productivity.

Officers' Feelings of Value

Eisenberger and colleagues (1997) found no major relationship between job conditions and job satisfaction, but job conditions, especially the amount of discretion given to employees, were associated with feelings of value by their organization; formally known as perceived organizational support (POS). A strong foundation of research has correlated POS with employees' affective commitment (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Guzzo, Noonan, &
Elron, 1994; Hutchison, 1997; Hutchison & Garstka, 1996; Jones, Flynn, & Kelloway, 1995; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996; Shore & Wayne, 1993; Shore & Tetrick, 1991; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). POS has been positively related to job performance (Armeli et al., 1998; Eisenberger et al., 1986, 1990) and negatively to turnover intentions (Allen, Shore, & Griffith, 1999; Guzzo, et al., 1994; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Wayne et al., 1997). In their meta-analysis of the research conducted on POS, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found that POS influenced employees’ positive moods, job satisfaction, strains, intentions to stay or leave their organization, and tardiness. Through the reciprocity norm that is discussed below, Eisenberger and colleagues (2001) found that POS can cause employees to feel that they are important for their organization. When employees care about their organization’s well-being, they are more likely to work to help it in achieving its goals. There is a positive relationship between POS and affective commitment, extra-role performance, organizational spontaneity, and job performance.

Inclusiveness in Decision-Making

Participatory decision-making is the process of allowing members of unequal authority take part in influencing the decision-making process within an organization (Locke & Schweiger, 1979; Wagner, 1994). This variable has been connected to POS in prior research (Armeli et al., 1998). It has also been found to improve performance (Steinheider & Wuestawald, 2008). Thus, the use of
proper or appropriate styles of supervision enable a police department to better achieve its goals and has an impact on officers' perception of their value in the department.

Supervisor Relationship

Supervisors are middle men in any organizational process. They coordinate top management's expectations with line officers' activities. Engel (2001) found that despite this role, supervisors will act in a typology of manners that match their preferences rather than managements'. Supervisors influence officer behavior and perceptions of the organization and their relative responsibilities (Peak, Gaines, & Glensor, 2010). Supervision has been examined in the past, connecting it to POS (Eiseneberger et al., 2002).

Professionalism

Much of the research on police professionalism was conducted based on the professionalism movement of the 1960s. During this period, the police saw professionalism as a way to achieve respect, status, autonomy, and greater benefits (Roberg, Novak, & Cordner, 2005). Today, the term "professionalism" does not receive the attention it did in the 1960s. Professionalism relates to police ethics, accountability, proper use of force, and the ability of a department to provide services to a community. In this research, professionalism is operationalized as the perception respect, quality of service, and work ethic
among respondents' co-workers. This measure applies to how the departments' patrol officers perceive the presence of professionalism in the workplace and as a part of peer culture. This perspective is in-line with previous research that identifies professionalism as a cultural phenomenon (Heaphy, Sanchez-Burks, & Ashford, 2006).

Communicated Direction

As noted in institutional theory (Crank, 2003; Giblin & Burruss, 2009), police departments are loosely coupled with communities and, therefore, must deliver desired services to citizens. To accomplish this, police managers must communicate objectives, expectations, and orders to lower-level officers. Gaines and Worrall (2012) advise that this is accomplished through policies, direction, and supervision. When this information is not communicated effectively to line officers, the department suffers and line officers may become more detached from the organization. The study at hand investigates the impact of communicated direction on officers' feelings of being valued. The quality of direction likely affects such feelings.

Research Questions

This research examines the impact of decision-making, supervision, professionalism, and communicated direction on officers' feeling of being valued in a police department. These management processes contributed to a police
department’s effectiveness (Gaines & Worrall, 2012). It is, therefore, important to investigate how they affect police officers' perceptions of being valued. Officers’ perceptions of their value to the department in turn affect their job satisfaction (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) and productivity (Armeli et al., 1998; Eisenberger et al., 1986, 1990).

1. What organizational variables (independent variables) affect police officers’ perceptions of being valued?

2. What is impact of these organizational variables on police officer perceptions of being valued?
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

This study examines management factors that determine the perception held by patrol officers that they are valued by their department. Prior research in organizational support theory can greatly supplement this study and its conclusions. Organizational support theory posits that members of an organization will generate a set of beliefs about how much their organization values their work and well-being (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986; Shore & Shore, 1995). This belief is often referred to as perceived organizational support (POS). In their review of the literature on POS, Rhoades and Eisenberg (2002) noted that research has generally confirmed that employees of a given organization will develop a single belief for the organization. This one belief includes both how much their well-being and their contributions are valued by the organization; therefore, knowledge of how well employees feel their work is valued will also indicate how well they feel their well-being is valued.

Exchange ideology is the operation that causes employees to support their organizations as a repayment for the POS they receive from their employers. In other words, it is a measure of the reciprocal relationship between employees and employers. Exchange ideology explains how POS has a connection with job attendance (Eisenberger, et al., 1986; Eisenberger et al.,

Changes by an organization that could influence employee POS may go unrewarded when employees are suspicious. Employees will not feel more valued when changes are done against the organization's will. Those benefits given to employees by their organization due external forces (e.g., union negotiations, government regulations, or political circumstances) do less to contribute to POS than benefits and working conditions voluntarily provided by the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986, 1997; Shore & Shore, 1995). In their meta-analysis of previous research conducted on POS, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found that the research supports the notion that POS is influenced by equality in treatment, supervisor support, organizational rewards, job security, role stressors, training, organization size, and positive/negative affectivity. The demographic characteristics of employees were not found to be influential in the determining of POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Employees may experience a higher POS not just from the organization itself, but also from their co-workers, colleagues and peers within the organization. Workers' contributions may be appreciated by their peers, which, through reciprocity, may trigger repayments by those same peers (Gouldner, 1960). Contributions may be repaid by peers through socioemotional support
Such may include forms of support or value.

