

1-1-2011

# Community policing by part-time police leaders

Steven W. Minard  
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# Walden University

COLLEGE OF SOCIAL AND BEHAVIORAL SCIENCES

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Steven Minard

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## Review Committee

Dr. Elaine Spaulding, Committee Chairperson, Human Services Faculty  
Dr. Paul Katsampes, Committee Member, Human Services Faculty  
Dr. Gary Burkholder, University Reviewer, Human Services Faculty

Chief Academic Officer

David Clinefelter, Ph.D.

Walden University  
2011

ABSTRACT

Community Policing by Part-Time Police Leaders

by

Steven W. Minard

M.P.A., Marist College, 2002

B.S., Marist College, 1996

A.A.S., Dutchess Community College, 1992

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements for the Degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy  
Human Services

Walden University  
May 2011

## ABSTRACT

The majority of police departments across the United States are led by part-time police leaders who are expected to provide high quality public safety and policing services. Research results have not been conclusive on best practices for community policing in larger cities, and the community policing model has not been researched for small police organizations staffed by part-time police leaders and police officers. The purpose of this qualitative multiple case study was to explore the community policing experiences of 12 part-time police leaders in a northeastern U.S. state. Ecological theory provided the conceptual framework. The research questions examined the participants' experiences of community policing in rural communities. The data analysis strategies included reading the transcripts from the taped interviews, reading the field notes, and writing preliminary memos to form and understand the data. Open coding was used initially to organize the data, which were assigned labels and grouped into themes or categories. Content analysis resulted in the development of broader themes that were analyzed using a cross-case comparison for each. Results suggested that all of the police leaders believed that they provided services to the community and faced many of the same issues as full-time police leaders, despite having fewer resources. This study may help to address the problems that part-time police leaders experience in balancing the allocation of limited resources and the establishment of public policy regarding policing best practices. The study provides police and community leaders with a better understanding of the resources needed to ensure adequate policing and public safety services for their communities.



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## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank several people who made this academic journey possible. A special thank you is extended to my family. The understanding and patience of my wonderful wife, Lynn; son, Steven; and daughter, Kelsie, were key to this accomplishment.

I owe a special thanks to Dr. Elaine Spaulding, who agreed to step in as my mentor and who put in countless hours to ensure that this study became a reality. I also want to extend my thanks to committee members Victor Lofgreen and Paul Katsampes for their support and guidance.

I thank City of Poughkeepsie Police Chief Ronald Knapp and the Poughkeepsie civic leaders for their support during this extended process. I want to acknowledge Dr. John F. Doherty of the Marist College Criminal Justice Department for his encouragement and time in explaining the process of pursuing a doctoral degree. I also want to thank all of the individuals who agreed to participate in this study and share their experiences.

I also thank my father in law, Donald F. Williams Sr. for his support in allowing me the opportunity to begin a very enjoyable and rewarding law enforcement career.

Last, but not least, I want to recognize my great and supportive late parents, Joan and William.



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## CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

### Introduction

The history of policing in the United States has depicted a gradual move from simple to complex responsibilities accompanied by the rise of police professionalism and technological innovations (Dempsey & Forst, 2008). Modern police work involves conducting random, routine patrols; responding to calls for police assistance; and investigating crime. Policing has experienced changes related to technological advances, such as the police car around 1910, police radios in the 1930s, direct electronic surveillance in the 1960s, and various computer-aided strategies for apprehending criminals since then (Patterson, 1995). The development of public policing patterns has varied, along with the political, economic, and social forces that have driven these patterns. Political positions regarding the appropriate role and function of citizen-supported police in a liberal constitutional democracy differ (Stenning, 2007), although all policy studies have supported the primary goal of policing as maintaining public safety through the authorized use of force (Patterson, 1995).

Urban riots in the 1960s provoked concerns about public safety and the misuse of police authority. Illegal drug use, prostitution, and visible homelessness have focused citizens' concerns on maintaining public order. Increases in serious crimes have been related to changing patterns of community demographics and increases in joblessness and unemployment (Dempsey & Forst, 2008). These factors have altered models of policing away from crime-driven, problem-oriented patterns to those involving communities' participation in legitimizing policing. Community policing now involves a partnership of

local communities and the policing agencies of local, state, and federal levels of government. Factors such as the effectiveness of crime reduction, public disorder rates, or public fear of crime (Institute for Policy Research [IPR], 2004) have been used to evaluate this new model of policing.

The IPR (2004) reported that between 1967 and 2000, the primary evaluative research topic was the organization and management of police departments. These efforts, however, used quantitative outcome factors associated with either individual officers or administrative leaders (Payne, Berg, & Sun, 2005; Wasserman, 1982), or the qualitative environmental cultural context of policing (IPR, 2004; Wells & Weisheit, 2004). No study has combined these two factors with the organizational structures of the police unit itself (Maguire, 2002) or has used a mixed methods research design to explore the relationships in community policing. The quality and variety of research efforts has created problems in generating consistent results that point to community policing strategies and methods that might be taught or transferred from one department to another (IPR, 2004).

Studying the organizational and environmental context of community policing together is challenging because of the wide variation in the organization of policing units and the environmental factors that interact with them. Nevertheless, some combined measures of organization and output activities include the use of lethal and nonlethal force, arrest rates, crime clearance rates, citation rates, and public complaints against the police (IPR, 2004). The IPR concluded:

Indeed, research over the past 40 years clearly shows that most police resources are expended on activities that do not result in formal enforcement, and that

citizens care a great deal about when, where, and how these informal activities occur. (p. 162)

The model of community policing requires a greater commitment to and more involvement of the local community to support the organizational and management aspects of police departments. The size, complexity, and even the model of executive decision making may be the result of community policy decisions, frequently made directly or indirectly through budget allocations (Stenning, 2007). The police leader coordinates the balance of community involvement and police autonomy (Peak, 2004). The police leader is responsible for internal and external governance policies, including those related to media relations, financial management, personnel issues, technology plans, traffic management, training and staff development, legal issues, and facility maintenance and safety, to name the major ones (International Association of Chiefs of Police [IACP], 2006).

#### Statement of the Problem

Social, political, and economic factors have influenced the focus of policing patterns that range from crime control to methods of community policing that include robust informal activities and increased breadth of formal responsibilities (IPR, 2004). The model of community policing reflects urban community organization and problems, and those of large- or medium-sized police departments run by full-time police (Dempsey & Forst, 2008). Although all police departments have similar service demands on them, small police departments have fewer resources to satisfy those demands, resulting in potentially serious conflicts among public policy, police management of public safety, and resource allocation. Part-time chiefs of small departments are potentially left with no

clear choices or alternative courses of action to establish best practices and manage their organizations.

The research has reflected best practices based on a model applicable to only half of the police departments in the United States. The problem is that the evaluative research results have not even been conclusive on best practices for larger community policing, and the model of community policing has not been researched for the remaining half of small police organizations staffed mainly by part-time police leaders and officers. Very little is known about part-time police leaders and their agency functions, community service demands, or organizational experience.

#### Background of the Problem

Since policing is one of the most visible and important services of municipal government, it follows that the position of police chief is one of the most important municipal appointments. Since incompetence on the part of the police chief can affect the tenure of the chief administrator, and since the quality of police service delivery directly affects the quality of life in the community, it is important that the municipal administrator select a police chief who is fully capable of both managing the police organization and interacting positively with the community. (Wasserman, 1982, p. 46)

Gaines and Kappeler (2005) indicated that local police agencies outnumber all other types of law enforcement agencies and account for the majority of law enforcement officers. According to the U.S. Department of Justice (DoJ, 2004), 90% of law enforcement agencies employ fewer than 50 sworn officers, and 50% of these agencies have 10 or fewer officers. Of these departments with 10 or less police, many have part-time police leaders and officers. As Hickman and Reaves found, “Small police departments frequently have many of the same responsibilities and problems as the larger departments, but on a smaller scale” (as cited in Gaines & Kappeler, 2005, p. 49). Rural



communities often expect the same quality of police protection and police services that full-time police leaders provide, but without the proportional resources to accomplish this. The DoJ reported that armed robberies, rapes, assaults, fraud, murder, and various other violent and nonviolent crimes are examples of rural as well as urban felonies.

Past studies have examined various role responsibilities of police leaders and small police departments, addressing the demands on the department from the community. Payne et al. (2005) examined a small police agency of one police leader and two part-time police officers in a rural town of approximately 2,500 residents. They examined the types of duties and calls for service, noting that the officers in this police agency performed many nontraditional law enforcement functions and that their roles were not as clearly defined as those of officers in larger urban police agencies.

Studies have examined the organization of police departments rather than the community demands or relations. Daft (2001) regarded specialization, hierarchy of authority, centralization, formalization, personnel ratios, and professionalism as the basic components of generic organizational structure. Other researchers have focused their attention on examining police organizational structure. For example, Langworthy (1986) examined the spatial, occupational, hierarchical, and functional differentiation in the structure of police organizations. Maguire (1997) researched the organizational structures of police agencies and similarly determined that spatial, hierarchical/vertical, and functional differentiation were essential elements within police organizations. In addition to agreeing with Langworthy about these elements being key to the organizational

structure, Maguire also included centralization, formalization, and administrative density within the list of key elements.

Smaller police agencies operate in a different way than larger, full-time police agencies. This point was critically examined by Falcone, Wells, and Weisheit (2002), who concluded that the successes of smaller police agencies in policing might be associated with the relationship that the officers have with their communities. They described other characteristics of small-town police departments: informal structures and open institutions with a low bureaucratic hierarchy of no more than one or two tiers. The officers within these departments are considered generalists, as contrasted to the urban specialists. These examples of past research indicate a paucity of studies comparing large and small police departments, and that those studies focused on limited factors or variables applied to small police organizations. Further research is presented in more detail and complexity in chapter 2.

#### Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this qualitative multiple case study was to explore the community policing experiences of part-time police leaders within the southeastern counties in a northeastern U.S. state.

#### Significance of the Study

This study provided a concentrated analysis of several of the part-time police leaders from within the southeastern counties of a northeastern U.S. state. A study of this type had not been done before, so it was intended to establish a base from which to provide an inaugural understanding for research, public policy decisions, and

practitioners of community policing. This study is significant in several ways. The information gathered may form the basis for additional research to understand the nature of rural policing and whether a more urban model of policing adequately describes this experience. The study may facilitate the replication of similar studies done in other geographic areas and on a larger scale. The collaboration among part-time police leaders, elected and appointed community officials who appoint these leaders, and the community residents who depend on these leaders for public safety and protection at all times may profit from more accurate information about useful policing models used in smaller communities. This collaboration implies increased community safety and crime prevention, knowledge of the models potentially tailored to smaller communities, and the strategic distribution of resources allocated to community policing.

#### Contribution to Social Change

Wasserman (1982) asserted that police officers have some discretion in most of the duties or functions that they perform. Police officers have the discretion to take either no action or action that fully applies what the law allows. Because of this freedom in decision making, coupled with the fact that police officers possess a great deal of power, they are viewed as the “most important decision makers in society today” (Wasserman, 1982, p. 38). The decision to use force and the degree of force necessary in performing the duties of a police officer was an important example cited by Wasserman.

It is critical for law enforcement leaders to ensure that the discretion used by their police officers is consistent and within the boundaries of positive community relations. In addition to making this point clear, Wasserman (1982) recognized the critical role of

police leaders, who are responsible for ensuring that the police officers within their agencies make fair and responsible decisions that require discretion in applying the law. Leaders who are not proactive in leading their agencies toward positive social control may facilitate a schism between their police agencies and the communities they serve. It is for these critical reasons that police leaders must possess the desired skills and qualifications to perform this important job. Although the police leader position is a crucial one for communities, very little is known about the role of the part-time police leader. Communities should have more knowledge about part-time police leaders who are responsible for ensuring that officers perform their duties in a manner that promotes strong community satisfaction and support. This study may be the impetus for positive social change.

#### Nature of the Study

The researcher employed a qualitative, multiple-case study research design. The research areas of interest are the experiences of community policing by part-time rural police leaders who may, or may not, be able to use the current model of community policing.

#### Research Questions

1. What are the experiences of community policing by part-time rural police leaders who may, or may not, be able to use the only current model of community policing?
2. What aspects, if any, of the only model of community policing will emerge to represent that of part-time police leaders?

The research questions focused on the relationship part-time police leaders have to the executive management of the agency and with community members and public officials. These areas included executive decision making, allocation of resources, agency complexity, and community needs. The subareas of interest generated from the literature were focused on hiring patterns, both of the chief and other officers; the administrative challenges of part-time policing; and the particular challenges and opportunities in policing small communities.

Eight part-time police leaders were interviewed. Inclusion criteria required that the part-time police leaders served within the same general geographical area and worked less than 40 hours per week in towns or villages with a population of 25,000 or less. The New York State Division of Criminal Justice Services (1999, 2009) identified part-time police leaders who met the inclusion criteria. Thus, the sample was intentional or purposeful, criterion based, and context specific.

The 8 participants were asked open-ended questions during the semistructured, in-depth interviews, with probing used to gather more detail (see Appendix A). The broad interview questions focused on the work experiences of the part-time chiefs. The research questions examined the participants' experiences of community policing, including their relationship with community factions, executive decision making, allocation of resources, agency complexity, and community needs. The names used to identify the participants were pseudonyms.

## Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework of the study was ecological theory. The model of community policing that was developed in the 1990s (Office of Community-Oriented Policing Services [COPS], 2008) describes community policing in terms that may be framed by ecological theory:

Community policing is a philosophy that promotes organizational strategies, which support the systematic use of partnerships and problem-solving techniques, to proactively address the immediate conditions that give rise to public safety issues such as crime, social disorder, and fear of crime. (p. 1)

The various definitions of community policing include the conceptualization of the community as the policing context and partnership, the mesosystem and the exosystem, depending on the position of the observer (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). The theoretical importance lies in the bidirectional relationship within and between all social systems, including that of the police with the surrounding community. Community policing recognizes the importance of the community in maintaining a sense of safety and in reducing crime. This includes “local government, civic and business leaders, public and private agencies, residents, churches, schools, and hospitals” (COPS, 2008, p. 4). The model of community policing was a the result of the changes in society over a period of 20 years post-WWII to which police departments did not effectively respond. This led to increased social isolation of the local community and the police; overt hostility toward the police, especially urban police; and a growing citizen interest in the public policy and practices of policing.

Community policing required large reorganizational efforts to bring police and local communities into positive interaction, resulting in what is now thought of as modern

policing. The broadened policing perspective focuses on activities that promote public safety and security, not simple crime control. Examples are “helping accident or crime victims, providing emergency medical or social services, helping resolve domestic and neighborhood conflicts, working with residents and local businesses to improve neighborhood conditions, controlling automobile and pedestrian traffic, and providing a model of citizenship” (COPS, 2008, ¶ 3). Police leadership is at the center of this policing model. A problem, however, is that the concept of community is likely different in rural areas than in large cities, so the use of ecological concepts aided in understanding the similarities and differences in police functioning, and allowed a comparison with the findings in the literature.

#### Definitions of Terms

*Appointing authority:* The appointing authority is an elected or appointed official or body that has the final authority and power to select or appoint a police leader within a particular jurisdiction.

*Full-time police agency:* A full-time police agency employs all full-time police officers who work 40 hours per week.

*Larger police agency:* A larger police agency is one comprised of 75 or more full-time sworn police officers.

*Part-time police leader:* This sworn police officer is in charge of a police agency and is responsible for the administrative duties of the police agency, and who usually works less than 40 hours per week. The position or rank of a part-time police leader can

vary. The part-time police leader is responsible to an elected local government official such as a town supervisor, a village mayor, or town council, or a board of village trustees.

*Part-time police officer:* A part-time police officer is a sworn police officer who has arrest powers, who agrees to uphold and enforce the laws of the state and jurisdiction of his or her employment and within the Constitution of the United States, and who usually works less than 40 hours per week.

*Qualifications:* “Qualifications for the position of police chief vary widely, depending on the size of the agency and the region of the country. Small agencies, especially those in rural areas, may not have any minimum educational requirements for the job” (Peak, 2004, p. 94).

*Similar duties:* These duties are closely related to the duties performed by others.

*Small police agency:* A small police agency is one comprised of fewer than 50 police officers.

*Sworn police officer:* A sworn police officer is someone who “is commissioned with full police powers, as contrasted with non-sworn or civilian employees” (Kuydendall & Roberg, 1990, p. 53).

#### Scope, Delimitations, and Limitations

The scope of the study focused on the community policing experiences of police leaders. Further delimitations were the geographical area and small size of the southeastern counties in a northeastern U.S. state. Each police leader was a bounded case representing knowledge of the bidirectional interaction of the police and the community.



Also delimiting the study was the central focus of the study on part-time community policing.

Potential limitations in the study were related to the qualitative design, which precluded the generalizability of the findings to other populations or groups. Care was exercised to construct the questions in the questionnaire and the interview to ensure the collection of accurate and detailed information from the participants. Notes were taken by the researcher during and immediately after the interviews to document additional observations that may assist in the critical review and analysis of the data. The open-ended questions provided additional insight into the issues being explored, and they facilitated an expanded explanation of the issues that are being researched. Consistency in conducting the interviews and administering the questionnaire reduced any limitations and added to the validity and credibility of the study. Care was taken in the data analysis and interpretation to not exceed the delimitations of the study focus. Overall, the lack of information on rural community policing pointed to a qualitative design.

#### Summary

The majority of police departments across the United States are small policing agencies led by part-time police leaders who are expected to provide high-quality public safety and police services to their communities. The model of community policing reflects urban community organization and problems, that is, those of large- or medium-sized police departments run by full-time police. The problem is that the results have not been conclusive on best practices for larger community policing and the model of community policing has not been researched for small police organizations staffed

mainly by part-time police leaders and police officers. Even though all police departments have similar service demands on them, small police departments have fewer resources to satisfy those demands, resulting in potentially serious conflicts among public policy, police management of public safety, and resource allocation.

The purpose of this multiple case study was to explore the community policing experiences of 8 part-time police leaders within the southeastern counties in a northeastern U.S. state. This study may contribute to the body of knowledge needed to address the potentially serious problems that part-time police leaders may experience moderating the relationship of agency, public officials, and community members, all of whom have an interest in the allocation of resources and the establishment of public policy regarding policing best practices.

Chapter 2 begins with a discussion of the importance of the police leader and is followed by a critical examination of the importance of the selection and role of the police leader. Following is a discussion of the process by which either an insider or an outsider is chosen as the police leader, the duties of the police leader, the skills and qualifications of the police leader, the experiences of the police leader, and the issues facing the police leaders of smaller and rural agencies. Gaps in the literature are discussed at the end of chapter 2.