Inclusiveness in Decision-Making

As a whole, most police organizations are led with decision-making systems that are centralized, hierarchical, and largely bureaucratic (Mastrofski, 1998; Sklansky, 2007). One of the measures relevant to the inclusiveness of lower ranking officers in decision making is the process of participation. This refers to the shared influence by those who are otherwise superior/inferior to one another in the formal chain-of-command (Locke & Schweiger, 1979; Wagner, 1994). There have been a variety of other proposed definitions and measures of employee participation (Glew, O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin, & Van Fleet, 1995), but for the purpose of the present study, officers’ perceptions of participation are what matter more than its “objective” existence within the department.

An issue with many traditional police departments is that applying new policies is difficult when implementation depends on line officers. Departments with strict vertical hierarchies have to struggle to win the commitment of their street level policy enactors (Skogan & Hartnett, 1997). Other issues include a lack of communication between officers and commanders. Rubenstein (1973) found that in general, line officers who acquire information will not go out of their way to disseminate it up the chain of command; such information is usually spread when higher-ranking officers ask for issue-specific information from their
line officers. This issue may also be solved by including officers in a process where they are able to contribute alongside the commanders and managers of their department. Despite the apparent popularity of the participative decision-making philosophy, a divide lingers between higher-ranking and lower-ranking officers' beliefs about how well participative decision-making has actually been applied within a department (Auten, 1985a; Witte, Travis, & Langworthy, 1990). In some departments, managers and administrators believe they have effectively implemented participative decision-making, while supervisors and line officers feel that had not been implemented or had been poorly implemented (Witte et al., 1990). This divide has led to the characterization that managers will adopt participative decision-making as a philosophy, but will nonetheless continue to operate autocratically (Kuykendall, 1985; Swanson & Territo, 1982).

There are practical reasons for managers being reluctant to apply inclusive decision-making, such as a lack of qualification among personnel. This may be because some officers are not ready for the responsibilities needed to influence policy on such a level (Kuykendall & Roberg, 1988). This is especially common among young officers who have not developed a sufficient amount of job knowledge, self-esteem, and maturity. Until these officers mature, they are best left to serve under a paramilitary model of decision-making (Lorinskas & Kulis, 1986). There have, however, been cases of officers of all ranks reporting that even relatively-inexperienced officers are suitable for participation in decision-making and that participation would be beneficial for their department.
The gap between managers' and line officers' confidence in the current implementation of participative decision-making has persisted nevertheless (Witte et al., 1990). Another reason that many managers are not willing to convert to participative decision-making is the amount of authority that would be yielded to police union leaders, who have operated from a traditional perspective of policing that prioritizes the protection of officers from disciplinary action (Fleming, Marks, & Wood, 2006; Magenau & Hunt, 1989, 1996).

Research examining participative leadership has been connected to improvements in employees' mental health (Farkas, 2001; Fisher, 1989; Miller & Monge, 1986; Simmons, Cochran, & Blount, 1997; Slate, Wells, & Johnson, 2003; Spector, 1986), employees' organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982), organizational citizenship behavior (Eisenberger et al., 1990), organizational performance (Huang, 1997; Keller, 1997), service (U.S. Department of Labor, 1996), how well citizens are responded to (U.S. Department of Labor, 1996), perceived work conditions by employees (Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008), cost efficiency (U.S. Department of Labor, 1996), job performance (Huang, 1997; Keller, 1997), and employees' job satisfaction (Bernstein, 1993; Cotton et al., 1988; Daley, 1986; Fisher, 1989; Kim, 2002; Miller & Monge, 1986; Spector, 1986). In the case of job performance, Steinheider and Wuestewald (2008) found that officers specifically improved their productivity through discretionary actions.
When line staff are included in an organization's decision-making process, they will have a larger stake in resultant policies (Witte et al., 1990). This translates into a greater commitment by officers to the department's initiatives; it is especially noticeable in implementing community policing initiatives (Adams, Rohe, & Arcury, 2002; Fridell, 2004; Skogan & Harnett, 1997; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008; Taylor, Fritsch, & Caeti, 1998; Wycoff & Skogan, 1994). Inclusion in decision-making processes has also been argued to be useful for instilling a sense of public service among employees (Brewer, Selden, & Facer, 2000; Skogan, 2008). Through participation, employees observe the circumstances surrounding decision-making, which provides them a better understanding of decisions and their rationales (Shalit, 1977). Participation reduces resistance to decisions (Skogan, 2008). It also leads to employees being less affected by politics in that informed employees react less negatively/extremely to political decisions compared to those with relatively little awareness of the circumstances and processes surrounding such decision-making (Ferris et al., 1993; Ferris et al., 1996; Ferris, Frink, Gilmore & Kacmar, 1994; Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989). Inclusive decision-making does lead to less of a negative (or more of a positive) predisposition by line officers towards managers (Auten, 1985b; Johnson, 1984; Ospina & Yaroni, 2003; Skogan, 2008; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008; Walsh, 1983).

Noting that previous research has connected participative decision-making to POS (Armeli et al., 1998), participation could influence the current study's
dependent variable through the feeling that officers who are included in decision-making processes are also valued more for their opinions, perspectives, and work. Even if officers' input does not directly change policy, consideration of such input would still be seen as perceived organizational value of the officers’ opinions. Even limited forms of participation in decision-making can lead to improvements in officers' POS. Such examples of limited participation can be the respect held for line officers by management and the ability for line officers to communicate their opinions and other input up to commanders.

Supervisor Relationship

Managers and officers often rate supervisors based on very different criteria. Subordinates rate their supervisors based on how well they are treated by their supervisors (McEvoy, 1987). Supervisors' ability to role model behavior for subordinates' is based on how subordinates perceive their supervisors' competence and success. This process is moderated by subordinate self-esteem (Weiss, 1977). Employees' perceptions of their supervisors are greatly influenced by factors that have little to do with the supervision of a unit. Supervisors are influential through interpersonal relationships and role-modeling. Another factor influencing subordinates' ratings of their supervisors' leadership is the presence of conflict between supervisors and subordinates (Xin & Pelled, 2003). Conflicts are most often of a professional nature, involving disagreements over assignments or policy (Renwick, 1975), and their occurrence is unaffected
by how well subordinates identify with their work units (Hobman & Bordia, 2006). The professional differences may be due to employees perceiving their supervisors as being less than competent to be their role models.

Supervisor-subordinate relations are also influenced by the subordinates' locus of control. Locus of control results in different levels of productivity depending on the compatibility of officers' level of discretion and the level of supervision (Hawk, 1989; Spector, 1982). Those employees with a stronger internalized locus of control respond more proactively to participative management strategies, while those with a strongly externalized locus of control respond better to supervisor behaviors that are more authoritarian (Spector, 1982). Supervisors' responses to subordinates' perceived control over their situations in a work environment will directly affect those subordinates' productivity. The presence of both supervisor-subordinate interpersonal conflicts (as often caused by professional disagreements) and supervisor effectiveness (as influenced by locus of control and the given supervisory styles) also indicates that compatibility is a noteworthy factor in the supervisor-subordinate relationship.

Employees' relationships with and commitment to their supervisors has also been found to influence employees' job satisfaction (Brass, 1981; Daley, 1986; Emmert & Taher, 1992), intentions to quit (Vandenberghe & Bentein, 2009; Vandenberghe, Bentein, & Stinglhamber, 2004), and their job performance (Vandenberghe et al., 2004). A new supervisor's initial time with the work group
is used to influence employees' organizational commitment. During these times, supervisors act to convince these employees that the organization is worthy of their effort through a process called role-making (Graen, 1976, p. 1225). Kinicki and Vecchio (1994) noted that this process could explain improvements in perceived climate perceptions by employees with better relations with their supervisors (Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989). Previous studies have noted that the influence an employee-supervisor relationship has on POS depends on whether or not employees view their supervisors' actions as parallel to those of their organization (Eisenberger et al., 2002). Thus, supervision is an important commodity, especially in police organizations where officers have a great deal of discretion (Williams, 1983).

Engel (2001) has grouped sergeants and lieutenants into traditional, innovative, supportive, and active styles. Traditional supervisors are less likely to expect officers to engage in community policing behaviors and more likely to expect officers to create measurable results from their performances. These supervisors favor aggressive patrol and officer-dominant interactions with civilians. The sergeants adhering to the traditional style saw their primary role as controlling officer behavior. Innovative supervisors are more likely to encourage community and problem-oriented policing behaviors as well as other behaviors encouraged by new policies. They consider larger numbers of their fellow officers friends and are less active in bureaucratic and task-oriented affairs. Supportive supervisors are most concerned with their subordinates' well-being
and will act to protect them from being disciplined or tied up with bureaucratic obligations. Active supervisors focus on traditional police duties such as making arrests or writing citations. They emphasize being officers as opposed to being supervisors.

Engel's (2001) innovative supervisors appear to be most connected with top-level management. Supervisors adhering to the other three styles appear to be motivated by their personal views of police work. In her study, Engel found that the four styles were fairly evenly distributed across the two police departments she studied. This implies that there is a very even distribution of a wide variety of types of supervisors. This further means that there is likely always the opportunity for subordinates to find supervisors who are more compatible with their personal characteristics.

The existing research reveals the presence of a relationship between supervision and officers' POS. Since there are numerous management activities in a police department, it is worthwhile to investigate supervision relative to these management practices and how they relate to POS. Depending on the style of supervision, presence of professional conflicts, apparent success and aptitude of supervisors, and supervisor-subordinates' interpersonal relationships, the ratings subordinates give to their supervisors can vary greatly. This relationship can influence the POS of officers independent of manager influence.
Professionalism

Professionalization of the police arose in reaction to widespread issues of police unaccountability and corruption due to what Wilson (1963) called the "code of the system", which was the informal solidarity among police officers that encouraged them to protect one another from regulatory and punitive forces external to police departments (White, 1972). The "professional model of policing" arose in response to corruption and unaccountability and by 1950, had led to considerable change. This model envisioned the perfect police department as being operated by highly-trained, well-educated, technologically-savvy officers who are both free of influence by political clout and managed by various strict, bureaucratic measures (Klockars, 1980, p.341). Bureaucratic oversight was believed to be the silver bullet in solving corruption and discriminatory practices in policing.

Professionalism was seen as a vehicle to deliver a number of benefits to police officers. It would result in higher salaries. It would give officers more autonomy and act as a buffer against criticism from public and government officials. It would result in improved personal practices where merit is emphasized over politics (Doerner, 1992). What is noteworthy about these benefits is that they are all attainable while still maintaining the "code of the system". Police officers could experience the benefits of professionalization without necessarily giving up "the code" and in some ways would have more tools at their disposal to further protect themselves.
Many of the definitions of professionalism applied to police officers were based on goal achievement more so than intrinsically professional behaviors (e.g., reducing corruption and increasing police-public relations through improving training and increasing bureaucratic oversight). These definitions often overlooked criteria relating to professional ethics among individual employees such as a commitment to service (Roberg et al., 2005). This refers to the commitment to rendering services to clientele out of professional obligation. This commonly overlooked aspect of professionalism redefines policing from the standard crime-fighter role often held by traditional policing styles to the citizen-servicing role that many modern policing styles incorporate. Sapp (1978) pointed to Weber's (1930) belief that professionals operate from a moral high ground backed by a mandate to benefit society.

Police professionalism is a vague term that allows for many interpretations. Today, police professionalism is best understood by examining police departments' value statements. For example, the Champagne, Illinois Police Department (2011) espouses the following values: "performance, results, integrity, dignity, and enthusiasm". The value statements for the Los Angeles Police Department (2011) are: "service to our communities, reverence for the law, commitment to leadership, integrity in all we say and do, respect for people, and quality through continuous improvement".

Police departments across the country have similar value statements whose purpose is to guide police decision-making and behavior. Such value
statements operationalize the concept of professionalism. They focus on accountability, service to the community, and integrity. This research examines how officer-views of departmental professionalism affects their POS. As measured in the research, it is how respondents viewed their peers' professionalism.

**Communicated Direction**

When accurate descriptions of job tasks are communicated to employees, their job uncertainty is reduced (Bedeian & Armenakis, 1981; Glisson & Durick, 1988; Ting, 1996; Wanous, 1977). Put another way, employees need information for technical operations to maximize their output. This is especially true in police departments because police managers must react to a variety of internal and external situations and problems when directing officers.