Chapter 3 critically examines qualitative research methods and then focuses on the case study method and the rationale for using this method in the proposed study. The various types of case studies, as well as the case study process, are discussed. The design

of the study, analysis of the data, the research questions, data collection methods, data analysis, and limitations of the study also are explained in chapter 3.

Chapter 4 describes the demographic profiles of both the police leaders and their agencies. The role of the leader is examined, as is the impact of the part-time status of the police leaders on the communities that they serve. The research questions are answered, and other areas of interest are reported. The within and cross-case analysis comparing the results from this research with those of other studies that have been conducted and reported on as a result of the literature review is included within this chapter.

Chapter 5 presents the conclusions, applications, and benefits of this study. The reasons for the study also are explained. The aspects, if any, of the only known model of community policing that were obvious for part-time police leaders are discussed. The research questions and other areas of interest are reviewed.

## CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

### Introduction

This chapter presents a critical review of the literature related to police leaders. The literature pertaining to police leaders identified as relevant to this study is discussed. The review focuses on the importance of the police leader. Police officers possess a tremendous amount of authority and discretion. The police leader is responsible for ensuring that officers use reasonable judgment in exercising discretion and authority, people are safe in their communities, and citizens' rights are protected and not violated when officers exercise their law enforcement powers.

The review also critically examines the importance of the police leader selection process, how it occurs, and who makes the selection. It presents the issues associated with selecting an insider or outsider as chief of police, and both the positive and negative aspects involved with both of these choices. The literature review then discusses the role of the police leader to more fully understand the duties that are performed and the qualifications that can provide the tools for the police leader to serve successfully. The review also focuses on the duties of the police leader. The traditional duties during the early years of policing in America are reviewed and discussed, as are subsequent changes to these duties. The literature then examines the skills and the qualifications of police leaders, the importance of the experience of police leaders, and the various issues that police leaders of smaller and rural agencies face.

### Literature Review Search Strategy

Various electronic database searches were conducted to retrieve data about part-time police leaders. Journal searches were conducted within, but were not limited to, the following databases: EBSCO, ProQuest, and Academic Search Premier. In addition, the online Walden Library databases, and the online campus libraries at Marist College were accessed to obtain other articles. The key terms used to conduct the searches included *police leader, police leaders, part-time police, part-time police leader, part-time police leaders, part-time police chief, and part-time police leaders.*

Also searched in EBSCO was the term *organizational structure*, with and without the term police. The term also was searched within Academic Search Premier as well as military and government collection databases. The term *organizational theory* was searched in the criminal justice periodicals in the ProQuest database. Searches were expanded based upon the results obtained during the initial searches using the key terms. Bibliographic searches that included the names of known authors and researchers were initiated. Some textbook searches supplemented and complemented the journal articles.

### Importance of the Police Leader

Wasserman (1982) contended that “since policing is one of the most visible and important services of municipal government, it follows that the position of police chief is one of the most important municipal appointments” (p. 46). This statement supported the significance of the position of police leader and did not differentiate between a part-time and a full-time police leader. “The individual who is finally placed in the position of chief of police, sheriff, or State police director, will have a significant impact upon the quality

of life in that city, county, or State” (IACP, 1976, p. 7). This view was supported by Wasserman. These statements are but two examples illustrating the importance of the position of police leader.

Potts (1980) asserted:

Among knowledgeable people in government, in the police profession, in the judiciary, there is a clear consensus that in modern society the position of chief of police is an important and demanding part of the governmental system. The individuals who occupy such positions need to have significant leadership skills in directing and managing the activities of their departments and in playing a role in the general governmental process. (p. 20)

Potts not only supported the previous statements concerning the importance of the position of police leader and the impact that this person will have on the community but also reported on the importance of that person’s having strong leadership qualities. Potts stressed the important role of this individual in leading the police agency and interacting with others within the governmental organizational structure.

Rainguet and Dodge (2001) stated, “The job of police in the United States represents perhaps one of the most visible and volatile positions in the public sector” (p. 268). Bushey (2002) commented on the importance of the police leader:

Without minimizing the importance of other public executives, the actions and influence of a police chief not only can have ramifications across the entire public spectrum but also play a role in the well-being and vitality of both the residential and business sections of the community. (p. 16)

Parker (1982) offered this insight into the importance of the position of police leader: “The police chief will be the administrative head of the most visible and often controversial segment of the city government. For this reason, it is imperative that the best possible candidate be selected” (p. 42). These examples highlight not only the

importance of the position of the police leader but also the skills and abilities required of these leaders.

Benson (2004), who served for more than 15 years as a police leader, concurred with the assertion that the position of police leader is important to the community. Benson conducted a survey of 50 larger municipal police departments in Michigan that ranged from 45 to 366 sworn police officers in communities with populations of approximately 20,000 to 198,000. The survey was conducted anonymously. He received 37 completed surveys, a return rate of 74%. The results of this survey showed that police leaders are extremely important as a human resource in ensuring that communities receive adequate protection and leading police departments in an effective and efficient manner.

Fyfe, Greene, Walsh, Wilson, and McLaren (1997) discussed several ways in which the executive leadership position is very important. They commented that this is a “matter of urgent concern in American policing” (p. 107). The chief executive is responsible for many organizational services and controls within the police agency, but one of the most important of these is community safety. Strong leadership is essential for the successful provision of these services.

Fyfe et al. (1997) also recognized, as many others have, that the police leader must provide these important services while addressing the concerns of many other stakeholders, including the media, police officers within the agency, and political interest groups. They noted the importance of the need for police leaders to possess strong leadership abilities that will enable them to perform the many duties for which they are

responsible. Providing public safety for the community is one of the priorities, but it is only one of the many responsibilities discussed by Fyfe et al. Bowers also (1999) discussed the importance of the police leader when describing the task of selecting the person for this position as being very different from selecting persons for other positions, such as fire chiefs, directors of public works, and other key positions within government.

Peak (2004) recognized the importance of the position of chief of police by stating that the person filling this position “is generally considered to be one of the most influential and prestigious persons in local government” (p. 94). Peak also commented the police leaders “often amass considerable power and influence in their jurisdiction” (p. 94). Kelly (1975) described in more detail the type of powers that must be managed effectively by the police leader:

*Policing is perhaps the most important function of local government. It is a 24-hour function that is highly visible. The powers of police to arrest citizens and to affect the moral complexion of the community, as well as the duties of police to maintain public order and protect constitutional liberties, are the most fundamental public functions. They require special care and good judgment. A poorly managed police department will not only reflect on the administration currently in office, but will also affect public attitudes toward government in general. (p. 5)*

The expectations of the chief of police by different persons and groups reflect the importance of this position and the person occupying the position. The mayor or the city manager may expect the chief to make the police agency more efficient, reduce crime, and raise morale within the agency. Others, including members of the agency and groups such as labor organizations, may have other expectations; citizens may have yet different expectations than those already mentioned (Peak, 2004).



Lynch (1986) agreed that based upon the expectations of the chief of police, it is an important position. Most city managers expect their police leaders to be knowledgeable in law enforcement and to answer questions using language that is understood by nonlaw enforcement persons, such as city managers. Police leaders also are expected to know and present the overall views of the police agencies that they represent. They can accomplish this goal only by knowing the views of their employees through effective communication. City managers also expect the police leader to administer and monitor a budget that pertains to the municipality, not just the police agency (Lynch, 1986).

The police leader also is expected to provide leadership by taking the initiative and keeping the city manager informed of important issues such as employee issues or equipment problems (Lynch, 1986). For example, the New York City Police Department and most other American police agencies have no centrally organized structure or strong leadership because of efforts to restrict the amount of authority that can be exercised by the police upon the rights of the citizens. This fear of the police having too much control is similar to those same types of fears expressed by the British Parliament (Travis, 2005).

Vago (1988) commented:

The police are expected and empowered to enforce the law. In the United States, there is no unified system of law enforcement. An important characteristic of law enforcement is the strongly bureaucratic and militaristic organization of the police. The effectiveness of law enforcement agencies depend on the way in which departments are organized. In professionalized departments, there is a greater tendency to detect violators and a higher arrest rate than in nonprofessionalized departments. Law enforcement is characterized by a high amount of discretion. Both in reactive and proactive policing, the use of police discretion can take a number of forms: investigation, confrontation, disposition,

and the decision to use force. There is a thin line between discretion and discrimination in discretionary law enforcement. (p. 106)

Lynch (1986) summarized the professional relationship between the police leader and the city manager by stating, “In summary then, it is incumbent upon the city manager and chief of police, through day-to-day contacts, to develop a relationship of earned respect and trust in which honesty plays an important role” (p. 236).

These examples illustrated the importance and significance of the position of police leader and the very demanding expectations that many persons and groups place upon the person who occupies the position. This close and collaborative working relationship was discussed more critically by Lynch than by many other researchers. Police leaders must be able to complete their duties successfully, and the aforementioned examples highlighted the need for accountability of and support for the police leader.

Hunt and Magenau (1993) stated:

The police leader, we argued, functions in the contemporary American police department as an institutional as well as an organizational actor. He or she will, therefore, be a carrier or instrument of institutional norms, an inducer of organizational change, and, consequently, an inevitable instigator of local conflicts. This is why, structurally, American police organizations today are almost sure to resemble one or another form of political arena. Fundamental institutional battles are being waged in them. These struggles are more or less intense in particular cases, but they naturally swirl about the person of the institutional leader, the police leader. (p. 116)

The next section critically discusses the importance of the process of selecting a police leader.

### Importance of the Police Leader Selection Process

“A city’s administrator will make few decisions that are as important as the selection of the chief executive of the police department. The quality of the community’s life will be greatly affected by the nature of this choice” (Bouza, 1978, p. 117). Mayors and city managers realize that selecting a police leader is one of their most important jobs (Potts, 1980). Bushey (2002) agreed, stating that “selecting a police chief is among the most critical personnel decisions that a local government manager or an elected body can make” (p. 16). Another researcher who wholeheartedly agreed with the importance of the police leader selection was Kelly (1975):

Selecting a police chief is for many municipal executives one of the most crucial official acts they will make. The police department carries out one of the most basic functions of local government, and its employees are among the most publicly visible. The leader of the police department, therefore, does much to affect how citizens view the entire municipal government. (p. 1)

Concurring with others’ assertions about the significance and importance of selecting a police leader was Parker (1982), who stated, “The selection of the police chief is one of the most critical appointments made by a city manager. This can be exemplified by the extensive and rigorous selection procedure often undertaken” (p. 42).

Bushey (2002) also discussed the negative impact of selecting a police leader who is not as qualified as other candidates. Bushey asserted that although the input of the command of the agency selecting a chief is important, it should not be the only factor in making the selection. Potts (1980) provided his view of the importance of the top community leader’s role in selecting subordinate positions:

It is true that the top official in any bureaucratic organization plays a key role in

shaping the life of the organization. Ideally, he influences the character and quality of administration by getting his own preferences incorporated in the more important policies formulated by those above him and carried out by those under his direction. He also makes an imprint by selecting the personnel who occupy subordinate positions. He not only leads in an active sense but also as an exemplar and legitimizer. (p. 19)

Bouza (1978) suggested that the search to locate the most suitable police leader should be done in a focused manner by having a small number of key law enforcement executives or similar professionals determine the pool of candidates. Wasserman (1982) noted, "In selecting a police chief, the municipal administrator must ensure that the criteria applied to potential candidates reflect the real concerns of the community and its political leadership about the police function and its administration" (p. 47). Bouza (1985) also described the selection of the police leader as "a matter of extraordinary importance" (p. 119). It is important for the chief municipal administrator to look for certain qualities in the candidates for the position of police leader, including their grasp of the law enforcement function that can be applied fairly within the community, effective policy-making abilities, vast experience, and management skills (Wasserman, 1982). Labor organizations and unions have sometimes attempted to take part in the decision-making process of selecting a police agency's police leader.

Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux (1990) were critical in their observations and questions concerning the selection process of a new police leader:

Effective leadership begins at the top. The first challenge is to choose the best, the next is to give the chief the autonomy necessary to do a good job. When a new chief is hired, is there a professional interviewing process that involves the community? Or is the chief appointed by a local politician or board that can be pressured by special-interest groups? Is the goal to find a qualified, strong, and visionary leader – or a person whose real job is to do the politicians' bidding, to make them look good or be fired? How much security does the chief have? Is the

chief given a contract or civil service protection? Can the chief be removed without cause? (p. 340)

These observations and questions can determine not only how the police leader is selected but also the role of the police leader and how that individual will be expected to perform. The importance of selecting an effective and capable police leader, and the problems that can arise from failing to do so, were reported by Bouza (1990), who suggested that “the reason that so many police departments seem to stumble from crisis to crisis, and that they often get bogged down in repeated failures is probably that not enough attention was paid to the selection of the police chief” (p. 83).

The process of selecting a police leader may vary, depending upon the jurisdiction, but it usually presents a challenge for each of the jurisdictions engaged in the selection process (Weinblatt, 1999). As Weinblatt noted, “Some locales make extensive use of assessment centers where a prospective chief’s abilities are tested” (p. 50). Schmitt (1999) asserted that “if a town does not have full faith in its police chief, or the police chief in his/her town, then the hiring should not have been done” (p. 92). This statement highlights the importance of the police leader selection process in choosing the best candidate.

Schmitt (1999) also described the key points for selecting a police leader, regardless of the particular needs of the municipality: cooperating with municipal officials, effectively communicating the candidate’s desires to the members of the community, choosing the candidate with the most suitable experience for a particular jurisdiction, considering internal and external candidates, and considering a candidate who will work collectively and cohesively with the governing body and local leaders.

Potts (1980) reflected on the importance of the police leader selection by noting, “The recruitment and selection process will most likely have a meliorative impact on police administration only if it is directed at laying the basis for cooperative leadership” (p. 16).

Rainguet and Dodge (2001) identified the importance of the position, selection, and job performed by the police leader. They stated:

The results of this study suggest that the complexities involved in police leadership demands a strong, healthy, highly skilled, and committed individual. Public administrators must focus on the recruitment and selection, with a clear articulation of the responsibilities of police chief. Those who seek to be police chief also need to explore carefully their motivations, capabilities, and expectations. (p. 286)

Although they focused on the problems related to tenure and leaving the position, Rainguet and Dodge also identified the stressful demands and complexities of the position. Bushey (2002) offered several points to consider during the selection process for a police leader. One of those points pertains to the process itself. He commented, “Despite the best intentions and a clear understanding of the qualities being sought, the process is only as good as the people who conduct it” (p. 20).

#### Insider or Outsider as Police Leader

Potts (1980) argued that when a municipality is in the process of hiring a police leader, it should ensure that it has the best pool of candidates available by allowing external and internal departmental candidates to apply for the position. When municipalities restrict the position only to internal candidates, they confine themselves in several ways. Potts noted that “failure to utilize lateral entry for most chiefs of police has a pernicious effect on police leadership. Promotion through the ranks can prepare an officer for the challenges of top level administration only in an incidental manner”

(p. 15).

Potts (1980) also asserted that internal candidates who have extensive experience at the street level may be hampered by not having well-developed leadership abilities. Police leaders who are chosen based upon internal selection preferences may have obtained the position simply as a reward for serving in the same agency for an extended period, and they then may lead the organization based largely upon the interests of the employees (Potts, 1980). The benefit of considering internal and external candidates is that the process may confirm early perceptions and may facilitate a comparison of internal candidates to external candidates (Potts, 1980). Choosing an external candidate through lateral entry will not in and of itself guarantee that the most qualified person will be selected and will do a satisfactory job. Potts commented that “a recruitment and selection process that lays the basis for effective cooperation and communication between the chief of police and the chief executive can, by itself, have a more beneficial impact than lateral entry alone” (p. 20).

Enter (1986) critically examined the various approaches to selecting the chief of police. He stated, “Historically, there have been three general approaches to selecting the chief executive of a law enforcement agency: the ‘ultimate outsider,’ the insider,’ and the ‘outsider’ ” (p. 334). Mulder (2001) contended that candidates for the position of police leader from outside the police agency face challenges that are different from those faced by internal candidates. Mulder commented:

Police Chiefs, particularly those who come from outside the organization, often find themselves in a mixed blessing situation. On one hand, they are happy about having “arrived”: they made it to the top of their profession. On the other hand, they are also in an environment, which has at best a wait-and-see climate or a

recalcitrant atmosphere, especially if in-house candidates are still licking their wounds. Not that such environments are prohibitive to the new chief's agenda, but the chief does not have the assurances that his or her policies and programs are promoted and sold with care and enthusiasm. (p. 14)

Parker (1982) considered the positive and negative factors in selecting either an insider or an outsider as police leader. The benefits to selecting a candidate from outside the police agency may include no previous commitments or political ties, fresh ideas and perspectives to implement within the agency, and no attachment to any negative issues that may have existed with the previous police administration. Parker reported that a negative aspect associated with hiring an external candidate is the difficulty facing the individual to garner support from subordinates. Parker suggested that the appointing authorities sometimes prefer internal applicants who are seeking the position of police leader when there are no obvious reasons or issues why external candidates should be considered and when an internal candidate is respected by members of the police agency. The benefits of selecting an inside candidate include issues such as more rapid support from the other employees and a better grasp of the department's structure, personnel, and issues.

Parker (1982) summed up the importance of deciding whether to hire an external or an internal candidate by stating, "The city manager's responsibility is to choose the best qualified chief; and with this goal in mind, any limitation, such as accepting inside applicants only, is not usually in line with such an end" (p. 42). Challenges considered when deciding to promote an internal candidate include the possibility that the new police leader may lead the department in the same way as when he or she was at a lower rank or



that the new chief may not be professionally objective when making decisions because of previous ties with other members of the agency.

Dantzker (1996), who conducted exploratory research into the desired selection criteria for police leader by examining a sample of 122 randomly selected police leaders, found that 63 (53%) of the respondents reported that they had been selected for the position of police leader while still members of the same police agencies. A total of 30 respondents were chosen as external candidates, and 13 of them had experience as police leaders from other agencies. Five (38%) of these 13 reportedly had 7 years of experience as police leaders. Bushey (2002) defended hiring an internal candidate as the police leader when that candidate exhibits certain qualities and attributes, such as familiarity with the agency and is of an ethnicity that reflects the community. Bushey cautioned, however, that the overall evaluation of each candidate must be considered and should not be outweighed by other qualities.