Gaines and Worrall (2012) define direction as "orders initiated by the chief, unit commander, or supervisor to guide subordinates' actions toward the accomplishments of some organizational objective" (p. 103). Direction in a police department can occur through three different mechanisms. First, a police department may implement a new program or strategy which makes specific assignments to personnel. Second, police departments have policies and procedures that specifically describe how various activities should be performed. Finally, programming, policies, and procedures are supplemented with direct supervision.
Direction must be effectively communicated to subordinates. Not only must officers be told what to do, they must also be told the rationale for the direction. Providing this rationale frequently results in higher levels of compliance. One common complaint from police officers is a lack of direction, where orders and rationales are not communicated to them properly. For example, Steinheider and Wuestawald (2008) studied one police department and found that active participation on the part of subordinates with management decision-making resulted in greater job satisfaction and job performance. Thus, participative management facilitates or augments the communication of direction to subordinates. This is also a reason to foresee overlapping explanations in variance by this variable and inclusiveness is decision-making.

Current Focus

There is no question that when police officers feel valued by the police organization, their job satisfaction is enhanced and their productivity increased. There are numerous personal, organizational, and environmental factors that can affect officers' perceptions of being valued. In the current study, four organizational characteristics being considered: decision-making, supervisor relationship, professionalism, and communicated direction. This research studies a sample of patrol officers in a high-crime, high-poverty area. These organizational factors are examined using multiple regression analysis to determine the impact on police officers' perceptions of being valued. Their
results will be compared with past research and guide future studies and police policy.
CHAPTER THREE

METHODS

Data

The data for the present study came from a sample of survey respondents who are patrol officers in a Southern Californian municipal police department. The secondary data were gathered from an employee survey in December, 2009. On December 1, 2009, 490 emails containing invitations to take a survey were sent by administrators to all of the department’s civilian staff, officers, volunteers, managers, and administrators. The survey was administered with Survey Monkey, a national online survey program. The employees were allowed the opportunity to complete this survey until its closing date on December 28, 2009. A total of 415 responses were received, resulting in a response rate of approximately 85 percent. Of that 415, 404 completed the entire survey, while 11 only partially completed it. This study only analyzes the responses from patrol officers. These respondents are all sworn personnel who operate as street-level policy enactors. The nature of patrol work makes these individuals are among the most difficult to supervise. This group was also large enough to be analyzed alone since the number of patrol officers was rather large. This resulted in 176 respondents in the study.

The survey was constructed by the police department staff with input from several high-ranking individuals. The newly-appointed police chief had the survey
constructed to diagnose new and previously existing problems he had inherited with his appointment. The previous chief had faced difficulties that remained unresolved including internal organizational issues and external difficulties involving city politics. This survey was a start at solving problems throughout the department.

Table 1 provides demographic information about the officer respondents. Gender and population policed were compared to data collected by the U.S. Bureau of Statistics LEMAS survey (2000). The LEMAS data did not contain other demographic information; nonetheless, the study department was smaller than those responding to the LEMAS survey and had a smaller proportion of female officers. The department's officers were fairly well educated, and the force was staffed with officers who had minimum levels of experience. About half or 48.9 percent of the officers had less than 6 years of experience and 73.3 percent had 10 years or less.
Table 1. Comparison of Study Police Department's Demographic Characteristics with National Police Departments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variables</th>
<th>Sample % (N)</th>
<th>Nationwide Urban Municipal Agencies % (N)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>90 (159)</td>
<td>94.2 (2317.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>10 (17)</td>
<td>5.9 (144)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population Policed</td>
<td>204,800 (Census)</td>
<td>mean = 324,786.5 (LEMAS)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>3.4 (6)</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some College</td>
<td>43.8 (77)</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate's Degree</td>
<td>17.6 (31)</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor's Degree</td>
<td>20.5 (36)</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate Degree</td>
<td>2.3 (4)</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience 1 to 5 Years</td>
<td>48.9 (86)</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience 6 to 10 Years</td>
<td>24.4 (43)</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience 11 to 15 Years</td>
<td>14.2 (25)</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience 16 to 20 Years</td>
<td>8.5 (15)</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience 21 or More Years</td>
<td>4 (7)</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The police department is located in a southern California city with a population estimated at 204,800 as of 2010 (State of California, Department of...
Finance, 2010). Table 2 below shows the demographic characteristics for the city. The city’s population is more racially diverse and disadvantaged than the state’s average. Based on the 2000 sampling of the U.S. Census (population then 185,401), 35.2 percent of the city’s population was made up of minors (persons under the age of 18) and 20.6% of that population were foreign born. About one-half (47.5%) of the city’s population was Hispanic/Latino. The percentage of people living in poverty was 27.6% as compared to 14.2% for California as a whole. The median income for the city’s residents was over $16,000 below the state median.

Table 2. City Demographics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>City</th>
<th>California</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>45.2%</td>
<td>59.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>16.4%</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic/Latino</td>
<td>47.5%</td>
<td>32.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other or Multiple Race(s)</td>
<td>11.3%</td>
<td>16.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median Income (as of 1999)</td>
<td>$31,140</td>
<td>$47,493</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population Below Poverty Line (as of 1999)</td>
<td>27.6%</td>
<td>14.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: (US Census Bureau: State and County Quick Facts, 2000)
The 2009 preliminary reporting of Crime In the United States (CIUS) (US Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2010) indicates that the city's violent crime rate was 95.55 per 10,000, almost twice the average California city (52.29 per 10,000). The property crime rate is 462.98 per 10,000; this is also noticeably higher than the average Californian city rate (379.76 per 10,000). Overall, these data show that this police department operates in a high crime, urban city.

**Dependent Variable**

The dependent variable in this study is *perceived value*. This is a measure of the perceived value an individual receives from his or her department. Whereas previous research measured employee's perceived value of his or her work and wellness by the organization, this study instead inquires about officers' perceived value by their supervisors, managers, peers, and the department. The variable is a scale comprising items measuring how individual officers and/or their work are valued by the department, by their immediate supervisor, and by their manager. A global measurement of how well peers value one another's contribution was also included as peers may be a strong source of organizational support. The items were measured on five-point Likert scales. The items were combined into a scale using weighted factor scoring. All items were scored such that higher values imply more perceived value. This scale had a Cronbach's alpha of .688. While this is slightly lower than the usual
threshold of .7 for an alpha to be accepted as internally reliable, this scale was created with only four items. The skewness statistic was 1.161 and the kurtosis statistic of 2.248. The items and their factor loadings for this scale as well as those of the other variables are in Appendix A.

Independent Variables

The first independent variable was inclusiveness indecision-making and measured respondents’ perceptions of how well managers include, consider, and respect officers’ input into department decision-making. This was done using a scale variable wherein a higher score implied that the officer perceived more inclusion, consideration, and respect for non-management and supervisor input. All items were measured as Likert scales scored one to five. This is a weighted factor score with a Cronbach’s alpha of .869, a skewness statistic of .144, and a kurtosis statistic of -.522. Though respect may not necessarily seem relevant to inclusion in decision-making, the item, “Do you feel managers and supervisors of every classification treat subordinates with respect?”, was included in this scale based on the notion that respect is a prerequisite for inclusion and consideration. The items, “Do you feel that communication between management and line personnel is open and free-flowing?” and “Do you feel information from every employee is effectively communicated up the Police Department's chain-of-command?” were included because they measure the opportunity for lower-ranking officers to provide input to their commanders and is also a prerequisite
for inclusion in decision-making. The decision to include these items was further supported by strong factor loadings and a confirmatory factor analysis (described in detail below). This use of respect matches with how Ainsworth and colleagues (1978) identified respect as a form of consideration and reactivity.

The second independent variable was supervisor relationship. A patrol officer’s relationship with his or her direct supervisor is a scale variable created with three items inquiring about an individual’s specific supervisor (as opposed to a global question about supervisors throughout the department). This scale had a Cronbach’s alpha of .698, which is acceptable despite it being slightly below the standard of .7 because it was only created with three items. It had a skewness statistic of .670 and a kurtosis statistic of .098. All three items used Likert scales as categories for responses. This scale is coded such that a higher score was a better attachment/commitment/relationship to a patrol officer’s direct supervisor.

The third independent variable used here was perceptions of professionalism. This variable was defined as a perception of peers as to the degree of professionalism in the department. This includes a commitment to service (Rhoades, 1991), respect for community members by police officers, respect for managers and supervisors, and whether employees of every classification are generally tactful and professional when internally expressing constructive criticism about agency operations. This variable was created with factor-analyzed items that were regressed and combined into a variable with a
Cronbach alpha of 0.777. The skewness statistic was .207 and the kurtosis statistic was .001. All items are Likert scale based measures. The scale was coded such that a higher score indicates more perceived professionalism in the department.

The fourth independent variable used in the study was communicated direction. This variable was defined as the direction communicated by police department command staff to line officers. These directions include the goals of command staff, the expectations placed upon line officers, and the information line officers may need/use to better function in their roles. This variable was created with six factor analyzed items that were regressed and combined. The resulting scale had a Cronbach alpha of 0.837. Its skewness statistic was .595 and the kurtosis statistic was .297. A Likert scale was used where a higher score indicated that officers believed that direction was effectively communicated by higher ranking officers.

A matrix showing the correlations between all variables is located in Appendix B. No correlations between independent variables were at or above a 0.70 threshold. All independent variables’ scale items were examined in confirmatory factor analysis for model fit using the Mplus software program (Muthén & Muthén, 2007). The results of which are shown in Table 3 below. The test was a four-factor solution to ensure convergent and discriminant validity within and between the scales, respectively. The RMSEA of 0.074 violates Hu and Bentler’s (1999) standard of a maximum acceptable 0.06, but it passes Fan
and colleagues' (1999) standard of an acceptable maximum of 0.1 with those below 0.05 implicative of a very good fit. The CFI also fell short of Hu and Bentler's (1999) standard, which is, in this case, 0.95. The $\chi^2$ of 324.029 was significant at $p<.01$, but this is acceptable considering how much this measure was inflated by the size of this study's sample.

Table 3. Fit Indices for independent variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>SRMR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>324.029</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.868</td>
<td>0.074</td>
<td>0.073</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Demographic Control Variables

Available demographic variables were used as controls. First, years of service in the police department was measured using ordinal categories: “Less than 1 year of service”, “1 to 5 years of service”, “6 to 10 years of service”, “11 to 15 years of service”, “16 to 20 years of service”, and “21 or more years of service”. Second, officers' prior police experience was measured as yes and no responses with “Yes” coded as 1. Education was originally measured using ordinal categories: “I do not possess a post-secondary degree”, “I have attended some college classes”, “I have an Associate’s Degree”, “I plan to obtain an Associate’s Degree”, “I have a Bachelor’s Degree”, “I plan to obtain a Bachelor’s Degree”, “I have a Master’s Degree”, “I plan to obtain a Master’s Degree”, “I have
a Doctoral (PhD. MD. JD), and "I plan to obtain a Doctoral Degree". All responses where individuals “plan to obtain a...” degree were re-coded as missing, as such respondents did not indicate their current educational level. Also, due to the small number of respondents in each category, officers with master’s degrees and doctoral degrees were combined into the same category. Finally, gender was indicated by male or female responses coded as 0 and 1, respectively.

Analytic Strategy

Using SPSS, different models using multiple regression using ordinary least squares were run using the independent and demographic control variables to patrol officers’ perceived value. Model 1 included only the demographic variables and the dependent variable. Model 2 used the same variables as Model 1, but also included inclusiveness in decision-making as an independent variable. Model 3 included the same variables as Model 2 as well as supervisor relationship as an independent variable. Model 4 continues with this pattern by including professionalism while Model 5 added the variable, communicated direction as an explanatory variable. A multiple regression using ordinary least squares (OLS) was used because the data met parametric assumptions and this test can control for the multiple independent, continuous variables that are used to explain the current study’s continuous dependent variable. The variation of the dependent variable is explained as measured by the R² coefficient and the
adjusted $R^2$ coefficient. Multi-collinearity diagnostics were run to explore any existing multi-collinearity between the independent variables.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

As discussed in Chapter 3, five multiple regression models were estimated. The first model included only the demographic controls. The second model kept the demographics and added *inclusiveness in decision-making*. This independent variable was the first to be included in the multiple regressions because, like *perceived value*, it too has been connected to organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday et al., 1982). Equality in treatment (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) and *inclusiveness in decision-making* (Armeli et al., 1998) has also been connected to perceived organizational support in the past.