In a study of the performance of police leaders, Krimmel and Lindenmuth (2001) reported that 70% of the police leaders had been promoted from within their current police agencies. A total of 400 questionnaires were mailed to Pennsylvania municipal managers, who were asked to complete the survey if they directly supervised their communities' police leaders. Krimmel and Lindenmuth examined 45 types of leadership attributes and performance indicators. They reported that 205 of the 400 questionnaires were returned, a 51% return rate. Krimmel and Lindenmuth examined three variables, one of which was whether the police leader was selected from within the agency or from outside. They found that the outside police leaders had lower scores concerning their

arrogance, trust, failure to accept blame, and “ruling with an iron fist.... In other words, police chiefs hired from outside the department had identifiable performance or leadership deficiencies according to the scores given by the municipal managers” (p. 475).

Krimmel and Lindenmuth (2001) contributed to a more thorough and rounded description of the types of leadership skills and qualifications deemed important by many of the researchers previously mentioned. Their study was significant in that it examined leadership attributes from the municipal managers’ perspectives. Because these individuals very often are the immediate superiors of the police leaders, it was essential to consider their perceptions of the police leaders. The number of respondents ( $N= 205$ ) was sufficient to give the study credibility. These researchers also examined the type of police leadership attributes in relation to whether the leader was chosen from within that same agency or from outside. This information was relevant to the current study, which considered training and skills, and whether the leader was already a member of that agency or chosen from outside.

Penegor and Peak (1992) examined and compared police leaders who were promoted from within and from outside their agencies. They disseminated a survey of 17 questions to a stratified sample of 295 police leaders within 12 states in the Pacific region. A total of 122 surveys were returned, a 41.4% return rate. The demographic data were obtained by calculating “each state’s proportion of the total regional population” (Penegor & Peak, 1992, p. 22). The researchers reported that 8 variables were tested by using the chi-square technique. The 2 remaining variables used the parametric test of

means, which measured whether insiders or outsiders had more time invested in both their current position and law enforcement in general, to analyze the differences between the sample means. “In each of these instances, the hypothesis was that no differences existed between the two groups” (Penegor & Peak, 1992, p. 23). A .05% rejection level was established for the null hypothesis for the 10 variables that were tested.

Penegor and Peak (1992) reported that 55 (45%) of the police leaders had become police leaders while being members of those same agencies and that 67 (55%) had obtained the position as an outsider through the external selection process. This result was different from that reported by Krimmel and Lindenmuth (2001), who found that 70% of the police leader respondents in their study had been promoted from within the agencies that were already employing them. The sizes of the police departments ranged from 2 sworn members to 1,900 sworn officers. The mean size of the police agencies was reported to be 84 sworn officers. The range of the populations of the communities for the respective police agencies ranged from 1,043 to 1,100,000, with a mean of 57,000. Penegor and Peak found that larger police agencies did not necessarily choose external police leader candidates. The findings also did not support any significance relating to the comparison of fiscal budgets and whether an internal or an external candidate was chosen as police leader.

#### Role of Police Leader

In answering the question, “What do police managers do?” Lynch (1986) stated:

They listen, talk, read, write, confer, think, decide—about men, money, materials, methods, facilities—in order to plan, organize, direct, coordinate, and control their research service, production, public relations, employee relations, and all other activities so that they may more effectively serve the citizens to whom they are

responsible. Police managers, therefore, must be skilled in listening, talking, reading, conferring, and deciding. They must know how to use their personnel, money, materials, and facilities so as to reach whatever stated objectives are important to their organizations. (p. 1)

Mayo (1985) reported that very little research has been done on the role of the police leader. Mayo, who conducted exploratory research on the role of the police leader, developed a methodology to study the role within one police agency that he wanted to be available for replication in other police agencies. He conducted in-depth case studies of 3 police leaders who were serving suburban populations of between 150,000 and 550,000 people. Mayo described the instruments used to collect 1 week's worth of data in each case on a minute-to-minute basis that were recorded continuously using codes. The primary purpose for conducting the study was to determine "the impact of time utilization, policies, and practices on the role of the police chief in effecting change. This was one of the first empirical studies of police chief, and it was exploratory, as is any other initial research" (Mayo, 1985, p. 403).

Mayo (1985) concluded that more than 50% of the police leaders' time was used to complete tasks that took less than 10 minutes each, including engaging in telephone conversations, signing documents, or attending meetings. The frequency and pace of performing these tasks did not give the police leaders extended time to thoroughly examine many of the issues that they were responsible for. Mayo reported that only 5% of their time was used to address issues for a period longer than 60 minutes. These activities usually involved internal and external conferences and meetings. The number of documents that the police leaders addressed on a weekly basis averaged 370. Of all of the documents that the police leaders handled weekly, most of them did not originate with

the chiefs, most were considered routine, and most were not the types of documents that executives of the same level in the private sector would be expected to review or handle. Mayo reported that the number of scheduled meetings attended by the chiefs who participated in the study averaged 17 and the number of unscheduled meetings averaged 50.

The purpose of the activities that the 3 police leaders engaged in also was examined by Mayo (1985). He found that they spent more than half of their total working hours addressing current issues and completing such tasks as daily operations reports. Less than 20% of their time was allotted to long-range issues that focused on such activities as planning and future budgets. Mayo also found that the police leaders spent 13% of their total time “on management of innovation” (p. 405) and that most of the time spent on activities was related to “current innovative projects, including initiating new opportunities for outside training and conference attendance, zero-based budgeting, civilian professional staff, management development programs, task force management, and decentralization of the organization” (p. 405).

Mayo (1985) observed that all of the police leaders were involved in activities related to professional organizations, such as writing professional articles, participating as committee members, or speaking at conferences. Mayo suggested that participation in these types of activities assisted the police leaders in developing new ideas and concepts that they could use in their police departments. The study was important in identifying the roles that the police leaders performed on a routine basis. This study was limited in that it examined only 3 police leaders and their departments in suburban communities

with populations between 150,000 and 555,000 people. The study did not include any communities that had smaller police agencies.

The IACP (1976) reported on a study conducted by the Police Chief Executive Committee on the role of police leaders in the United States. That research consisted of questionnaires, interviews, and a review of existing literature. The leaders of all 49 state police and highway patrol agencies, as well as all police leaders who led police agencies of 100 or more sworn personnel, were included in the study. Also included was a random sample of 20% of the leaders of police agencies that employed fewer than 100 sworn members who reported crime statistics for the Uniform Crime Report to the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI). Two other questionnaires were used based upon the response to the initial survey.

The initial questionnaire of 19 questions examined demographics. In addition, the police executives who responded to the questionnaire, along with their superiors, were asked to rate the importance of 14 management skills by assigning a number on a Likert scale from zero (*least important*) to 10 (*most important*) corresponding to each one's importance (IACP, 1976). These 14 management skills included the following:

1. Motivate personnel/Maintain morale.
2. Develop subordinates into effective teams.
3. Relating to the community.
4. Organize personnel and functions.
5. Administer internal discipline
6. Maintain internal review and control

7. Communicate with all levels within agency.
8. Establish and communicate objectives and priorities.
9. Forecast, plan and implement activities.
10. Resolve employee relations problems.
11. Budget and fiscal management.
12. Utilize advanced technology.
13. Coordinate agency activity with other organizations.
14. Secure and manage grant-funded projects.

The second survey was directed to the immediate superior of each nonelected police leader respondent who was asked to identify that individual. The third survey was mailed to each police executive who responded to the initial survey. An initial mailing of 2,546 questionnaires was sent to police executives throughout the United States; responses were received from 1,701 respondents, a return rate of 66.8%. The questionnaire to the police executives focused on the respondents' backgrounds; law enforcement experience; educational achievement; method of police leader selection; types of qualifications believed necessary; training and experience; and an estimate by the respondents about the percentage of time to perform five duties defined as operational field activities, internal management, public relations, interaction with local officials, and interaction with criminal justice system agencies. The results of this research included several observations and conclusions.

The application of selection criteria should fit the needs of individual agencies. In particular, the educational and experience criteria should vary with the needs of agencies of different sizes. This flexibility should be addressed by those

responsible for selecting a police chief executive, or for making recommendations for legislation affecting the selection process. (IACP, 1976, p. 26)

In the IACP questionnaire (1976), police leader executive respondents were asked to estimate the percentage of time that they spent performing various duties. The results showed that 36% of total work time was directed toward internal management. This duty was increased to nearly one half of the total work time for police leaders who headed departments with 1,000 or more employees. The time needed for this duty for police leaders in police agencies with fewer than 15 employees occupied 21% of their total work time.

Penegor and Peak (1992) focused on the internal and external selections of police leaders. The researchers distributed 300 surveys, 122 of which were returned, a 41.4% response rate, to municipal police leaders within 12 states in the Pacific region that examined several areas by asking the respondents to answer 17 questions. One of those questions asked, "What do you feel is the major role of a police chief?" The responses included leadership, provision of community services, and personnel concerns as areas that the respondents believed were their role. A frequency distribution based upon 79 multiple individual responses from the respondents identified as insiders and 110 from those identified as outsiders showed that 62% of the insiders and 53% of the outsiders believed that leadership is the major role of a police leader. Provision of community services was a major role identified by 21% of the insiders, as compared to 19% of their outsider counterparts. Seventeen percent of the insiders, as compared to 28% of the outsiders, believed that dealing with personnel concerns is the major role of a police leader.



Bouza (1990) described many of the roles that a police leader must assume. The role of the police leader includes making decisions about many aspects of leadership and policing, including the need to have a vision regarding personnel and staffing requirements; whether more civilian workers are needed, educational requirements are adequate for entry level police officers, and upper level police executives are effectively performing; minority recruitment; consolidation of services; disciplinary matters; and equipment needs for the members of the police agency. Fyfe et al. (1997) described the police leader's role as it pertains to leadership. They stated that the police leader "must provide the leadership on law enforcement issues for the entire community" (p. 126).

Wasserman (1982) asserted, "An important role of the police administrator, and certainly the most traditional one, is that of organizational manager" (p. 50). Wasserman also noted that there is difference between being an effective manager and an effective field operations commander. To be considered a good manager, one must possess leadership qualities that not everyone has. Police leaders must be able to manage time, resources, and events within the confines of public policy, and they also must be capable of motivating their employees. Although these are the expected responsibilities of the police leader, the more challenging role is that of community leader. This proactive police leadership role will help to ensure a cohesive working relationship among the police leader, the police agency, and the community (Wasserman, 1982). The role that the police leader as community leader is important in preventing disagreements between the community and its police agency (Wasserman, 1982).

Although some researchers have agreed on many of the roles that police leaders assume, other researchers have identified differences concerning police leaders in smaller agencies. Metzger (1995) provided a personal perspective on the role of a police leader of a smaller agency based upon his experience as a police leader in the Zeeland, Ohio, police department:

The delegation of responsibilities is almost nonexistent in a small department, with the typical administrator responsible for conducting most of the talks to community groups; preparing, disseminating and updating rules and policies; hiring, training and scheduling officers; writing grant proposals; ordering everything from supplies to vehicles; and generally making sure the department is running. (p. 50)

The police leaders of smaller agencies must be honest and available to answer questions, which obligates them to take a neutral stance in partisan political issues. They also must ensure that community needs are not confused with partisan interests, and they must allow the citizens of the community to openly voice their problems or concerns and to do so in a way that shows that the police leaders are accountable to the public (Wasserman, 1982). The police leaders should have strong communication skills because they are responsible for explaining to and helping members of the community understand social change within the community, including the importance of becoming involved in the order maintenance role (Wasserman, 1982). These police leaders have the opportunity to portray the police agency in positive terms when engaging in public-speaking events. Potts (1980) discussed the role of the police leader in relation to the importance of the close working relationship between the police leader and the chief executive of the municipality:

Both the chief executive and the chief of police must recognize their interdependence. They must recognize the need for effective cooperation in providing guidance for the police agency. The chief of police must be made a part of the municipal management team in order to provide relevant professional expertise and knowledge in police policy making. The chief executive must be made part of the police management team to keep departmental policy and operation consistent with public needs and desires. (p. 15)

There is a belief that the traditional role of the police leader has changed. Chief William B. Berger of the North Miami Beach, Florida, Police Department believed that his role encompasses much more than simply addressing disciplinary matters within his agency. Berger believed that police leaders must act as community leaders (as cited in Weinblatt, 1999). Stephens, chief of the Charlotte-Mecklenburg, North Carolina, Police Department, commented, "Chiefs have to be visionary and responsive" (as cited in Weinblatt, 1999, p. 49). Dr. Craig Fraser, director of management services for the Police Executive Research Forum, asserted that persons with broad experience who are considered multidimensional will be sought by police agencies looking to hire police leaders (as cited in Weinblatt, 1999).

#### Duties of the Police Leader

Police leaders are responsible for the direction and control of the police agencies that they lead, but they cannot manage every unit or division as those units or divisions perform their daily tasks (Thibault, Lynch, & McBride, 2004). "The police administrator must seek advice and counsel from people who have various areas of expertise" (Thibault et al., 2004, p. 237). Rainguet and Dodge (2001) noted, "Police organizations and their chief executives have an incredibly diverse and challenging set of duties" (p. 268). The police leader may hold the title of chief, director, superintendent, or something similar in

rural police agencies (Baker, 2000). Baker commented, “The top executive in rural police agencies has many responsibilities that include staffing, intelligence, operations, training and logistics” (p. 97).

Stamper (1992) examined the work done by police leaders from larger agencies, defined as cities with populations of 200,000 people or more, with the exception of San Diego. The study focused on answering four research questions:

1. What do America’s big-city chiefs profess to value in relation to their community and or organizational responsibilities?
2. Is there a distinction in the relative importance chiefs attach to executive leadership versus executive management functions or tasks?
3. Is the executive behavior of the police chiefs, as viewed by their immediate assistants, consistent with their professed values?
4. Are there differences in the professed values or the observed behavior of the police chiefs based on individual or contextual demographic variables? (p. 87)

Stamper initially reported identifying 200 police leader and manager behaviors/functions. This number was later reduced to 125, and after being field tested, 100 were used in two surveys that were distributed to police leaders and their assistants. Stamper also explained that the surveys were reviewed by an external panel and research methodologists. A total of 72 police leaders and 144 their assistants received the surveys in the mail; 52 chiefs and 92 assistants replied.

Regarding the first research question, Stamper (1992) reported that the police leaders believed that they should be personally engaged in functions that involve both leadership and management. Many of the chiefs also believed that they should share a vision of the future, encourage and show openness and honesty, and develop and challenge the employees of the agency in an effort to promote teamwork to accomplish the job. Many of the police leaders expressed their commitment to the scrutiny of agency

policies; a close working relationship with members of the community, including receiving input from these members; and a lack of tolerance for discriminatory practices. The results to this research question also showed that for the most part, the chiefs believed that personal management duties, such as leading meetings, signing departmental correspondence, coordinating the work output, and engaging in general managerial duties, did not require their direct involvement as much as leadership duties necessitated. Stamper pointed out that in particular, the police leaders did not believe that they needed to possess more technical skills than their subordinates.

Stamper (1992) also examined the differences in several areas based upon demographics. The results showed that the police leaders from the larger cities were male, mostly White, and in their early 50s. Stamper described the chiefs as having an average of 16.4 years of education, serving in policing for an average of 26.6 years, and leading their respective police agencies for an average of 4.1 years. The communities in which the police leaders served ranged from 208,000 to 4.3 million people, and the agencies employed 359 to 10,590 individuals. The results of the data analysis showed that just over 64% of the agencies were decentralized. Chiefs who were classified as Type I, or high-leader/low-manager types, were from “moderately populated newer cities of the sun belt that cover substantially more miles than other cities of the study” (Stamper, 1992, p. 109).

Stamper (1992) made several important observations of the police leaders who participated in the study. The high-leader/low-manager chiefs were not faced with the types of issues and problems that their counterparts had to deal with in the densely

populated urban areas or where large police bureaucracies existed. Stamper identified two statistically significant demographic correlations, namely, (a) the relationship between education and managerial orientation, which showed that the less educated chiefs performed more managerial functions, and (b) the relationship between the number of years of service and the leadership orientation, which showed that the chiefs with fewer years of service were more oriented toward leadership. The results also showed that police leaders described as high-leader/low manager were “significantly the most highly educated,” were the youngest, and had been chief executives for less than half of the time of the other chiefs (Stamper, 1992, p. 110). Stamper offered a cautionary note regarding the interpretation of the results:

The safe conclusion is that the relationship between demographic characteristics and the police chief’s leadership and management attitudes and behavior is relatively weak. Apparently, the homogeneity of the police culture serves to produce remarkably similar views of the organizational and community concerns presented in the PLPS. (p. 111)

Stamper concluded that leadership principles can be practiced effectively in a conducive setting described as a city that is comparatively young, is geographically large, and has a small population.

Metzger (1995) noted that although all police departments, regardless of size, share similar requirements, such as adhering to minimum hiring standards; having rules, regulations, and policies; and being obliged to perform various standard law enforcement duties, such as making arrests, performing investigations, collecting evidence and documentation, there are vast differences between the duties expected of the police leaders of larger agencies and those of smaller agencies. Metzger asserted:

Small-town administrators rarely enjoy the opportunity to function as pure administrators. We are expected to be “working” chiefs, meaning—in most cases—road patrol. With only one car likely to be in service at any given time, that means we are “it.” We handle the calls for service, work traffic and perform all the other patrol functions, often filling in for an officer who is sick, on vacation or in court. While this is not necessarily a disadvantage—indeed, it can provide a welcome change of pace—it does limit the time available to complete necessary administrative functions. (p. 50)

Following in the next section is a discussion of the skills and qualifications of police leaders.

### Skills and Qualifications of Police Leaders

Dantzker (2000) stated, “Perhaps a question we should think about here is whether the police chief’s qualifications are all that important? The answer is a resounding ‘yes’ ” (p. 18). The importance of these qualifications was discussed earlier and is expanded upon in this section. Dantzker (1996) acknowledged that even though the resources exist to provide training and education for police leaders, there has been no substantial documentation on the desired or needed characteristics, skills, or qualifications for these police leaders.

The IACP (1976) discussed the standards for police executives by stating, “Minimum standards for police chief executives should be set to ensure the selection of qualified police chief executives, thereby establishing the basis for a successful police enterprise” (p. 28). It could be assumed that police leaders would need a minimum set of qualifications, similar to the requirements that police officers must have, but the IACP reported that this is not the case:

Although entry-level standards for police have been established by most States, minimum qualifications for police chief executives virtually have been ignored. In many states, an individual who does not meet the minimum qualifications for an

entry-level officer can, nevertheless, be selected to head the police agency. Minimum qualifications for police chief executives, should not only be established, but should be considerably higher than those for entrance level officers. (p. 28)

The majority of the nonelected police leaders and the sheriffs who were the respondents believed that minimum qualifications should be in place for police leaders (IACP, 1976). The study indicated that 96% of the nonelected police leader respondents and 95% of the sheriff respondents supported this position.