The second independent variable entered into the model was hypothesized as having the second most amount of influence upon *perceived value*. Supervisor support, a variable similar to *supervisor relationship* in this study, has a strong research history and has been connected to POS in past studies (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). *Professionalism* was added to the regression in the third model. This was because professional commitment has a strong theoretical salience to POS.

*Communicated direction* was the last variable added. This variable measured the flow of work-related information at various levels of the department and the direction in and rationality for decisions given by managers and
supervisors. Van Wart (2008) advises that leadership is a combination of
directive and supportive behavior, which Schermerhorn and his colleagues
(1994) note that directive leadership focuses on advising subordinates about
tasks and their performance. When accurate descriptions of job tasks are
communicated to employees, their job uncertainty is reduced (Bedelian &

The results of the regression analyses are provided in Table 4 below. The
F statistic was statistically significant throughout all five models. Starting with
Model 1, two demographic variables were statistically significant at p ≤ .05. The
demographic variables were years of service and the presence of policing
experience prior to respondents joining the department. The introduction of
inclusiveness in decision-making rendered the demographic variables
insignificant. Inclusion tested significant at p ≤ .001 with the adjusted R² showing
that 35 percent of the variance proved in the dependent variable was explained.

In Model 3, relationship with supervisor was added. The inclusion's β
weight fell and was surpassed by the supervisor variable. The explained
variance increased to 49 percent.

The addition of the next variable, professionalism, reduced all other
independent variables' βs and increased the adjusted R². All three explanatory
variables remained significant. In the fifth model, the final independent variable
was added. Upon its inclusion, communicated direction contributed its own
significant and positive β weight, lowering the βs of the other explanatory
variables in the process. The percent of variation explained was further increased to a total of 51.8 percent.
Table 4. Multiple Regression Results for Explaining Perceived Value

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th>Model 3</th>
<th>Model 4</th>
<th>Model 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$b$ (SE)</td>
<td>$b$ (SE)</td>
<td>$b$ (SE)</td>
<td>$b$ (SE)</td>
<td>$b$ (SE)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.413 (.271)</td>
<td>.417 (.229)</td>
<td>.281 (.204)</td>
<td>.237 (.199)</td>
<td>.272 (.196)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>.071 (.082)</td>
<td>-.045 (.071)</td>
<td>.027 (.064)</td>
<td>.017 (.062)</td>
<td>.026 (.061)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of Service</td>
<td>.143* (.067)</td>
<td>-.012 (.060)</td>
<td>-.014 (.053)</td>
<td>-.016 (.051)</td>
<td>-.012 (.050)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior Policing Experience</td>
<td>.339* (.169)</td>
<td>.099 (.146)</td>
<td>.031 (.130)</td>
<td>.058 (.127)</td>
<td>.079 (.125)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inclusiveness in Decision-Making</td>
<td>.569*** (.073)</td>
<td>.575 (.075)</td>
<td>.321*** (.075)</td>
<td>.304*** (.073)</td>
<td>.210** (.081)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor Relationship</td>
<td>.456*** (.071)</td>
<td>.457 (.074)</td>
<td>.371*** (.073)</td>
<td>.343*** (.073)</td>
<td>.344</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professionalism</td>
<td>.199** (.063)</td>
<td>.206 (.064)</td>
<td>.149* (.064)</td>
<td>.154</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicated Direction</td>
<td>.196* (.077)</td>
<td>.197</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.157*</td>
<td>15.779***</td>
<td>23.545***</td>
<td>22.885***</td>
<td>21.582***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td>.078</td>
<td>.348</td>
<td>.490</td>
<td>.523</td>
<td>.544</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted $R^2$</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>.326</td>
<td>.469</td>
<td>.500</td>
<td>.518</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p ≤ .05  **p ≤ .01  ***p ≤ .001
All independent variables had statistically significant, positive β weights meaning that the results of the regression were consistent with the hypothesis that all independent variables enhance the perception held by officers and that their work and well-being is valued. Starting from Model 1 every independent variable’s β decreased with the introduction of a new independent variable. This may be due to mediating and moderating relationships between the variables.

These results illustrate how the independent variables, inclusiveness in decision-making, supervisor relationship, professionalism, and communicated direction, can affect officers’ perceived organizational support. Departments are not limited to any one option for affecting line officers’ feelings of value. Improvements and detriments in any variable may lead to corresponding changes in officers’ perception of being valued. Maximizing those perceptions will require maximizing all of the given independent variables. Overall, roughly half of all variation of the amount of value officers feel was explained through the regression analysis.

The results of this study have confirmed the hypotheses that the given independent variables contribute to POS. What contradicted these hypotheses were the magnitudes of the independent variables. Inclusiveness in decision-making was hypothesized to be the strongest explanatory variable, but was surpassed for that title by supervisor relationship. Also, communicated direction was predicted to be the weakest predictor, but it had a stronger influence than
professionalism. The magnitudes illustrated that certain independent variables are more effective than others in influencing patrol officers' POS. The three weakest independent variables had βs of roughly .2 while supervisor relationship had a β more than double that of professionalism. If costs to implement equal changes in these variables were equal, then influencing a patrol officer's relationship with his or her supervisor is clearly the most efficient option.
CHAPTER FIVE
DISCUSSION

The purpose of this research was to examine the effect of various organizational arrangements on police officers' belief that they and their work are valued by the department. To some extent, officers' feelings of being valued may serve as a proxy for traditional measures of worker commitment because it has such strongly established ties to those variables (Hutchison, 1997; Settoon et al., 1996; Wayne et al., 1997). Police officers' feelings of being valued by the police department also affect their performance (Armeli et al., 1998; Eisenberger et al., 1990). There is ample research demonstrating that police officers' perceptions of value are an important consideration for police management and policy.