Another strong indicator of support for minimum standards for police leaders was apparent from the data concerning the police leader respondents and their superiors. These data showed that more than 90% of both types of respondents believed that police agencies with 15 or more personnel should have minimum standards (IACP, 1976). The IACP concluded that the majority of police leader respondents and their superiors “consistently supported experience, training, and education” for selecting police leaders (p. 29). The IACP also reported, “Every appointing authority should consider only those candidates who possess these qualities: personal integrity, honesty, leadership ability, good judgment, and commonsense” (p. 19). The IACP went on to state that these appointing authorities should consider additional qualities such as “flexibility and open mindedness, alertness and intelligence, patience and self-control, energy and initiative, and courage and self-confidence” (p. 19).

The qualifications for the position of police leader that can be evaluated based upon past performance should include the candidate’s “demonstrated ability to provide effective leadership, to perceive and define problems, and to obtain desired results through his management efforts” (IACP, 1976, p. 19). The IACP also defined the criteria



that should be used by appointing authorities in evaluating the qualifications for the position of police leader, asserting that “criteria to evaluate past performance include the candidate’s demonstrated ability to: motivate personnel; develop subordinates into effective teams; relate to the community; organize personnel and their functions effectively; administer internal discipline; and establish and communicate objectives and priorities” (p. 19).

Police leaders can increase their qualifications by attending well-known, nationally recognized, and prestigious training programs such as the FBI Academy. The police officers who are fortunate enough to attend this premier training opportunity are selected from a list and are considered outstanding officers (Dantzker, 1997). Dantzker discussed the FBI Academy training that is available to present and potential police executives:

Each year, the FBI invites a select group of local and state police officers to attend its academy. Participants are chosen from a pool of candidates submitted by police executives across the country. This pool often represents those identified by executives as outstanding officers. Being selected to and completing the academy is highly regarded by fellow officers as well as community leaders. For example, it is usual to see advertisements for police chiefs that require graduation from the FBI academy of the potential applicant. The status of this accomplishment is a result of the aura that has surrounded the FBI since its achievement of professional status many years ago when a college degree became a requirement and training became standardized. (p. 141)

Krimmel and Lindenmuth (2001) focused on the performance and leadership styles of police leaders, and they also discussed the education level of police leaders. The data analysis indicated that the police leaders who were educated were evaluated by their superiors as being better performers and leaders than chiefs who were less educated. Qualities other than education included being chosen from within the department for the

chief's position and having been employed by a unionized department. Krimmel and Lindenmuth asserted, "Those police chiefs with poor ratings were identified as those without college credit. Education was the only significant predictor of police chiefs being rated as sad or poor" (p. 481). Thibault et al. (2004) commented, "Today, the criteria for police executive selection in progressive departments is [*sic*] like selecting a business executive. Community search committees look for candidates who have a combination of education, training, and field experience" (p. 85).

In addition to the FBI Training Academy and the IACP (1976), management courses are offered at police academies within the largest police agencies. However, a void remains in providing all police leaders with consistent leadership training (Thibault et al., 2004). In the study by the IACP, 58% of the police leader respondents and 65% of their superiors who completed the surveys answered that "they believed training institutes, seminars, and law enforcement academy training could substitute for some formal education" (p. 35).

Dantzker (1996) conducted exploratory research on identifying the requested qualification criteria for the position of police leader. Dantzker utilized a three-phase methodology. Phase 1 examined the advertised postings for the content analysis for police leader positions. "The second phase included a survey of a purposive sample of police chiefs and the analyses of the data collected" (Dantzker, 1996, p. 5). Phase 3 included a questionnaire that was mailed to randomly selected police leaders. The questionnaire contained three sections: demographics of the agency, personal demographics of each police leader respondent, and police leader qualifications. The

agency demographics focused on the size of the police agency in terms of sworn and nonsworn personnel, population of the area served by the police agency, budget information, education required for recruits, and educational requirements for promotion.

The personal demographics included the number of years of law enforcement experience that each police leader had, the number of years that the police leader had served with the current police agency, whether the police leader was hired internally by the police agency or from another agency, and other questions related to this area. The rank attained prior to becoming a police leader also was examined, as was the number of years of police management experience before becoming a police leader. General demographics data that were collected included age, gender, ethnicity, and education (Dantzker, 1996).

The part of the questionnaire dealing with the qualifications for the position of police leader was developed by Dantzker (1996). The section requested the respondents to rank 12 skills from 1 (*most important*) to 12 (*least important*). The respondents also were asked to rank order from 1 to 10 the requirements listed in a series of advertisements (Dantzker, 1994a, as cited in Dantzker, 1996). “Besides the two ranking sections, respondents were provided an open-ended question about qualifications for potential police chiefs and whether a police chief should be hired from inside or outside the department and why” (Dantzker, 1996, p. 5).

Dantzker (1996) discussed the validity of the questionnaire, which included face validity reported to be based upon his own experience, by reviewing the literature,

analyzing advertisements for police leader positions, and having the questionnaire reviewed by a police leader. Dantzker reported that the questionnaire measured what it was intended to measure and was thus accepted as reliable. The research included 122 police leader respondents randomly selected from a 1993 directory of all municipal police leaders. The sample had increased from the researcher's initially chosen sample of 100 based upon the decision to include a minimum of 1 police leader from every state. A response rate of 68 police leaders represented 56% of the total questionnaires that had been mailed.

The results (Dantzker, 1996) showed that the police agencies represented in the study ranged between 4 and 297 police officers. They were categorized as under 50, 51 to 75, and over 76. The majority of the respondents (66%) were within the under-50 category. Nonsworn personnel, the number of whom ranged from 1 to 86, were separated into the categories of under 10, 11 to 20, and over 21. The results also indicated that 37 of the total, which represented 54% of the police leaders who responded, had fewer than 10 nonsworn employees in their agencies. The jurisdictions of the agencies were separated into four categories; 21 of them (31%), served populations of less than 10,000 people. The budgets were separated into four categories, which showed that 32 agencies (47%) had a budget between \$1 million and \$5 million. Dantzker discussed the educational requirements for the police agencies within the study, which showed that a recruit needed an average of 78% to join the police agency. Forty-nine (72%) of the respondents reported no mandatory educational requirement for promotion.

A study of police leaders that compared internal versus external police leader candidates showed that 93% of externally chosen chiefs possessed an education ranging from a 2-year college degree to a graduate degree, as compared to 83% of chiefs chosen from within the agency (Penegor & Peak, 1992). A total of 15% of internally selected chiefs and 6% of external candidates chosen as chiefs possessed at least a high school degree and even some college education. Two percent of the internal chiefs and 1% of the external chiefs had no additional formal education beyond high school (Penegor & Peak, 1992).

Enter's (1986) research focused on the education of police leaders. Using a sample of 117 respondents from a targeted group of 172, he found that the difference in the level of education of outsiders as compared to that of insiders was significant. The results showed that 96.4% of the outsider police leaders achieved a 4-year college degree but only 63.3% of the insider chiefs had this level of education. The study further showed that all of the other typologies had higher levels of college education than the insider police leaders. Of the 79 insider chiefs, 24 did not possess a bachelor's degree. It was clear from the results that the external candidates for the position of police leader were more educated. These results were consistent with Penegor and Peak's (1992) finding that 93% of outside chiefs possessed a 2-year college degree right up to a graduate degree, compared to 83% of chiefs chosen from within the agency who had this same level of education.

The IACP (1976) study of police leaders and their superiors revealed that education was one area that yielded some important findings. The results of the survey

administered to the police leaders and their superiors showed that the superiors regarded a formal college education as more important than their police leaders did. The IACP stated:

The data indicate that a higher percentage of both police chief executives and their superiors in agencies with 75 or more personnel than of heads of smaller agencies give greater support for a 4-year college degree as a minimum educational requirement. The associate degree has greater support from respondents in jurisdictions with fewer than 75 personnel than does a bachelor's degree. (p. 33)

The results from the IACP study also showed that the small police agencies in the sample strongly supported a minimum education requirement for their chiefs and sheriffs. The study showed that 95% of the police leaders and 87% of their superiors in police agencies with fewer than 15 employees felt that education is either an important factor or a very important factor in the selection of the police leader; 94% of the nonelected superiors of small police agencies believed that education is important or very important in the selection of the police leader.

Baker (2000) reported on the importance of vision derived from analytical skills. He commented, "Vision originates from the department's environment, culture and rural community. The past is important, but analysis of the future is essential. Vision, which evolves from community expectations, starts with the chief executive and is modified through feedback from officers" (p. 99). Kelly (1975) described three general types of qualifications for police leaders: (a) formal prerequisites that pertain to criteria such as experience, minimal rank attained, and civil service or local government rules concerning inside status; (b) informal concerns of the selecting body; and (c) formal standards established by law and advertised standards.

Kelly (1975) explained how traditional forms of job standards, such as those commonly observed in advertised postings for police leader positions, are basic indicators of minimally acceptable standards pertaining to experience and the ability of the people applying for the position. These areas include such criteria as minimum age, applicant's rank, span of control, amount of time in a command position, and total amount of time in policing. Kelly noted that these minimally established criteria can exclude applicants who do not possess the desired experience and qualifications. Kelly recommended that the criteria should be used as general expectations, but should not be so rigidly adhered to such that others who may be excellent candidates are excluded from consideration.

Kelly (1982) explored education and experience within the context of recruiting police leaders. Kelly took a strong position about police leaders being adequately educated. He stated:

Emphasis placed on professionalism and education in the past has provided many officers and supervisors with the incentive to obtain bachelor's and master's degrees. The leader of these officers must be at least as well educated. The chief, therefore, should have no less than a master's degree in a job-related field. This requirement would effectively demonstrate to the officers the commitment that the city administration has taken toward the professionalization of the police department. (p. 42)

Kelly believed that experience is essential for police leaders to perform their duties effectively. Police leaders are expected to prepare budgets, provide a direction for the department, and possess solid supervisory skills that will enable them to make sound decisions in managing personnel (Kelly, 1982). Kelly posited that it is important to consider the applicant's ability to demonstrate training and experience as an administrator, not solely as an investigator.

## Meaningful Experience for Police Leaders

Meaningful experience for police leaders is simply more than serving in law enforcement for a number of years. It also is more than having operational experience in nonleadership tasks or assignments. Thibault et al. (2004) noted that “management skills are developed through the exercise of management and administrative experience. They may seem obvious, but many departments operate when choosing their leaders as if this fact did not exist” (p. 82). The IACP (1976) recognized the need and importance of evaluating the experience of candidates for the position of police leader:

Every appointing authority should evaluate a police chief executive candidate’s potential for future performance. This evaluation should include, but not be limited to, an assessment of field and command experience within law enforcement, education, law enforcement and management training, and professional reputation. The appointing authority also should consider the candidate’s personality, personal appearance, and physical fitness. (p. 19)

Law enforcement experience was a specific type of minimum qualification that 65% of police leaders and 64% of their superiors believed should be necessary for those who want to become police leaders (IACP, 1976). Interviews conducted as part of the IACP study specifically showed that more important than general law enforcement experience was management and executive experience. The IACP reported:

Survey responses indicate that 84 percent of the superiors and 73 percent of the police chief executives believe that some supervisory or command experience within law enforcement should be a minimum standard for future police chief executives for their agencies. (p. 30)

Dantzker (1996) discussed the results of the personal demographics that were collected and analyzed during the exploratory study on the selection criteria for police leaders involving 122 randomly selected police leaders. The results showed that 41 (60%)



of the respondents reported less than 25 years of police experience, with the range of experience between 12 and 32 years. Thirty-six (53%) of the respondents reported less than 8 years of police management experience, which ranged between 0 and 24 years. Thirty-five (52%) of the respondents reported less than 6 years as police leaders, with a range between 1 and 21 years.

Enter (1986) conducted a study of 117 police leaders who responded from a total of 172 targeted participants that focused on the career patterns of the various chiefs of police from cities with population of 100,000 or more people. The study focused on the type of career that the chiefs had experienced, including whether they were chosen from the department where they were currently serving as the chief of police or whether they were chosen from another police department. The careers of these participants were further examined by Enter in the areas of amount and type of experience and level of education. Enter reported that of the 115 police leader respondents who reported on their experience, the average time for them to attain the position of police leader was 19.53 years. The career pattern typologies that were described by Enter were Ultimate Outsider A, Ultimate Outsider B, Multiagency Career Path, Insider, Outsider, and Ultimate Outsider C.

Enter (1986) described 2 (1.7%) of the respondents as the Ultimate Outsider A type, a chief who had joined either a state or local law enforcement agency as a supervisor from a federal or a military law enforcement career. These 2 individuals had served in federal law enforcement agencies. Two respondents were classified as the Ultimate Outsider B type. This category was for those who had joined a state or local law

enforcement agency as a supervisor from other than a police but criminal justice-related career. These 2 respondents had worked within the legal field. Six respondents (5.5%) were classified as Multiagency Career Path chiefs, which meant that they possessed police and nonpolice experience. The majority of the respondents (79 [67.5%]) had stayed within one police agency and had risen to the top job within that same agency, which Enter said followed “the traditional career route of promotion through the organizational hierarchy to the position of chief of police” (p. 338).

Enter (1986) reported that 29 (23.9%) of the respondents were classified as the Outsider type, which meant that they had had careers with two or more state or local agencies and had had careers similar to those in the Insider classification, with the exception of having left the original agency in a supervisory position and joining another agency through the lateral entry selection method. Most of these respondents had worked for large agencies prior to becoming chiefs of police in smaller agencies. Enter made some important observations based upon the findings. Three of the 115 respondents who answered questions about their experience and were ranked as Ultimate Outsiders who had no prior police experience, and 1 chief was classified as an Insider having 41 years of experience prior to becoming a police leader. Enter noted that “the ‘ultimate outsiders’ had the shortest route to the top in law enforcement” (p. 339).

The experiences of the police leader respondents studied by Enter (1986) also focused on the type of experience as well as the total number of years of police or nonpolice service. Enter commented:

The type of experience and assignments observed in the career patterns were also found to be differently distributed. Type of experience was analyzed by overall

experience, supervisory experience, and by “exposure” staff assignments. The first two categories simply logged the amount of time during the respondent’s career spent in four different categories of assignments: field operations (uniformed); investigations; staff/administrative service (planning, training, recruitment, and so on). The third category, “exposure” staff assignments, involved those assignments which have high visibility or exposure in the police hierarchy: internal affairs, administrative assistant to the chief of police, training, and planning. (p. 339)

Enter found that the police leaders’ experience was significant within the uniformed patrol for the Insider and Outsider typologies. Enter also reported that once the field operations type of experience was accounted (i.e., controlled) for, differences in the career pattern typology emerged, which showed that the Insider typology chiefs had received most of their additional experience in investigations, whereas their Outsider counterparts had more experience in administrative and staff assignments. He stated, “This phenomenon was observed both in overall experience and in supervisory experience” (p. 339). Four assignments that Enter said “could be classified as staff or administrative in nature were more common for the outsider chiefs than the insider chiefs” (p. 340).

The results of Enter’s (1986) study showed that the respondents who remained with one police agency and rose to the position of police leader was the most common type of police leader selection. “The ‘insider’ may have longer career paths, lower educational levels, and less ‘exposure’ through important staff assignments, but this single agency career route has continued to be the primary route to the office of chief of police” (Enter, 1986, p. 345). Enter discovered that the Outsider type of police leader respondent was generally more educated than the Insider type, usually had more

administrative experience, and had the fortune of attaining the position of chief of police through a “shorter career route” (p. 345).

#### Issues Faced by Police Leaders of Smaller and Rural Agencies

Smaller and rural police agencies face challenges and issues when performing their duties that are different from those faced by urban and suburban police agencies. These can include obtaining and using computers and other types of newer technology that can assist in reducing crime rates, making arrests, and improving the safety of the officers, the public, and suspects (DoJ, 2004). Metzger (1995) asserted:

By nature, small agencies tend to be generalized rather than specialized. Since funds for training are typically somewhat limited, we are required to train on the “basics.” Most specialized training is not cost-effective for small agencies, since the occasions for its use are limited, and keeping up such specialized skills is difficult. It is also difficult to schedule training, as it can mean taking the whole department out of service. Obviously, then, we must concentrate on the basics. (p. 50)

The study conducted for the National Institute of Justice by researchers at Eastern Kentucky University’s Justice and Safety Center (as cited in DoJ, 2004) was significant because it was one of the first national research projects to focus on smaller and rural police agencies. It studied the agencies’ adoption of newer type technologies, the value that the police agencies put on this type of technology, and the level of competency of the officers using the technology. The researchers used a survey to collect data from small and rural law enforcement agencies that had fewer than 20 officers in communities with populations of fewer than 50,000 people. The DoJ study concluded that “small and rural agencies have to deal with the same issues of specialization, volume and nature of workload, training, local history and culture, and limited budgets as do large police

departments” (p. 2). This finding was significant because smaller agencies have fewer staff to perform the policing duties that are required.

Metzger (1995) identified some of the challenges for police leaders of smaller agencies, including officer interactions, work assignment flexibility, and limited opportunities for advancement. “Interaction among officers is also less common in a small department. With only one officer on duty at a time, the only opportunity for contact with other officers is at shift change” (Metzger, 1995, p. 50). He also reported that there is little to no flexibility for changing officers’ work assignments in small police agencies and that the officers focus mainly on providing patrol coverage while following up on initial calls that require more investigation.

The opportunity for police officers to advance from patrol officers to positions such as detective, sergeant, and lieutenant may not exist in smaller agencies, which can discourage police officers from remaining with those agencies (Metzger, 1995). The IACP (1976) study concluded that smaller police agencies do not present the same opportunities as larger police agencies for personnel to gain management experience or assume command and supervisory opportunities. Metzger described the success of the Zeeland, Ohio, police department in creating positive change by adopting a modified work schedule for its officers, which included 12-hour shifts that facilitated easier scheduling because only two shifts per day had to be filled. The benefits, according to Metzger, included a noticeable increase in the morale of the officers, less sick time used by the officers, a substantial reduction in citizen complaints, better appearances for the officers and their police vehicles, and fewer internal departmental complaints.

Dorriety (2005) discussed how the computer technology CompStat, an acronym for Computer Crime Comparison Statistics, has been successfully used to reduce crime. CompStat, originally developed and used by the New York City Police Department, allows precinct commanders to analyze current crime data that are pertinent to their precincts and develop strategic crime-fighting plans using the necessary resources according to the CompStat data.

Dorriety (2005) reported that CompStat can be used effectively in a modified manner by smaller police agencies. He provided as an example the Tuscaloosa County Sheriff's Office and its use of this type of proactive policing strategy and technology to track personnel issues as well as crime data such as Computer-Aided Dispatch data concerning burglaries and thefts. Dorriety also explained how smaller agencies may modify their use of CompStat by conducting meetings less frequently than larger police agencies.

Dorriety (2005) reported several concerns that smaller police agencies must consider before they decide to implement CompStat. One such consideration is that smaller agencies often may not be as able as larger agencies to dedicate one staff member to maintaining CompStat. The smaller police agency in this case must consider other staffing strategies, such as having a collective departmental initiative. Dorriety believed that CompStat can benefit police leaders of smaller and larger police agencies and that it can clearly indicate whether the intended goals are being met or a change in strategy should be considered.

Weisheit, Falcone, and Wells (1994) discussed some of the special concerns and problems that affect rural policing, including the availability of limited funds, a situation that can impact several areas of police administration, especially in regard to maintaining adequate staffing levels and accessing statewide systems for records checks. Weisheit et al. pointed out that the small expenditure to set up the equipment may be beyond what the smaller police agency can absorb. Another concern for administrators is the inability of their officers to participate in some training opportunities or have access to equipment or services from external sources because of geographical restrictions that may make it difficult to have these services provided by outside agencies.

The leadership methods and techniques of police leaders of rural or smaller police agencies may need to be different from those used by police leaders of larger or urban police agencies (Baker, 2000).

Executives in rural agencies apply direct and even junior leadership techniques more often. They motivate by ensuring a positive command climate and fostering a sense of unity throughout the organization. Indirect leadership should be avoided in agencies with fewer than 25 officers. Police executives in rural areas often develop a human relations style of leadership that involves mentoring and coaching. (Baker, 2000, p. 98)

The correct approach for small agencies is to take a direct leadership approach. He noted that a more hands-on approach may be needed for these type of police agencies. This approach requires that the police leader assume a mentoring or coaching position, which often is more direct than in larger agencies. Baker's observations and comments highlighted the importance of police leadership in rural and smaller agencies, and they also addressed the type of leadership that may need to be adjusted accordingly. Baker's advice and observations were broader than the discussions of other researchers.

Other issues facing the police leaders of smaller and rural agencies concern the hiring of personnel. Slowik (2002) reported that 54% of the 14,000 law enforcement agencies in the United States are staffed by fewer than 20 sworn officers and that only 211 departments have 200 or more officers. Slowik argued that it is equally, if not more, important for smaller police agencies to ensure that the most qualified candidates are selected as police officers. One significant reason for making sure that qualified officers are hired is the potential for litigation that can result from allegations of negligent hiring practices. The leaders of these smaller agencies face several challenges to ensure that the most qualified candidates are hired, including limitations of staff, time worked by staff, and available funding to complete the necessary screening and background checks.

Another issue facing smaller police agencies is that many officers start their careers in policing in smaller police departments, which then must deal with vacancies when officers leave to join larger agencies. This outcome creates added expenditures in the recruitment, selection, and training of replacement officers. Slowik (2002) identified some of the issues and challenges facing the police leaders of smaller agencies. The points raised by Slowik expanded upon those presented by Baker (2000) and other researchers.

Addressing ethical issues and problem employees is the responsibility of police leaders of both smaller and larger agencies. Police leaders of larger agencies may have specialized units to assist in this area, such as internal affairs units or an office of professional standards (Green, 2002). These units can assist in identifying ethical problems and complaints to identify problem or potential problem employees. Police



leaders of smaller agencies may not specialized units available to them because they have fewer staff and other resources. The police leaders of smaller agencies may have to incorporate strategies within the organizational structure to prevent and address unethical behavior and problem employee behavior. The supervisory and disciplinary duties may then have to be handled by the police leader or a few supervisors (Green, 2002).

#### Gaps in the Literature

Several studies on policing and police leaders are dated, and only a limited number of them have focused on the position of police leader and the role, duties, qualifications, education, experience, training, and titles for the individuals serving in this position. Even less research has been conducted on part-time police leaders and police leaders of smaller police agencies. The DoJ (2004) determined that 90% of all law enforcement agencies in the United States have fewer than 50 sworn police officers. Dantzker (1996) also acknowledged the scant amount of research on the position of police leader and the qualifications required for the position. Dantzker conducted exploratory research on the desired selection criteria for police leaders and analyzed data from 122 randomly selected police leaders. He noted that “research offers little support. Therefore, it is evident that additional information about the position of police chief is needed” (p. 4).

Liederbach and Frank (2003) reported that the limited amount of literature on smaller police agencies has failed to differentiate among smaller police agencies. This finding supported the observations of other researchers that the majority of research in policing has focused on larger and urban police departments. Liederbach and Frank

conducted a study on the work and interactions of police officers from small-town and rural police agencies. Five agencies from Clermont County, Ohio, participated in the study, which identified differences in the frequency of certain types of work performed by officers from the various areas. This finding is important in supporting the need for additional research on smaller and rural police agencies.

Weisheit et al. (1994) recognized that the limited research on rural policing has prevented an accurate understanding of the type of policing and issues in policing facing the officers working in these rural settings. They stated:

Police practices vary from one area to another, and studying the varieties of police behavior can yield important insights into the role of law enforcement officers in a community. Most studies of variations in police behavior have been conducted in urban settings. Neglecting rural policing and rural crime might be justifiable if there is nothing about policing, crime, or the community in rural environments that precludes directly applying knowledge from urban areas. It is evident, however, that rural environments are distinct from urban environments in ways that affect policing, crime, and public policy. (p. 1)

Wells and Weisheit (2004) also commented on the limitations of research concerning crime in the rural setting:

Given the absence of well-documented knowledge about structural correlates of rural crime and noted possibility that crime and urban areas may be influenced by different factors, or influenced differently by the same factors, this study utilizes county-level data from across the U.S. to analyze the dimensions of the social context within which rural crime occurs. (p. 2)

This statement is significant in that the limited research on rural crime has contributed to a lack of understanding of the duties associated with urban crime for part-time police leaders of smaller agencies.

## Summary

Most of the studies on the position of police leader have focused on larger agencies and have failed to explore the experiences with local communities, demographics, challenges, hiring typologies, and description of the organizational structures for part-time police leaders of smaller agencies. The majority of the studies used a survey methodology, which did not facilitate the development of additional information through other data collection methods such as in-person interviews. There has been a paucity of research on part-time police leaders in southeastern counties in a U.S. northeastern state.

The study focused on part-time police leaders. It addressed the gap in the literature and added to the existing research, which has focused mainly on full-time police leaders in mid- to large-sized police agencies. The research was conducted in a geographic area that has not been the setting in previous studies. The research will contribute to the existing literature on police leaders by providing an exploration and analysis of their experiences, demographics, hiring typologies, organizational structures that they work in, for part-time police leaders.

It is important to explore the community policing of part-time police leaders, their experiences, and the challenges and the issues facing them in the performance of their duty to make communities safe. This research may enhance public safety in the communities that have part-time police leaders by examining areas that have been identified for research and making that information available to facilitate positive social change. This study may address the gap in the literature by conducting qualitative

exploratory research in the form of a multiple case study. In-depth interviews were conducted with the part-time leaders of selected police agencies in the southeastern area counties within a northeastern state. Chapter 3 describes the methodology of the study.

## CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHOD

### Introduction

This chapter discusses the research design and methodology. The participant selection, sampling, and data collection procedures; data analysis and interpretation; and ethical protection of the participants are explained.

### Research Design

In comparing the value of qualitative research versus quantitative research, Leedy and Ormrod (2005) stated, “Qualitative research is typically used to answer questions about the complex nature of phenomena, often with the purpose of describing and understanding the phenomena from the participants’ point of view” (p. 94). Nastasi (in press) stated that qualitative or “naturalistic inquiry is conducted within a natural setting with heavy reliance on the researcher (human) as the instrument of inquiry” (p. 14). Greene (2007) contended that “qualitative methods center around the perceptive acuity and rational capabilities of the inquirer, as the inquirer is the primary instrument of data generation, analysis, and interpretation” (p. 39).

Babbie (2004) reported that three of the most common forms of social research are exploratory, descriptive, and explanative. Exploratory research, which was used in this study, provides insight into topics of investigation about which little is known. This exploratory study will enhance current understanding of the experiences of part-time rural police leaders whose experiences are poorly understood when compared to those of urban police leaders because of the lack of a rural and part-time community policing model.

This exploratory study used a multiple case study design. The case study approach can generate information from different sources (Hamel, Dufour, & Fortin, 1993). Yin (1984) stated that “as a research endeavor, the case study contributes uniquely to our knowledge of individual, organizational, social, and political phenomena” (p. 14). In the current study, the individual police leader was defined as the case. Although there are at least three definitions of case study, in this study, “the bounded system, or case, might be selected because it is an instance of some process, issue, or concern” (Merriam, 2009, p. 41) rather than Yin’s definition (1998) of a case as a research process or Stake’s (1995) approach, which defined a bounded system. The evidence obtained from multiple cases is regarded as stronger than the single-case study approach (Yin, 1998) because it contributes to a more thorough understanding of the nature and scope of the duties performed by rural police leaders. It also facilitates within- and across-case analysis.

Other forms of qualitative design were not as appropriate for exploring rural policing experiences based upon the available literature. Ethnography was not appropriate because it was not known to what extent rural police leaders belong to the same cultural group. This design may have provided information about professional police leaders, but it would have excluded the focus on the chiefs and their communities. In addition, this approach did not capture the relationship between the purpose of the study and the literature. Biography also was rejected because the focus was not on the participants’ life histories, but how they experienced and managed their jobs within specific communities.

Two competing qualitative designs considered were the exploration of the concept of community policing through a phenomenology design and a grounded theory design. A phenomenological approach of exploring lived experiences and constructing human consciousness would have provided a blend of the subjective and objective, but would not have allowed the imposed semistructured interview strategies to explore the context or ecology of rural community policing as well as case study. Grounded theory offered the possibility of generating an alternative model of community policing based upon the perspectives of the participating chiefs. This design also was rejected because the current model describes the practices of community involvement, but not different communities. The decision was made to explore the community experiences of the part-time chiefs to be able to compare them to those in the literature (Creswell, 1998). Case study that identifies a “case” focuses on the individual’s experiences and permits an analysis of the interview data using open coding, followed then by axial coding.

The two research areas of interest were (a) the experiences of community policing by part-time rural police leaders, and (b) what aspects, if any, of the only known model of community policing will emerge to represent part-time police leaders. The research question and probing examined the participants’ experiences of community policing, including their relationship with community factions, executive decision making, allocation of resources, agency complexity, and community needs. The semistructured, in-depth interview sought to identify the experiences of part-time rural police leaders by asking questions and by probing for categories and themes derived from the literature.

### Sampling Strategy, Participant Selection, and Ethical Considerations

Part-time police leaders within southeastern area counties in a northeastern U.S. state were invited to participate (see Appendix B). Inclusion criteria required that the part-time police leaders served within the same general geographical area and worked less than 40 hours per week in towns or villages with a population of 25,000 or fewer people. The New York State Division of Criminal Justice Services (1999, 2009) identified police agencies by size and number of part-time and full-time sworn and nonsworn police personnel.

Approximately 12 police agencies met the inclusion criteria. As already mentioned, an initial letter of invitation was sent to the 12 police leaders, followed by initial telephone contact to solicit volunteers, answer any questions, address concerns, and schedule the interviews (see Appendix C). Attempts were made over the course of several weeks to obtain commitments from 12 participants to be interviewed. One letter of invitation was returned by the post office because it could not be forwarded. Another letter was addressed to a leader who had been replaced by an officer in charge, who also did not respond. Several phone calls were made by the researcher over 2 weeks to this leader, who declined to participate.

The leader of one police agency was one of three officers in charge of that police agency and subsequently did not meet the selection inclusion criteria. Another leader received a letter and several phone calls, but he did not respond to either. Another leader, who asked to be contacted in 2 weeks to schedule an interview, failed to do so. One leader did not respond to the letter of invitation or the follow-up phone calls. These



leaders were dropped from the study. The remaining participants received the consent form (see Appendix D) and a short demographic survey (see Appendix E)

Although an attempt was made to interview 12 participants, a minimum of 8 was deemed acceptable. Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007) noted that determining sample size in qualitative research is not well developed, with many researchers believing that with no random sampling, size does not matter. A tension between producing rich, thick descriptions and data or theoretical saturation is important. Large samples make rich, thick description difficult, thereby compromising one element of credible replication of studies. If the sample is too small, data saturation is difficult. Creswell (1998) recommended a minimum of three or four to establish depth in a case study with no intention of cross-case comparison. Onwuegbuzie and Collins, however, offered a potential nested sampling strategy with large enough samples to conduct cross-case analysis introducing demographic variables such as size of community, which was of interest in this study.

The minimum sample size was not achieved initially, so the geographical area of the study was expanded. Additional letters of invitation were sent to other leaders who met the inclusion criteria, which resulted in 8 police leaders agreeing to participate in the study. The part-time rural police leaders and leaders were purposively sampled from the smaller counties. The minimum of 8 participants still permitted an effective cross-case analysis without losing the uniqueness of within case analysis. This nonrandom sampling process was necessary to ensure that the sample criteria for this study were achieved. Thus, the sample for this study was intentional, or purposeful; criterion based; and

context specific. The multiple-case study sought variation within this specific group of rural part-time police officers.

The 8 police leaders who participated in this study were contacted by the researcher by telephone after being sent the letter of invitation to confirm their willingness to participate. The police leaders who agreed to participate were advised that they would be mailed a consent form to complete. The interviews were conducted between August 5, 2009, and October 16, 2009.

#### Data Collection

Upon receiving approval from Walden University's Institutional Review Board (approval # 06-30-09-0305527), the researcher chose the participants and scheduled the in-person interviews. The interviews were conducted between August 5, 2009, and October 16, 2009. The participants were interviewed at their respective workplaces, and the interviews were audio taped to ensure the accuracy of the data. A field book of notes was kept by the researcher for each interview. The participants were asked several open-ended questions during the semistructured, in-depth interviews, with probing questions to gather more detail about those experiences. The interviews ranged from 42 minutes to 2 hours and 20 minutes. Seven of the eight interviews lasted 1 hour or more.

#### Data Analysis and Interpretation

Data preparation consisted of transcribing the taped interviews and reviewing the transcriptions to verify accuracy. The transcriptions had sufficient margins for note taking and preliminary coding. No qualitative computer software was used. The researcher explored the data by reading the transcripts, taking notes, and writing preliminary memos

to obtain a general understanding of the data. Memo making is the first step in developing a qualitative codebook, which is elaborated upon in the section describing the content analysis.

The researcher used open coding initially to organize the data. After the data were coded, they were assigned labels and grouped into themes or categories. This process is iterative and involves the open-coding patterns, axial coding for increased structure, themes created by the researcher, and the use of concepts from the literature. The content analysis proceeded from the bottom up, resulting in broader themes. The themes were then analyzed case by case using a cross-case comparison. The researcher used caution when interpreting the data and when making comparisons to ensure that the interpretations were directly related to the issues being examined. This advice was provided by Binder and Geis (1983) to guard against misinterpretation. Discussion presents the evidence for the themes and/or categories emerging from the data (Creswell & Clark, 2007).

#### Evidence of Quality

Creswell (2003) stressed the importance of validating the findings to ensure that the study is accurate and credible. In addition to strengthening the research, validity also serves to “determine whether the findings are accurate from the standpoint of the researcher, the participant, or the readers of an account” (Creswell & Miller, 2000, as cited in Creswell, 2003, pp. 195-196). Creswell recommended that one or more of eight strategies be used to verify the accuracy of the findings. He described these eight primary strategies as triangulation; member checking; use of rich, thick description; clarification

of the bias that the researcher brings to the study; presentation of negative and discrepant information; prolonged time in the field; and peer debriefing.

This researcher used several strategies to ensure the credibility of the analysis. Additional questions were asked during the interviews to clarify and expand upon points in an attempt to increase the accuracy of the meaning of the responses. The within-case data and the across-case data from the interviews were compared with the data to build a “coherent justification for themes” (Creswell, 2003, p. 196). The use of rich, thick description provides the reader with a detailed account of the setting to provide an elaborate picture of the shared experiences (Creswell, 2003). The use of rich, thick description and within- and between-case comparisons provided the evidence base for the themes and presented the data in a form that other researchers may be able to replicate. The field notes and transcript memos were used to clarify any possible and identified bias. The researcher ensured that all ethical concerns and standards relevant to the participants were considered and strictly adhered to.

### Summary

The central focus of the study was on the experiences of and challenges faced by police leaders in administering police agencies on a part-time basis, the personal and agency characteristics, and the perspective of the participants on the Self-Assessment Experience Checklist. The case study approach is essential in answering many questions about the position of part-time police leaders. Merriam (2009) stated, “Qualitative case studies share with other forms of qualitative research the search for meaning and understanding, the researcher as the primary instrument of data collection and analysis,

an inductive investigative strategy, and the end product being richly descriptive” (p. 39).

A purposive sample of 8 part-time police leaders from southeastern counties in a northeastern U.S. state were interviewed to generate information about their community policing experiences.

This study is significant in several ways. The information gathered may form the basis for additional research to understand the nature of rural policing and whether a more urban model of policing adequately describes this experience. The study may encourage similar studies in other geographic areas and on a larger scale. The collaboration among part-time police leaders, the elected and appointed community officials who appoint them, and the community residents who depend on them for public safety and protection at all times would benefit from more accurate information about useful policing models used in smaller communities. This collaboration implies increased community safety and crime prevention, knowledge of the models potentially tailored to smaller communities, and the distribution of resources allocated to community policing.

## CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

### Introduction

Included in this chapter are the results of this study in the following order: demographic profiles of the police leaders of this study and their police agencies in which they worked, duties of the leaders, role of the leader, and impact of the part-time status of the police leader to perform duties. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the experiences of the participants as part-time police leaders and the challenges and obstacles that they face.

### Demographic Profiles

The demographic profiles were obtained from a questionnaire sent to each participant prior to the interview. The interviews provided additional information about the participants and their police departments. The demographic information included number of years in police service, age of the participant, current title, number of months/years served as police leader of the agency, gender, number of sworn officers in the police agency, number of civilians in the department, population of the municipality, past positions served in, length of time served in the positions, and education levels and training. The names of major command schools attended was also included as was special education training. Lastly, the participants were asked if their department had a union.