This is particularly important given the organizational structure of police departments. Police departments are organized along bureaucratic lines. These bureaucratic structures attempt to exert a high degree of control over officers' behavior; however, police officers have a great deal of discretion regarding how they perform their jobs on a day-to-day basis (Davis, 1969; Famega, 2005; Walker, 1993). Since police departments are unable to manage their patrol officers directly through supervision while officers are in the field (Famega, Frank, & Mazerolle, 2005), departments have limited control over officers' behavior. Therefore, it is important to gain voluntary compliance with police goals, tasks,
and procedures. This voluntary compliance is perhaps best achieved when officers believe that they are valued by their department.

The present research investigated the impact of four organizational factors on officers' perceptions of value by their department (POS): inclusiveness in decision-making, supervisor relationship, professionalism, and communicated direction. The variable that contributed the most variance in the models was supervisor relationship. This is consistent with past research findings (Eiseneberger et al., 2002) and like the dependent variable, supervisor-subordinate relationships have been connected to job performance (Vandenberghe et al., 2004) and satisfaction (Vandenberghe & Bentein, 2009; Vandenberghe et al., 2004). The significant relationship between supervisor relationship and perceived value support previous findings that compatibility (Hawk, 1989; Spector, 1982) and individual treatment (McEvoy, 1987) are most important to how subordinates view their supervisors.

Since supervisors have the greatest impact on officers' feelings of value, it is important that supervisors' orientation be consistent with departmental direction so that subordinates will hold the same direction as that of the department. For example, a number of police departments have adopted community policing. The literature shows that officers are often resistant to community policing (Greene, Bergman, & McLaughlin, 1994; Lord, 1996). Individual officers often view community policing as the antithesis of traditional police work. The results of the present study would point managers towards
improving police supervisors' commitment to community policing in order to strengthen the organizational commitment and activity of officers. Engel (2001) has identified multiple and evenly distributed types of supervisors within any given department. This means that only a fraction of any given group of supervisors are individuals most compatible for supervising that patrol officer. If departments want to ensure that patrol officers are fully committed to organizational initiatives and philosophies such as community policy, then they can should steps to try to best fit subordinates and supervisors.

The results indicated that *inclusiveness in decision-making* was a contributor to how valued patrol officers feel. The results supported previous research connecting inclusion to POS (Armeli et al., 1998) as well as research connecting inclusion to factors that have been influenced by POS, such as job satisfaction (Bernstein, 1993; Cotton et al., 1988; Daley, 1986; Fisher, 1989; Kim, 2002; Miller & Monge, 1986; Spector, 1986) and performance (Huang, 1997; Keller, 1997).

The results of the regression analysis found that increasing inclusiveness would increase POS. Restructuring a department to allow for officers to be policy-makers would very difficult and impractical for many departments, but *inclusiveness can be increased*. Creating feedback loops for patrol officers who operate on the ground level can improve their satisfaction with how they are included by giving them the opportunity to provide input despite their inability to craft policy. Another angle is for departments to make the reasoning and
circumstances behind certain decisions more freely available to officers (Ferris et al., 1993; Ferris et al., 1996; Ferris et al., 1994; Ferris et al., 1989).

Communicated direction contributed to explaining *perceived value* and it is a major aspect of police departments as this is the system that commanders use to communicate goals and programming to achieve goals. It also establishes the operational mandates for street-level officers. This variable should be included in future studies surrounding POS. Research of such a nature has not been conducted previously to any great extent. The present results are noteworthy because they show that policies and other forms of direction do affect officers even though officers are not necessarily benefiting in a traditional sense, such as how a pay raise or promotion would affect them. Communicated direction can be improved through higher quality leadership and communication by managers and commanders.

Professionalism, as defined in this study, is important because it accounts for the perceptions of professional dedication among a patrol officer’s peers. This definition has received little attention in the research and study of professionalism (Roberg et al., 2005). Although this study found that *professionalism* contributes to explaining variation in *perceived value*, this variable influenced it in the smallest amounts. Nonetheless, attempts by police departments to change the professional culture of their police force are widespread and this study illustrates that there are potential gains from doing so. Most modern policing styles, such as community policing and order maintenance
policing, include the importance of police officers dedicating themselves to their constituents.

As with past research (Rhoades & Eisenebrger, 2002), demographic variables were not significant predictors of POS when other independent variables were included in the models. This means that organizational arrangements, for the most part, have similar effects on officers of varying demographic backgrounds. It simplifies management's efforts to increase officers' perceptions of value and their commitment to the department.

A limitation to this study is the absence of some demographic variables like race or age in the dataset. It may be that some of the untested demographic variables contribute to officers' POS. Another limitation is that the data were collected in one department. The factors that contribute to POS may be different in other departments. A third limitation is that the survey used in this study was constructed by the department's personnel, possibly resulting in the omission of variables or items that would have better clarified the dependent and/or independent variables.

Police departments provide important public services, including arresting criminals, attending to disorder, and preventing crime. Police departments are an important government bodies. Given their vital role in society, it is important that they are efficient and effective. This means that their organizational arrangements and operations should be scrutinized, and changes made when necessary to improve their efficiency and effectiveness. Future research should
attempt to study how organizational factors affect police officers behavior in ways that can influence policy implementation and performance. Research should be more in-depth as results show the necessity for detailing relationships between these variables, others, and the possible presence of mediating and moderating relationships between them. This is an area that has long been neglected in the police research literature.
APPENDIX A

ITEMS AND THEIR FACTOR LOADINGS FOR SCALES
Scale/Item                                                                 Loading

**Perceived Value (alpha=0.688)**

Do you feel valued as an employee of the police department?        .769
Do you feel your work is valued by your immediate supervisor?      .787
Do you feel your work is valued by the management within your    .714
unit?
Do you feel Police Department employees appreciate the           .606
personal contributions of their peers?