All of the participants were White males. This was consistent with a study done by Stamper (1992), who examined the demographics of police leaders in larger cities and found most of the police leaders to be White and male. The number of years in police service for the participants ranged from 8.8 to 40, with an average of 21.41 years. This

compared to 26.6 average years of service that Stamper reported for his study in larger cities. The ages of the participants ranged from 36 to 62. Two of the participants were 51 years old, 1 was 62, 1 was 46, 2 were 44, 1 was 42, and 1 was 36. This compared to most of the participants in the literature search discussed previously to be in their early 50s (Stamper, 1992). Two of the participants held the title of officer in charge, 1 served as police commissioner, 4 held the title of chief of police, and 1 held the title of acting police chief. The length of time that the participants had served as the top leaders of their police agencies ranged from 3 months to 5 years. Five of the 8 participants had served as police leader for 2 years or less. The average of the sample was 1.80 years, as compared to 4.1 years described by Stamper.

Five of the 8 participants had been with the department in which they were currently leading. This included some of the participants who had begun brief careers in other departments or who had retired from large departments to join the police departments they currently lead. This was consistent with the results of a study by Enter (1986) showing that most police leaders in his study were selected while remaining with one police agency. Enter found that police leaders selected in this manner may be less educated and have longer career paths. The results of this study were consistent in regard to Enter's findings about education. Two of the 3 (66.66%) outsiders who became the police leader had a bachelor's degree or higher, whereas only one of the 5 (or 20%) insider leaders possessed a bachelor's degree.

The educational levels of the participants in the current study ranged from some college to a master's degree in public administration. In addition to these two levels, 2

participants had a bachelor's degree, 1 had an associate's degree, 1 had 3 years of college, 1 had 2 years of college, and 1 had 1 year of college. The participants had an average of 14.75 years of education, as compared to an average of 16.4 years found by Stamper (1992). No mandatory educational requirement to serve in leadership positions was reported by any of the participants. This was consistent with Dantzker's (1996) finding that 72% of the participants in that study also reported no educational requirement.

Only 1 participant (Donald) had attended any major command school, which was the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) National Academy. Special education included a police investigation course, FBI Law Enforcement Executive Development School (LEEDS), police instructor, police supervision school, investigation schools, Dare Officer School, corrections training, and other training. One participant noted that he had attended approximately 2,000 hours of advanced training. Six of the participants reported that their police departments had unions; 2 reported that they did not. The size of the departments ranged from 8 to 32 sworn officers, with 62.5% of the departments represented in this study having fewer than 20 sworn police officers. These demographics were consistent with Slowik's (2002) finding that 54% of the 14,000 law enforcement agencies within the United States have fewer than 20 officers. The remaining three departments had 20, 25, and 32 officers, respectively. Information about the participants, the police agencies, and the communities they serve is illustrated in Tables 1 to 4.



Table 1

*Participants' Personal and Educational Demographics*

Participant	Ethnicity	Gender	Age	Education
George	White	Male	51	BA emergency management
Donald	White	Male	44	BA criminal justice and sociology -attended FBI National Academy and FBI Law enforcement executive development school
William	White	Male	42	2 years college Also attended state-sponsored supervisor school
Steven	White	Male	36	1 yr post-high school
Ronald	White	Male	46	MPA Associate professor of criminal justice
Nathaniel	White	Male	62	Associate degree in criminal justice
Wayne	White	Male	44	3 yr of college, but no degree
Stewart	White	Male	51	Some college

Table 2

*Participants' Work Demographics*

Participant	Yrs. in policing	Title/Time in this capacity	Previous capacity	Other supervisors?
George	21 yr. 6 mo.	Acting police chief-7 mo	Investigator for 6 yr -15 yr as police officer	No
Donald	22	Appointed police commissioner-1 yr	County sheriff's deputy in same department	Yes
William	16	Appointed as police sergeant for 4 of 8 yr with dep't	Deputy sheriff in same county for 8 yr	No
Steven	12	Appointed as police sergeant for 2 yr	Sergeant for 4 yr in same dep't	Yes
Ronald	21	3 months as police chief	FT officer in town dep't for 20 years...retired as sergeant	Yes
Nathaniel	40	Officer in charge/police chief for 2.5 yr	14 yr with same dep't as officer, sergeant, investigator, and captain	Yes
Wayne	15	Appointed police chief for 1 yr 7 mo	23 yr with large urban dep't FT officer before becoming county corrections officer (still active capacity...22 yr)	Yes
Stewart	31	Police chief for 1.5 yr	FT police officer for 23 yr...served as volunteer police commissioner for 2 yr before becoming leader...also manages a bus company	No

Table 3

*Departmental Demographics*

Participant	Hrs of operation	No. of vehicles marked (M) unmarked (UM)	Other resources	Union
George	7 a.m.-3 a.m. 24/7	4 (M) 1 (UM)	11 officers and 1 civilian	No
Donald	24/7 Wed-Sat 6 a.m.-12 a.m. Sun-Tues	4 (M)	25 officers, no civilians	Yes
William	8 a.m.-12 a.m. 7 days/wk	4 (M)	14 officers, 1 civilian	Yes
Steven	Vary 12-14 hr/day, depending on need	2 (M)	8 officers, no civilians	No
Ronald	16-20, depending on day of the week and known scheduled events	3 (M)	13 officers, 1 civilian	Yes
Nathaniel	24/7	8 (M) 3 (UM) 3 bicycles 1 ATV 1 golf cart	32 officers, 1 civilian	Yes
Wayne	24 hr Sat & Sun 8 a.m.-12 a.m. M-F 1 officer on day shift	4 (M) 1 (UM)	20 officers, 3 civilians	Yes
Stewart	16-17 hr/day 7 days/wk 9 a.m.-1 a.m.	3 (M)	15 officers	No

Table 4

*Community Demographics*

Participant	Size of municipality	Population
George	20 sq miles	6,352
Donald	1 sq mile	2,500
William	2 sq miles	3,800
Steven	12 sq miles	1,500
Ronald	Small village	< 25,000
Nathaniel	2.8 sq miles	4,500
Wayne	35 sq miles	11,000
Stewart	Town	< 25,000

## Results

### *Evidence of Quality*

This researcher used several strategies to ensure the credibility of the analysis. The within-case data and the across-case data from the interviews were compared with the data to build a “coherent justification for themes” (Creswell, 2003, p. 196). As the interviews were conducted, various points were clarified, and questions were asked to confirm the accuracy of the participants’ statements and answers. A summary of each interview was reviewed by the participant and the researcher, and any changes were noted. The use of rich, thick description provides the reader with a detailed account of the setting and the shared experiences (Creswell, 2003). The use of rich, thick description and within- and between-case comparisons provided the evidence base for the themes and presented the data in a form that other researchers may be able to replicate. The field notes and transcript memos were used to clarify any possible and identified bias. The researcher ensured that all ethical concerns and standards relevant to the participants were considered and strictly adhered to.

### *Duties of Part-Time Police Leaders*

The participants were asked to discuss their duties and identify which duties consumed most of their time. Four of the participants mentioned payroll; 7 mentioned scheduling; and 3 discussed the hiring process, even though all of them made it clear that hiring was one of their duties. Reviewing paperwork/reports was stated by 6 of the participants. Five of the participants believed that this was a duty or one of the duties that required the majority of their time. This comment concurred with Mayo’s (1985) finding

that all 3 of the police leaders in his study noted that completing reports took up more than half of their working hours. Other responses included the budget, citizen interaction, payroll, review of policy and procedures, overseeing of maintenance of vehicles, review and forwarding of reports, organization and planning, negotiations between the municipality and the Police Benevolent Association (PBA), and scheduling of work.

Two participants reported performing patrol officer duties as part of their regular duties. Two other participants reported occasionally performing these duties. The duties described by the participants were consistent with the literature. Metzger (1995), who once served as a police leader in a smaller agency, reported that police leaders assume such duties such as updating rules and regulations and policies, hiring personnel, ordering equipment, and scheduling shifts. He also mentioned that police leaders from smaller agencies handle calls for service, function as patrol officers, and fill in for officers on sick leave. Metzger acknowledged that performing these duties takes time away from fulfilling administrative leadership duties. The literature review also identified a contrast in what the police leaders of larger agencies believe that their duties should focus on as compared to the participants in this study. Stamper (1992) remarked that the chiefs of larger cities do not think that they should be personally concerned with duties that focused on signing departmental correspondence, coordinating the work, and engaging in overall management.

The individual responses of the participants were as follows:

George stated that he performs “just about all of them [duties] right now.” George identified several duties that require the majority of his time. He reviews all of the

paperwork, including information that is sent to the courts, as well as accident reports.

Even though his position is supposed to be no more than 20 hour per week, it sometimes exceeds this amount of time. He does not perform patrol duties, although he expressed an interest and desire to ride with the officers. Interacting with citizens who want to discuss issues and complaints also requires his time.

Donald performs purely administrative duties. The majority of Donald's time is devoted to payroll, policy and procedure reviews, and attendance at board meetings twice per month. The remainder of his time is devoted to addressing "paperwork issues or correspondence with the state." William described his duties as administrative. He also attends monthly meetings, completes and submits village and town reports as well as uniform crime reports, and attends the local police leaders' organization.

Steven, in addition to performing administrative duties, assumes regular patrol duties on at least 10 shifts per month. He commented, "They don't really have the budget to have me in just an administrative role, so I usually do one to two shifts a week and then I'll take a few hours just to do administrative stuff." He often works more than 20 hours per week, but is not paid for the additional hours. The majority of his time is spent reviewing reports and forwarding them to the appropriate agencies. Ronald performs a wide variety of duties. He sometimes rides on patrol with the officers to familiarize himself with the personnel and the issues. He concentrates on leadership issues because they are linked to the direction of the department. Ronald also focuses on the mandated requirements by increasing the training for officers, which was "extremely remiss" before

he took over the department. He also noted that the record keeping for training was deficient but has since improved.

Nathaniel schedules officers to patrol, manages the budget, oversees training and investigations, and conducts department meetings. PBA negotiations consume most of his time, or approximately 20 hours a week. Wayne mainly performs administrative duties. He stated, “Analyzing, just basic administrative duties, reports, my monthly report, and analyzing any crime trends and reviewing all reports. Everything that’s generated, I review.”

Regarding his duties, Stewart commented, “Well, it’s basically the same as a full time chief, I do budgets, I check in here every day and I will occasionally fill a shift if an officer calls in sick which means I will ride patrol.” Scheduling requires the majority of his time. He stated, “Scheduling, it’s a nightmare, considering all part timers, it’s hard to fill the shifts because everybody has a full-time job, so this is their second fiddle.”

In answer to the question, “What do you believe your role to be as the top leader for your police agency?” the participants had the following responses:

George saw his role as commander of the budget, to lead the officers “on a good path to community policing, handling complaints the way they should be handled and treating everybody fairly and with respect.” Donald saw his role as leader, mentor, and trainer who provides direction and answers questions.

William stated:

I am everything from the cheerleader to a friend sometimes to a boss, a negotiator, a peace maker, everything under the sun. I could come up with a counselor, a disciplinarian, you know all the way up and down the ladder. If you can put it there, I’m there. Depending on sometimes I talk to officers about their personal

life, what's going on, how it affects their jobs here. As you know, officers seem to be in the state, at least this state, have a high divorce rate and no difference within a part time agency, so there's family issues with scheduling. When family issues come up, I'm here also trying to help them out with keeping the schedule covered the way it is. Getting coverage when they can't make it, whether it's a family emergency or what's going on. But everything from helping them out on their cases to advice on cases, to just about everything.

Steven saw his role as top leader "to avoid lawsuits, I guess it would be to keep the machine running smooth. Stay within budget."

Ronald stated:

Exactly with that statement, a leadership role quite frankly and kind of determining the direction of the department and what needs to be accomplished and the delegating down to my sergeant basically to get the job done, get it done effectively through officers. But again, I have to often times play an actual hands-on supervisory role as well in combination with him, but predominantly, I believe that you delegate that task to him.

Nathaniel saw his role as "keeping the department together" and showing leadership. Wayne saw his biggest role as leading by example and also effectively supervising the department, protecting the town from liability, and maintaining the safety of the officers. Stewart saw his role as encouraging his officers to challenge themselves and supporting the officers and department by trying to strengthen the staffing. He specifically discussed attempting to work with the elected officials to add a second full-time officer to strengthen the staffing levels.

The participants had the following responses to the question, "How is the community affected by your part-time status as the police leader?":

None of the participants believed that the community was affected or impacted in a negative way by the participant's part-time status as police leader. Some of the participants said that the current structure regarding their position was an improvement

over previous structures. For example, Ronald and Stewart had police leader positions that did not exist previously. The literature search did not locate any research in this area.

George stated, "There's no effect on them." He is easily accessible and receives e-mails; in addition, the town has a website. Donald said that the village has always had a part-time police agency so having the expectations of a full-time agency was not an issue. Many of the established residents did not usually desire additional police coverage unless there was increase criminal activity. The residents were satisfied with the service that he and the department provided. William did not believe that working in a part-time status negatively impacted the community. Because he lived in the community, he was as available as any full-time leader would be. The participant expressed the desire to have the time to perform more patrolling within the town, which would allow him to interact with the community in various ways.

Steven stated:

I don't think they are affected at all. I think a lot of the residents don't even realize that we're part time. They know they have a police department, they know they see the officers, but I think that's about all they know.

Ronald saw his current position as a major improvement over the previous structure. Nathaniel stated, "They actually love us," when referring to the community. He stated that the department's average response time to a call is 52 seconds. Wayne was "absolutely convinced" that the community has been affected in a very positive way. He stated that in past years, prior to his being appointed police leader, crimes were not solved. Officers would take a report but would not conduct a follow-up investigation for



criminal activity. Stewart was the first police leader that the municipality has ever had. He did not comment on any negative aspects of serving in a part-time capacity.

The participants who were not police leaders had the following responses to the question, “If you do not hold the title of police leader, how does the lack of having this title and position affect your ability to perform your duties as the top leader of the police department?” All of the participants who were not police leaders did not believe that not having the title made a difference in the performance of their duties. The literature review did not reveal any research that had been conducted in this area.

#### *Collective Bargaining*

Two of the 8 police agencies represented by the participants do not currently have unions or collective bargaining agreements between the sworn police officers and the municipalities. Three of the participants said that this was the first time that they had been involved in collective bargaining negotiations as leaders of their respective police agencies.

#### *Crime Control and Crime Prevention*

Five of the 8 participants said that drugs are an issue within their municipalities. , also said, “We seem to handle a lot of domestics, it seems to be one of our biggest calls, domestics.” None of the participants has a formal crime prevention program or has conducted a community survey. Steven reported that informational brochures were distributed during the Community Day. Three of the participants reported having a formal mutual aid agreement at the county level; 1 said that such an agreement was in the process of being finalized; and 1 reported not having an agreement, stating, “We go

wherever they ask us to go.” All of the participants reported that they would not handle serious types of crimes and would seek the assistance of other agencies, such as the county sheriff’s department or the state police. Three of the 8 participants reported receiving some type of terrorism equipment for their officers from their respective counties.

#### *Inherited Issues*

Steven and Stewart did not describe any inherited or unresolved predecessor issues. Steven praised the previous leader and said he got the police department headed in the right direction, which included having computers installed in the police vehicles about 2 years ago. Stewart identified the police department as a very small, good, little police department. George said there was nothing significant other than his department being closely scrutinized as the result of budget problems under the former police leader. Donald identified a lack of discipline as the largest issue that has since been corrected. He said that seven officers are no longer employed with the police agency. Other inherited issues included bookkeeping and paperwork issues, inadequate facilities, and a lack of training.

#### *Liability/Legal Issues*

Four of the participants very clearly expressed concerns about liability. Two participants reported being aware of any current litigation, and those particular cases involved their predecessors. Some of the participants have updated their policies and procedures; others realize the need to do so.

### *Maintenance and Safety*

Three of the participants reported handling the duties of the OSHA compliance officer. Three of the participants reported personally handling the duties of fleet vehicle management, and 1 of these reported that he and his sergeant collectively handle these duties. Three of the participants delegate this responsibility to a sergeant. Another participant is responsible for maintenance and safety and for maintaining the facility.

### *Media*

None of the participants described an official written media policy. Only 1 participant responded having no proactive relationship with the media. The comments from the participants varied. When inquiring about public information officer issues, none of the participants reported any issues. When asked about whether the media contact is more print versus electronic, 5 participants indicated that it is mostly print; 3 indicated that it is both print and electronic.

### *Personnel Issues*

Only 1 participant commented on accommodations mandated by the Americans With Disabilities Act, which included accommodations to the police agency building. He said that the police agency is in the process of relocating to a new facility that will be compliant. None of the participants expressed any ethics issues, but 2 did have comments relating to ethics.

Six of the participants reported that a union represents the officers and that benefits and wages are negotiated and upheld within a contractual agreement. Six of the participants did not report any significant family issues within their departments. In the

area of mentoring new officers, 4 of the participants reported that they have field training officers (FTOs) who train other officers.

Two of the participants had a common response when asked about optimizing the use of limited personnel. None of the 8 participants had any issues with marketing or competing for recruits. One clear theme for the overwhelming majority of the participants was that a large number of applicants apply to the agencies. None of the participants expressed any difficulty in having enough candidates readily available for hiring. George and Nathaniel did not have specific comments relating to discipline. The participants who discussed disciplinary duties consistently reported that they performed this function, which was consistent with what Green (2002) found with police leaders from smaller agencies.

### *Technology*

George and Wayne did not comment on technology, but Donald and Ronald identified the need for new automated fingerprinting equipment. Five of the participants reported that their police departments do not currently have their own websites. One of the 5 said the municipality has hired a company to develop a website and that the site will advertise available services, such as child safety seat installations. Another of these 5 said that he would like to have a website. Another of these 5 participants plans to personally complete this task. Another of the 5 in process of developing a website. One of the remaining participants said the village has a site but is unsure whether the police department is on it. Another reported having a website for about 6 months. Another said that the village has a website that includes the police department. It does not have a

dedicated website. Three participants did not make projections about future needs. The comments from the remaining 5 included the need for general training and crime scenes, including burglaries; a certified firearms instructor to train members within the department; a review of mandated requirements and the desirable goal of less lethal alternatives; an upgrade of the phone system; and equipment by saving for these purchases at the end of the year.

Dorriety (2005) discussed the ways in which smaller police agencies can benefit from technology that has been used on a wide scale basis by larger agencies. He provided the example of the CompStat computer program, which is used by large agencies such as the New York City Police Department to analyze crime patterns and develop strategic plans.