**Inclusiveness in Decision-Making (alpha=0.869)**

Do you feel managers and supervisors of every classification     .783
 treat subordinates with respect?
Do you feel Police Department employees can voice             .782
 constructive criticism about Police Department operations
without fear of retaliation and/or negative repercussions?
Do you feel Police Department managers and supervisors of      .840
every classification are willing to consider points of view that
are different from their own?
Do you feel decision making within the Police Department is     .730
appropriately inclusive (i.e. takes other perspectives into
consideration)?
Do you feel that communication between management and line    .764
personnel is open and free-flowing?
Do you feel information from every employee is effectively      .767
communicated up the Police Department’s chain-of-command?

**Supervisor relationship (alpha=0.698)**

When changes are announced at the Police Department, do you     .763
feel your supervisor takes time to explain how the changes will
affect you?
Do you feel you are free to express your opinions to your       .834
supervisor?
Do you feel your direct supervisor serves as a positive role
model for you?                                                .771

**Professionalism (alpha=0.777)**

Do you feel Police Department employees have a strong work      .763
ethic?
Do you feel Police Department employees of every classification
are dedicated to providing the community of San Bernardino with high quality police services? .817
Do you feel Police Department employees treat San Bernardino community members with respect? .796
Do you feel every classification of Police Department employee treat their managers and supervisors with respect? .636
Do you feel Police Department employees of every classification are generally tactful and professional when internally expressing constructive criticism about agency operations? .629

Communicated Direction (alpha=0.837)

Do you feel the rationale for decisions directly affecting your unit is effectively communicated to you? .651
Do you feel managers and supervisors of every classification provide clear direction to their subordinates? .690
Do you feel the information you need to perform your job is effectively communicated to you? .742
Do you feel that the flow/communication of necessary information within your unit is adequate? .770
Do you feel that the flow/communication of necessary information within your division is adequate? .844
Do you feel that the flow/communication of necessary information throughout the Department is adequate? .764
APPENDIX B
CROSS CORRELATION MATRIX
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>(1)</th>
<th>(2)</th>
<th>(3)</th>
<th>(4)</th>
<th>(5)</th>
<th>(6)</th>
<th>(7)</th>
<th>(8)</th>
<th>(9)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) Inclusiveness in decision-making</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Supervisor relationship</td>
<td>.522**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Professionalism</td>
<td>.297**</td>
<td>.383**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) Communicated direction</td>
<td>.614**</td>
<td>.500**</td>
<td>.429**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) Years of service</td>
<td>.111</td>
<td>.164*</td>
<td>.112</td>
<td>.156*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6) Prior policing experience</td>
<td>.131</td>
<td>.186*</td>
<td>.028</td>
<td>.103</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7) Education</td>
<td>.066</td>
<td>-.028</td>
<td>.047</td>
<td>.062</td>
<td>-.009</td>
<td>.085</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8) Gender</td>
<td>.124</td>
<td>.089</td>
<td>.105</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>.083</td>
<td>-.043</td>
<td>.050</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9) Perceived value</td>
<td>.986**</td>
<td>.661**</td>
<td>.391**</td>
<td>.569**</td>
<td>.130</td>
<td>.160*</td>
<td>.086</td>
<td>.114</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p ≤ .05  **p ≤ .01
May 10, 2011

Dustin Cody Gaines
Jacinta Gfau
C/o:
Department of Criminal Justice
California State University
5500 University Parkway
San Bernardino, California 92407

Dear: Mr. Gaines and Dr. Glau

Your application to use human subjects, titled, "Perceived Organizational Support: A Multiple Regression Using Patrol Officers" has been reviewed and approved by the Chair of the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of California State University, San Bernardino and concurs that your application meets the requirements for exemption from IRB review Federal requirements under 45 CFR 46. As the researcher under the exempt category you do not have to follow the requirements under 45 CFR 46 which requires annual renewal and documentation of written informed consent which are not required for the exempt review category. However, exempt status still requires you to attain consent from participants before conducting your research.

The CSUSB IRB has not evaluated your proposal for scientific merit, except to weigh the risk to the human participants and the aspects of the proposal related to potential risk and benefit. This approval notice does not replace any departmental or additional approvals which may be required.

Although exempt from federal regulatory requirements under 45 CFR 46, the CSUSB Federal Wide Assurance does commit all research conducted by members of CSUSB to adhere to the Belmont Commission's ethical principles of respect, beneficence and justice. You must, therefore, still assure that a process of informed consent takes place, that the benefits of doing the research outweigh the risks, that risks are minimized, and that the burden, risks, and benefits of your research have been justly distributed.

You are required to do the following:

1) Protocol changes must be submitted to the IRB for approval (no matter how minor) before implementing in your prospectus/protocol. Protocol Change Form is on the IRB website.
2) If any adverse events/serious adverse/unanticipated events are experienced by subjects during your research. Form is on the IRB website.
3) And, when your project has ended.

Failure to notify the IRB of the above, emphasizing items 1 and 2, may result in administrative disciplinary action.

If you have any questions regarding the IRB decision, please contact Michael Gillespie, IRB Compliance Coordinator. Mr. Michael Gillespie can be reached by phone at (909) 537-7588, by fax at (909) 537-7028, or by email at mgilspi@csusb.edu. Please include your application identification number (above) in all correspondence.

Best of luck with your research.

Sincerely,

Sharon Ward, Ph.D, Chair
Institutional Review Board

SW/mg

cc:
An issue with the data was the independent variable’s skewness and kurtosis. Looking at the distribution of *perceived value*, one notes that it is still fairly evenly distributed. A variety of techniques were employed to create a transformed dependent variable with no skewness and kurtosis and only a square root transformation was effective. So, in order to determine if the data’s skewness and kurtosis affected the outcomes, a preliminary regression analysis was calculated where the dependent variable was transformed by raising its values to remove any negative numbers and square rooting the variable. The result of the regression analysis was compared to the regression analysis using the untransformed dependent variable. The differences between the two sets of analyses were negligible. The original dependent variable was therefore used in the analyses.
REFERENCES


Eisenberger, R., Stinglhamber, F., Vandenbergh, C., Suckarski, I., & Rhoades, L. (2002). Perceived supervisor support: Contributions to perceived


State of California, Department of Finance. (2010, May). *E-1 population estimates for cities, counties and the state with annual percent change — January 1, 2009 and 2010.* Sacramento, California, May 2010