#### *Traffic Management*

None of the participants had specialized units that specifically focused on traffic enforcement. George, Steven, Nathaniel, and Wayne revealed that they conduct specialized patrols through grant funding in addition to their normal patrols. Four participants (George, Steven, Ronald, and Wayne) stated that because they have not received grant funding, they do not conduct dedicated STOP DWI patrols. None of the participants reported conducting crash investigation studies.

#### *Training/Staff Development*

Training opportunities for the agencies are limited in most cases. George reported that training is usually done externally because he does not have the staff to conduct it internally. Donald stated that he has significantly increased the funding for training.

William stated that firearms and Taser training is done externally. Steven attempts to complete training internally with his own certified instructors or through soliciting volunteers. Ronald is an active trainer and certified instructor himself and is able to provide training to members of his department as part of his salary. Nathaniel teaches at a neighboring county academy and is permitted to send officers to a number of training classes there at no cost. Wayne reported that firearms training and deadly physical force training is conducted annually and that some night twilight shooting also is done as part of their training. Stewart attempts to have three to four department meetings each year.

The literature review supported the theme discovered by the participants in this study concerning the limitations of providing training to the officers. Weisheit et al. (1994) found that training opportunities are limited for police officers serving in rural agencies because of financial constraints. This finding that smaller agencies are at a disadvantage in being able to obtain equipment to use technology was supported by the DOJ (2004).

#### *Model of Community Policing Practiced*

Each participant was asked whether their respective agencies practiced a particular model of community policing. No particular model was identified.

#### Community Policing and Model of Community Policing

The participants discussed a variety of topics when asked, “What are your experiences of community policing?” None of the participants reported having community policing officers dedicated solely to serving in this assignment. None of the participants had a formal policy or procedure for community policing. None of the

participants practiced a particular model of community policing. None of the participants reported providing any kind of community policing training at the department level. This finding was in contrast to what many local police departments practice. Although Hickman and Reaves (2001) focused on full-time police agencies in their study, they reported that

64% of local police departments serving 86% of all residents had full time officers engaged in community policing activities during 1999, compared to 34% of departments serving 62% of residents in 1997. In 1999, 87% of local police officers were employed by a department that provided community policing training for some or all recruits, and 85% by a department that provided it for at least some in-service officers. (p. 1)

Four of the participants in this study reported having experience working in a community policing type assignment in their previous employment as full-time police officers. Three of the 4 had worked for a city police department (2 in large agencies, and 1 for a small agency), and 1 had worked for a small-town police agency. One participant reported that he was familiar with community policing because the full-time police agency he had previously worked for had practiced community policing. The comments from the participants identified diverse perceptions of community policing.

The comments also indicated that the scheduling of training and budgetary constraints are obstacles in having officers attend the desired levels of training. George mentioned that officers are present for many community functions such as senior citizen luncheons. Having officers attend community functions is important to George. Donald reported having experience with community policing during his full-time law enforcement position. He spoke about the benefits of working the same beat each tour of duty, such as getting to know the people and having the opportunity to solve problems.

He stated that although he was assigned tasks and calls, he had the discretion to address issues independently with direction from superior(s). William described the village as “booming” and said that the officers spend a great deal of interaction with the community. He stated, “My idea of community is have the officers out there interacting with the public all of the time.” Ronald expressed his satisfaction meeting with various committees to address issues or work with children in the community, including interacting with the Cub Scouts and Girl Scouts.

William stated:

So my idea of the community policing is having the officers actually just working with them very closely in the community, and we know a lot of the people. It’s nice we have interaction, we know who the boyfriends and girlfriends and all the kids coming through school, we know the parents and it’s nice to be able to sit with them on a local level and sit down and have them come in the station and actually talk to us, whereas in the past you don’t get that with the State Police or another agency, the Sheriff’s Office where they don’t have that interaction with the community, so they’re not as comfortable to sit down and talk to them.

Steven mentioned that everyone knows him by name and that he is on a first-name basis with “every kid in the village.” He commented that he felt that he has their respect and fares well in community interactions. When asked about his expectations and philosophy of the police officers doing community policing, he stated:

I’m big on get out of the car, go in and introduce yourself to the businesses. Every year we do an emergency notification business book. We have the list and each officer will take a bunch of the businesses, talk to people, get the information, and stuff like that. I want the people to know who the officers are and not just that they’re officers, but what kind of officers they are. I have good officers, I really do. I’m lucky because they’re very friendly and outgoing but they do their job well. A couple of them are still pretty new at this, but they’re doing great. I really can’t complain.



Ronald agreed that community policing is “pretty much a philosophy” that he had followed for most of his career. He stated:

Instead of just trying to be reactive in providing police services, to really try to find the root causes of at the heart of the issue and solving root causes as opposed to just dealing with symptoms and again, like chasing your tail in circles.

Ronald considers every officer a community policing officer and expects each of them to meet with community members to identify problems or issues, determine the underlying causes, and reach common solutions that successfully address the issues.

Nathaniel stated that it is very important to have officers working for the department who share his commitment to the community. This was evident when he discussed the hiring process and conducting interviews. Stewart indicated that he performed community policing in his previous full-time position as a police officer position. When asked how community policing is done in his current position as the police chief, he provided many examples, including unlocking vehicles in which the vehicle operators locked their keys in and responding to calls from residents and medical emergencies. Other areas of interest in this study included the relationship of the police leaders with community factions, executive decision making, allocation of resources, agency complexity, community needs, hiring patterns of both the leader and sworn officers, challenges of the police leaders, and particular challenges and opportunities in policing small communities.

#### Partnerships/Relationships With the Community

The literature review identified studies on the importance of the partnerships and relationships between police department and the community’s residents, businesses,

organizations, schools, churches, hospitals, and civic associations. One such example was reported by Hickman and Reaves (2001), who noted that by 1999, 79% of local police agencies that served 96% of all residents met with community groups within the prior year and 40% of police agencies serving 71% of residents had actually formed problem-solving partnerships within the last 3 years. Information from COPS (2009) described community partnerships as one of the three key components of community policing. The relationship between the community and police was recognized as essential for successful community policing strategies by the Bureau of Justice Assistance (1994): “The foundations of a successful community policing strategy are the close, mutually beneficial ties between police and community members.... Effective community policing depends on optimizing positive contact between patrol officers and community members” (pp. 13-14)

The comments made by the participants did not result in a common theme of officially meeting with community groups on a regular basis, but a concern to work collectively with groups and residents in the community was evident. The literature search on studies of small police agencies was consistent in regard to the results of this study concerning the strong bond between police officers and the community. Falcone et al. (2002) identified community connectedness as a small-town police agency’s greatest asset. They also reported that larger police agencies did not share this same attribute due to their operational structure.

One common theme discussed by the participants was the partnership-relationship with schools. Of the 2 participants who did not comment directly on this area pertaining

to schools, one discussed the department's D.A.R.E. program, and the other discussed the active relationship of the sergeant in walking the hallways of the school and the desire of the school to have this sergeant serve as the school resource officer.

George reported that he attempts to attend Lyons club meetings, has attended a couple of chamber of commerce meetings, and tries to have an officer present for public meetings to show support and concern in attempts to increase the positive relationship between the community and police department. The participant said that a recent successful PBA fundraiser indicated to him that the public supports the police department, especially in a difficult economic climate.

Two of the participants report to a town supervisor (one of the town supervisors is also a police liaison); one reports to a town supervisor and two police commissioners; three report to a mayor; one reports to a liaison who is a board member; and one reports to the police committee, which is comprised of two village trustees and the mayor. Four of the participants described their relationship with the people to whom they report as very good. One of these 4 participants stated that he did not think that he and the mayor have ever disagreed on anything and that the mayor likes to take an active role. One participant said that their relationship is excellent, adding that he went to high school with the town supervisor. One participant responded, "They feel that I'm the professional and I know what I'm doing." Another participant stated, "I'd say it's a good relationship" and that the mayor is receptive to locating needed resources for the police department.

When the participants were asked about their relationship with elected officials, municipal administrators, and other public officials, 2 said it was good. One described it

as pretty good overall, 1 said it was great, 1 said that he must convince the board members why he needs to purchase something. One said the relationship is strained with some members. One described the relationship as very good with all. One stated that he works closely with the mayor. Four participants stated that they have used policies from other area police agencies in writing policies for their agencies. Lynch (1986) noted that the professional relationship between the police leader and municipal leaders was extremely important in developing trust and respect to have a successful police department.

### Executive Decision Making

All of the participants made some kinds of executive decisions. Some of these decisions were shared in conjunction with the mayor, town supervisor, or other officials within the village or town. Some of the leaders commented that some policies and procedures were created and approved by them, and others commented that the ultimate approval came from the mayor. Many of the decisions that were controlled by funding from the budget needed the approval of the elected officials. The participants commented on their experiences in leadership skills. The last area discussed in this section of executive decision making is management.

### *Leadership Skills*

The participants commented on their leadership skills. The participants who had previously served as supervisors with full-time police agencies had more experience in leadership skills than the participants who had remained with the same smaller agency that they are currently employed in. The IACP (1976) study showed that police leaders

from smaller agencies are at a disadvantage in obtaining these skills. Baker (2000) found that police executives in rural areas are more the hands-on type of leaders who prefer mentoring and coaching employees. The majority of the other participants shared positions that were similar to those of Baker.

### *Management*

Seven of the participants asserted that they would conduct any internal affairs investigations. One of these participants reported that a sergeant would also conduct these investigations. Another of these 7 participants said that he previously had a sergeant handle an investigation of this nature. One of the 7 said that he had experience in handling these investigations. Only 1 participant said that he would probably request another agency to conduct the investigation. This statement supported Green's (2002) assertion that larger agencies are more fortunate in having specialized units such as internal affairs units to assist in identifying, addressing or preventing ethical issues as well as identifying employees with issues.

Six of the 8 participants reported having an internal records system; 1 said that this function was done through the village clerk; and 1, Steven, did not respond to the question. Two of the 6 participants had implemented the system since becoming the top leaders of their respective police agencies. One of the 6 who reported having the system said that it was limited in its capabilities. Only 1 of the 8 participants reported that an internal survey had been conducted and also believed that monthly meetings were the basis for determining whether an internal survey should be done.

Several of the participants commented on learning about new initiatives. These comments included learning about these initiatives through police leader associations; electronic means such as faxes, e-mail, and flyers; reading material; and various organizations and literature. None of the participants reported having a formal method of measuring success.

In the area of setting priorities, none of the participants expressed any formal means to accomplish this goal. One commented that he did not know, stating instead that he enforces laws and keeps people safe. One participant said that setting priorities is accomplished through feedback from the community members. One participant said that setting priorities means starting something and finishing it.

No common themes emerged regarding strategic planning. One participant said that this planning is focused on yearly events, mainly community events. One said that he is unable to undertake any kind of long-term planning and that everything involves short-term planning.

#### *Allocation of Resources*

The allocation of resources was a challenge for all of the participants. The budgets for the police agencies that the participants represented range from approximately \$49,000 to \$600,000 per annum. All of the participants expressed some concern about the limitations of the funding for needed equipment because they affected the allocation of resources in various ways. A common theme was a new type of automated fingerprinting system that was an unfunded mandate by the state. Donald, Ronald, and Wayne expressed the desire to obtain this equipment, financial constraints precluded their being

able to purchase it. Weisheit et al. (1994) noted special concerns and limitations for rural police agencies that included limited funds. This issue was a common theme for the participants in this study. Budget constraints also affected purchasing necessary equipment, such as the automated and state-mandated fingerprinting equipment.

The within-case analysis showed common themes among some of the participants who were able to acquire needed equipment for their agencies through grants. Another common theme included the struggle for the leaders to acquire required equipment without adequate funding available in their budgets.

#### *Agency Complexity*

The lines of authority were all consistently simple in nature and consisted mainly of flat organizational structures. The simplest one had a chief and 11 police officers, but no other supervisors. One organization had a police commissioner, the next supervisor was considered an officer in charge, and four held the title of supervisor.

#### Community Needs

The importance of the position of the police leader as it relates to the community needs was supported by the literature review. Providing public safety for the community is of utmost importance, according to Fyfe et al. (1997). Wasserman (1982) noted that one of the most challenging roles for police administrators is to ensure a cohesive relationship among the leader, the agency, and the community. He also remarked on the important role of the leader in being proactive to avoid conflicts between the community and the police agency. Wasserman believed that the police leaders of smaller agencies

must remain neutral in political areas to establish their credibility with the community. They also must allow input from the community to understand their concerns.

Wells, Falcone, and Rabe-Hemp (2003) used three variables concerning various police agency procedures to determine the level of social and personal connection of the officers and their respective agencies to their communities. These variables included whether the officers are residents of the communities; whether the officers are assigned to permanent areas or beats to patrol; and whether the department participates in meetings on a continual basis, defined by the researchers as 6 or more each year. Community connectedness can involve many factors.

Several of the participants noted that it is important for the residents to know the officers. Several participants also mentioned that officers who reside within the area where they work have strong relationships with the residents and business owners and employees. The comments about their perceptions of the community needs varied greatly. A common theme was a strong visibility and presence. The results of the study by Wells et al. (2003) showed a correlation between the size of a police agency that usually has specialized policing units and a generalized community policing operational style of policing. The results of the current study indicated that there were no specialized community policing officers and that the officers practiced generalized community policing practices as structured by the leaders of those agencies. The agencies represented did not contain specialized units or divisions, with the exception of a small number having part time detectives within a detective division.



### Hiring Patterns of the Police Leaders

The police leaders were asked to describe the selection process and the reasons they were chosen for the top leadership position. For the overwhelming majority of the participants, the selection process was informal. In fact, 4 of the 8 participants were not interviewed when asked to assume the top leadership position. Kelly (1975) described three general types of qualifications: formal prerequisites, informal concerns of the hiring authority, and formal standards. The participants in this study fit within the informal process. George reported that the position is an appointed one made by the police commission. He reported that the former police leader was asked to leave and when he would not do so, he was basically told to leave. Donald said that the selection process was “pretty informal.” William said that the current officer in charge at the time prior to his being selected was not able to fulfill the duties because of the requirements of his full-time job.

Ronald reported that the selection process involved an interview with the mayor initially and then with all four of the village trustees. The participant was a community member but had not been a police officer with the department prior to being selected as the police leader. He believed that he had been selected for the top leadership position because of his experience as a police officer, police supervisor, and a trainer, along with his educational background. Nathaniel reported that he had worked his way up from a foot officer who directed traffic at the school to a detective with the narcotics department. When asked the reasons for his being selected for the top leadership position, he stated that he believed that he was chosen because he is a good leader.

Wayne, when asked what the selection process was for his current position, responded that another officer who had 3 years of part-time experience within the department had been appointed originally to lead the department. The participant said that the civil service became involved in the process and required that applicants for the police leader position have at least 5 years of full-time police experience. The participant also said that he had been selected and appointed by the town board, comprised of council members who served as police commissioners, and the town supervisor.

Wayne was approached by town officials about being appointed part-time police leader. The participant was serving in a volunteer position with the town as a police commissioner when he was appointed police leader. Donald believed that he had been selected because the town officials wanted to move the department to a higher standard, including the use of computers, automatic weapons and training, and “less of a liability issue for them and place it on me of course.”

Most of the participants reported that they do background checks of applicants, but none of them reported conducting testing, except for Ronald, who reported that applicants are asked questions and graded on their answers. Only Wayne reported that an extensive background check is completed. None of the participants conducted either psychological or polygraph testing, and no written examinations were conducted, other than for the very few full-time officers. Most of the departments did conduct interviews with the applicants.

Slowik (2002) not only discussed the importance of selecting qualified candidates for reasons such as avoiding negligent hiring litigation, but also some of the reasons for

inadequate hiring practices, including staffing, funding, and time limitations. These factors also could have been applicable to this study. Five of the participants reported having no retention issues. Slowik discussed the increased costs for departments to hire and train replacement officers as the result of officers leaving smaller departments to take jobs with larger departments.

#### Administrative Challenges of Part-Time Policing

The participants expressed various experiences of being a part-time police leader. The challenges of scheduling part-time officers was a concern expressed by George and Donald. George, William, and Steven have no other supervisors within their department and handle many issues and questions from officers, even when they are off duty. Two of the participants commented that they are in the process of updating their policies. Both of these participants had full-time police supervisor experience and were new to their positions. The comments from the participants varied and showed a wide variety of experiences and positions on the priorities of the participants.

Each participant was asked, "Thinking about working as a part-time police leader (or their current title), what is that like for you?" The responses were as follows:

George finds it challenging being in a small department, but because the employees are easy to get along, they also are very easy to manage. Scheduling presents challenges. Stewart has been with this current police department his whole career, so he is familiar with the operations and expectations of the town. He stated, "I may not always agree with their theories but you have to respect that being a small department in town

you really have to watch everything that you do.” The participant noted that the budget and community expectations are concerns. He stated:

That part is just keeping everybody on the right path is probably the hardest part. What you want to see, what they want to see, and one of their biggest things is community policing, the town is really into that.

The department lost 33% of the full-time force from last year. It currently has two full time officers.

Donald said that in the 9 months that he has been the police commissioner, it has been a totally different type of policing than he was used to. The participant stated that many of the issues that apply to part-time policing and police leadership “a lot of times are easier to deal with and sometimes more difficult.” For example, overtime and time off are not issues, but scheduling problems are. Donald is attempting to slowly update the policy and procedure manual and improve in-service training for the officers. He also noted that “honestly with a part time agency, I still think they need some type of full time administration to make everything work properly.” He mentioned the many mandates at the state and federal levels “fall through the cracks just because people just don’t have the time to do it.” No civilian staff are available to assist in completing these tasks.

William finds the administrative duties very challenging because he is the only one within the police department who has the authority to approve purchases and must sign all of the purchasing orders, a task that takes a lot of his time.

Steven likes being in charge. He stated, “I’m fine to sit back and watch everybody do things. I still go out on patrol, I still do the same job they all do I just have much more paperwork and responsibility, but I’m ok with that.” Ronald had not planned to continue

in policing after he retired as a full-time police sergeant, but he felt that he had to because he has a major stake in the community that he lives in. The participant said he realized that there would be several challenges because the municipality did not have a police leader in the past and the officers who had been in charge lacked experience. He stated:

It's taken a long time to try to get up to speed just to catch up to the past, let alone deal with the everyday issues that are coming in. We're pretty much near where we need to be now.

Nathaniel answered by first stating,

Well, I don't believe it's part time. I demand to know everything that goes on in the department. The cat in the tree to this sort of thing or any sort of problems that we have so my phone is constantly ringing

Nathaniel is supposed to work approximately 86 hours a month but probably works triple that number of hours. Regardless, he is paid for only 86 hours a month. The participant summed up some of his responsibilities by saying, "There's a lot of paperwork, there's a lot of checking on things and training that needs to be done." Nathaniel said he had an open door policy with the officers for both departmental and personal issues and felt that he had a good rapport with them. He commented:

I'm woke up out of a sleep, and I would call them and say how about this, how about that. I think I'm the type of supervisor that ah allows them to ah think and ah suggest and the bottom line of course, I'm responsible for them. But, ah, I have a good rapport with my officers because of that.

Wayne believed that working as a part-time police leader is an opportunity to serve the community in a different way than he was able to as a full-time corrections supervisor. He remarked:

Basically, you're dealing with an element of people although they are um incarcerated and you know, it's similar in management but you're dealing with a different element. It's a little more rewarding job being a police leader and

accomplishing goals such as preventing certain crimes or the apprehension of people that are out there um committing crimes against the public and ah, I get to see both sides of the fence there a little bit.

Steven described his experiences of being a part-time police leader as immense.

To him, it is important to develop young police officers properly to ensure that they were properly performing their duties. The participant realized that many of the young officers trained in his department will move on to other departments. He accepts this fact and takes pride in the fact that the officers were trained properly and became good officers.

He stated:

In small, part-time police departments, you got these young kids that you sponsor, you get 'em to come in, and they're gonna end up moving on and when they move on, um, I want other police departments to say this kid knows what he's doing, he's been properly trained, and he's respectful of the community and the citizens, and he knows how to act, and he knows what the job is all about. It's not all about the badge; it's what's behind it.

#### Challenges and Obstacles Faced by Part-Time Police Leaders

The participants were asked to identify challenges in performing their duties and obstacles in administering their respective agencies as the result of working on a part-time basis. Staffing issues, insufficient time to perform duties, politics, low budgets, and performance of supervisory duties when off duty were many of the common themes expressed by some of the participants. The literature review supported some of these within-case analyses. Metzger (1995) found that smaller agencies with limited funds for training opportunities tend to perform more of a generalized type of policing rather than offer specialized police services. Metzger identified other issues, including limited opportunities for advancement, less interaction because there is often only one officer

working at a time, and difficulty changing the work schedules of officers. These issues also were identified in the current study.

Several of the departments had no additional supervisor positions other than the top leadership position. Most did not even have detective positions, so the possibility of advancement was extremely slim. This lack of advancement opportunity was discussed by Metzger (1995) as a possible factor in retention issues and could help to explain why some of the departments in this study saw their officers leaving for positions in larger police agencies. Many the officers within the departments had full-time jobs elsewhere, a situation that created scheduling issues.

The DoJ (2004) reported that agencies with fewer than 20 officers with population below 50,000 showed that small and rural agencies shared many of the same obstacles as larger police departments, including workload, training, specialization issues, and so on. Dorriety (2005) discussed the benefits of implementing CompStat as a technological tool to track personnel and crime data but also recognized the staffing limitations of smaller police agencies to be able to use this tool. Weisheit et al. (1994) supported many of the comments about the challenges and obstacles of rural policing expressed by the participants in this study: inadequate staffing levels, limited budgets or funding, limited training opportunities, and difficulty obtaining the necessary equipment as a result of inadequate funding.

George stated, “One of the biggest challenges is making sure the guys are doing what they’re supposed to be doing, all the paperwork and it’s getting better; they know what needs to be done.” The participant said that there is not always a supervisor on

every shift, so he receives many phone calls. He stated, "I get calls constantly. It's not that they don't know they just want to be confirmed that's the right way to do things."

Donald saw the close relationship between the residents and officers as a potential obstacle in that it could make it more difficult for officers to enforce certain laws such as speeding violations. Donald believed that not having enough time to adequately address all of the issues is a challenge for full-time as well as part-time agencies. He expressed the need for either extra civilian staff or a full-time position of administrator.

William identified time constraints as his biggest problem. The state law restricts part-time policing to 20 hours per week. Steven recognized the importance of having a clerk who performs several functions, such as e-mailing, billing, interacting with the clerks at the village hall, and scheduling appointments. William mentioned that officers will call him when he is off duty to ask questions about ongoing cases. The participant said that although he is actually working when he provides this direction, he is not compensated for this activity. He described this lack of pay as a big challenge. George described other duties such as attending meetings with the mayor in the evening when he is not scheduled to work and sometimes is not paid for attending these meetings. The participant stated, "But it's those types of things that take away from the family life and other things that I put into this that I'm not really getting paid for. But I don't mind because I enjoy it."

Steven mentioned having a full-time job and politics as challenges for him. When asked to elaborate on politics, the participant said that the board members are long-time residents who consider the town as it was 20 years ago and do not understand how



changes that have occurred affect crime. Steven spoke about performing many duties when he is not supposed to be working as an obstacle. The participant said he spends a great deal of time on his cellphone conducting business administering the police department.

Ronald described having a small budget and a lack of understanding by government leaders about the provision of police services as challenges that he faced in performing his duties. Nathaniel discussed several challenges that he faced, one of the biggest being insufficient time to perform the job. The participant said that even if he could work as a full-time police leader for 8 hours a day, it would not be enough time to perform all of his necessary duties. At times, he performs work on his own time. Ronald estimated that he spends 3 hours per day reading correspondence related to the police department.

Wayne said that the biggest challenge he faces is finding the energy to perform his police duties while working two jobs, raising a family, and maintaining a home. He believed that the biggest problem in being a part-time police leader is that he knows that the police department could operate more effectively if it were a full-time department. He stated, "The criminals don't have a playbook where it says the cops go home at midnight on Thursday."

Stewart laughed when he mentioned that politics is a challenge that he faces when performing his duties, especially in regard to a smaller community. He said, "The secret is to stay out of it and I tell my officers the same: 'Stay out of it.'" Stewart stated that he

misses a lot of things in administering his agency that he would probably pay more attention to if he were not working on a part-time basis.

### Summary

This chapter answered the research questions of the study. Within- and cross-case analyses were completed to compare the results of the data to several other studies that had focused on similar issues. Demographic profiles police leaders and their police agencies were done. This study provided a great deal of insight into how part-time police leaders provide services to their communities, the type of community policing that they practice, the duties that they perform as part-time police leaders, and the challenges and obstacles that they face in performing these duties. The findings indicated that part-time police leaders face issues, challenges, and obstacles similar to those facing full-time police chiefs and that partnerships between police officers and various stakeholders in the community, including the residents, is not only important but also strong to them. This is a key component to implementing and practicing effective community policing.

## CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### Overview

This chapter presents the conclusions, applications, and benefits of this study. This study was conducted because of the lack of research on community policing conducted by part-time police leaders and officers. The research questions examined the participants' experiences of community policing and what aspects, if any, of the only known model of community policing were obvious for the part-time chiefs. Other areas of interest in this study included the relationship of the police leaders to community stakeholders, executive decision making, allocation of resources, agency complexity, community needs, hiring patterns of leaders and sworn officers, challenges of the police leaders, and particular challenges and opportunities in policing small communities. This qualitative study used a multiple-case study approach in which semistructured, in-depth interviews were conducted to gain insight into the experiences and perceptions of 8 participants who were currently serving as the top law enforcement leader for their agency.

### Conclusions

Several conclusions resulted from this study. Several of the participants who had served as full-time law enforcement officers prior to retiring and becoming part-time leaders understood the philosophy and practiced community policing. These leaders discussed community policing principles and provided examples showing that they understood the philosophy and practiced it on a department level, including the problem-

solving process. This was consistent with the definition of community policing cited in a previous chapter that has served as the model of community policing since the 1990s:

Community policing is a philosophy that promotes organizational strategies, which support the systematic use of partnerships and problem-solving techniques, to proactively address the immediate conditions that give rise to public safety issues such as crime, social disorder, and fear of crime. (COPS, 2008, p. 1)

The leaders who participated in this study used this model of policing to address quality-of-life concerns, crime, fear of crime, and social disorder.

Several of the other participants made reference to tactics and patrol methods such as foot patrols and bicycle patrols and equated these to community policing. Their comments were not surprising because Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux (1990) also reported that foot patrol and community policing are terms used interchangeably and with the same meaning. They made it clear, however, that foot patrol is one tactic used to practice community policing. Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux asserted that community policing is a philosophy, not a technique, requiring all members of a police agency to focus on addressing communitywide issues and concerns. Wells et al. (2003) concurred on the lack of a universally accepted theoretical model for community policing.

All of the participants believed that public relations is important in building community partnerships, even though it is not considered one of the main components of community policing (Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux, 1990). It was evident that the smaller police agencies represented by part-time police leaders enjoyed close ties to the residents of the community. All of the participants cited examples of providing services that fostered community partnerships: assisting those involved in automobile accidents, assisting crime victims, responding to emergency medical calls with emergency medical

personnel, working with community members to improve conditions or issues, working collectively with businesses and residents to improve the overall quality of life within the community.

The executive decision-making experiences of the participants varied. Several had previous experience as full-time law enforcement supervisors. Many of the participants were fairly new to their positions and were still in the process of planning and implementing organizational transformations. Three of the participants had been the top leaders of their respective agencies for 1 year or less (3 months, 7 months, and 1 year). The remaining leaders had held the title for 18 months, 19 months, 2 years, 2.5 years, and 5 years. Organizational transformation involves many components, such as the climate and culture of the organization, leadership, labor relations, decision making, strategic planning, policies, organizational evaluations, transparency, and organizational structure (COPS, 2009).

The allocation of resources was a concern of all the participants in one or more ways. There was often difficulty in obtaining the necessary funding to obtain resources, including such basic resources as police patrol vehicles and training. Unfunded mandates were another concern expressed by some of the participants. The state requirement that all fingerprints be submitted electronically through new technology by January 1, 2010, posed significant challenges for the smaller police agencies.

Training is a key component of ensuring effective community policing (Hickman & Reaves, 2001). They stated that training assists officers in developing skills such as problem solving that are key to practicing successful community policing. Small budgets

create obstacles and challenges for part-time police agencies to conduct the desired amounts of training. None of the participants reported providing any training in community policing for their officers. Hickman and Reaves reported that a little more than half of the police agencies surveyed in their study had conducted 8 or more hours to either some or all of the new police officers. It was obvious in this study that many of the police agencies would have much less equipment for their officers to perform their duties if it were not for the grants and donations for equipment.

#### Agency Complexity

The lines of authority and structure for most of the agencies were very direct and clear. Three of the agencies have very flat organizational structures in that there is only one level of supervision. Gaines and Kappeler (2005) discussed the structure and levels of supervision in larger and smaller departments. They reported that in larger agencies, midlevel or second-level administrators are often known as captain or lieutenant, and sergeant for smaller agencies. In this study, 2 sergeants led their agencies without the assistance of any other supervisors. Two other participants, 1 an acting chief and 1 a police commissioner, led departments that had no lieutenants or sergeants. This structure appeared to contribute greatly to many instances in which there were no supervisors working when officers were on duty.

#### Community Needs

The participants discussed their perceptions of community needs. Their perceptions of these needs varied, but one common theme evident in the within-case analysis was the need for police officers to be visible and show their presence in the

community. Several of the participants expanded upon ways in which the officers could do this, including adding foot patrols within the business district, engaging in bicycle patrols, acting as crossing guards, and being visible in the schools. Other comments included providing safety for the residents, being available when needed, and addressing quality-of-life offenses and issues.

Interaction and connectedness between the community and its police agency is necessary for effective community policing. Hickman and Reaves (2001) discussed citizen input and feedback as important in successfully addressing fears about crime and other issues of concern within the community. The Bureau of Justice Assistance (1994) reported on the importance of developing positive contacts and relationships between members of the community and police officers in that community as an essential part of implementing an effective community policing program.

Five participants believed that drug use is a problem in their communities. Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux (1990) contended that community policing can successfully address many issues associated with drugs. None of the participants' agencies had a media policy. Six of the departments have a union, and the positive experiences that the police leaders have had with the unions have fostered solid community policing programs. Four of the 8 participants reported having FTOs, who nurture new officers, including training them in community policing. None of the participants identified any issues in marketing or competing for recruits. Five of the 8 participants stated that their departments do not have dedicated websites.

The participants who had served previously as full-time police supervisors in larger agencies showed a distinct advantage in leadership skills and their understanding of the community policing philosophy. Six of the 8 participants said that they have their own internal records system. None of the participants reported having any formal method of measuring success or formal means of setting priorities. No common themes in regard to strategic planning were identified.

#### Implications for Social Change

The implications for social change were discussed in chapter 1. The outcomes are explained in chapter 4. Several tangible improvements were critically discussed and outlined throughout the study. The review of the literature showcased the importance of the police chief and the selection of this top leadership position. Part-time police leaders perform the necessary and desired essential services required by the residents within their communities. Ensuring that the most qualified police leaders are selected, trained, and given the necessary resources by the elected officials benefits the individual police leaders, the police organizations, the communities, law enforcement, and society as a whole. Part-time police leaders are obliged to provide quality community policing programs and services to members of the public within their communities. Dealing effectively with quality-of-life offenses, meeting the needs of the residents and citizens, and ensuring a feeling of safety among the community residents can be done only through the presence and services provided by structurally sufficient community policing programs.



### Recommendations for Action

Additional research would benefit part-time police departments, police leaders, and the communities and residents served by part-time officers and leaders. As stated earlier, very little research has been conducted on small police agencies, especially part-time police agencies and community policing done by part-time leaders and officers. This research was conducted within a relatively small geographical area. Several of the participants had worked as the police leaders of their agencies for times ranging from 3 months to 5 years. Three of the participants had been in their current positions for 1 year or less.

A study that expands the topic as well as the number of participants could provide additional insight. Additional research would provide the opportunity to obtain more information and insights from a larger sample. Most data come from prior research on full-time agencies and full-time police officers (Hickman & Reaves, 2001). The lack of research on part-time agencies as well as a lack of comparison data between part-time and full-time police agencies has left many questions unanswered.

Standardized training in community policing should be mandatory for all new police leaders and police officers, including part-time leaders and officers, to ensure that the philosophy is understood by all stakeholders. Each police agency should develop a written policy that defines community policing, ways in which it is to be achieved, and the responsibility of each member of the department in practicing community policing. Management training through a state criminal justice-approved curriculum also should be mandatory for part-time police leaders.

Elected and appointed officials should enlist the assistance of respected and proven police leaders to develop search committees and a formal interview process for selecting part-time police leaders. The duties, responsibilities, and importance of the position deserve the recognition, respect, and comparable title of their full-time counterparts, with whom they share similar duties and responsibilities. These recommendations can assist part-time police leaders in making organizational transformations that result in progressive and professional police agencies.

This study is important not only for elected and appointed officials in town and village government but also for police leaders who are currently leading police departments as well as those seeking to lead them. This study will ultimately benefit community members by providing information about ways to enhance strategically and effectively operated community policing programs. The results of this study and other studies should be published, disseminated, and discussed at community meetings that include members of the public; elected officials; and representatives from the police organization, including police leaders. Copies of the study also should be made available at the town and village halls within small communities. The local media should inform the public on ways to obtain a copy of the study.

#### Future Implications

The results of this study can be the foundation for part-time police leaders to understand the experiences of others serving in this position. The results of this study can be used to construct strong community policing programs while also understanding the challenges, obstacles, and successes of the participants in this research. Elected officials,

community members, and residents can benefit from this study by developing an appreciation of the issues that part-time leaders face, as well as the dedication and loyalty that they possess in addressing the community's concerns and providing police services.

This study may promote a better understanding of what community policing is in philosophical and practical terms. The results showed that elected and appointed officials of municipalities can benefit by constructing professional and quality processes when choosing their police leaders. Municipal leaders and officials will benefit their communities by ensuring that a selection process includes a professional interview component that involves the community members and addresses the community's concerns (Bouza, 1978; Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux, 1990).

#### Researcher's Role

When reporting on the subject matter, the researcher must be objective and not bring personal values to the study (Hagan, 2003). The researcher conducted the study knowing that biases, values, and personal interests had to be excluded. Although this researcher is a practitioner within the field in which the study was conducted, he is not a police leader and was cognizant of the fact that the interviews with the participants could have been tainted if the questions had not been asked objectively. It also was important for the researcher to remain expressionless and not indicate through verbal language or gestures indicating agreement or disagreement with the respondents.

Yin (1984) suggested that the person conducting a case study ask good questions, be a good listener, not be trapped by personal ideologies and preconceptions, be adaptive and flexible, have a firm grasp of the issues being studied, and remain unbiased by

preconceived notions. This researcher was aware of all of these suggestions while conducting the case study research and interviews.

The open-ended questions were carefully constructed to facilitate unguided and unbiased answers from the participants. The researcher understood the importance of conducting the interviews with no expectations of the results that were obtained and with no preconceptions. This researcher's experience as a practitioner in the field of policing for more than 26 years did not negatively affect the research in the areas identified previously. In fact, the experience provided a sensitivity to the participants and a knowledge of the context of the study, namely, community policing. The researcher's perspective changed while conducting the study. Looking at the issue from an individual leader's perspective, the researcher considered the limitations of each police agency that participated in the study to gain an appreciation for the unique challenges that each part-time police leader faced and assess how the issues were handled by the participants.

### Summary

Part-time police leaders understand the community policing philosophy and practice it in a manner that addresses the quality-of-life offenses within their communities. The study also revealed that the close ties to the community by the part-time police officers and leaders fostered strong community partnerships. Several challenges existed for the part-time leaders that included addressing organizational transformation with limited resources; unfunded mandates; and limited budgets for training, equipment, and other areas. All of the agencies represented in the study had simple and direct organizational structures as well as limited supervision in many of the

agencies. The community needs included the desire to have officers visible and available. Five participants believed that drug use was a problem and concern within their communities. No common themes in regard to strategic planning were identified. Standardized training would benefit part-time officers, their leaders, and the communities. A formal interview and selection process would assist in providing qualified part-time police leaders. This study revealed that the hiring process for the part-time police leaders within this study was very informal. Long-term strategic planning can bring about positive change that is essential in developing, implementing, and administering successful community policing programs.

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## APPENDIX A: SEMISTRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE

A. Thinking about working as a part-time police chief, what is that like for you?

1. What was the selection process for your current position in which you were selected?
2. Were you selected as the leader while serving within the agency or from outside that agency where you now serve as the top leader?
3. What do you believe are the reasons for your being selected for the top leadership position?
4. What duties do you perform?
5. What duties require the majority of your total time?
6. What challenges do you face in performing your duties?
7. What obstacles exist for you in administering your agency as a result of working on a part-time basis?
8. What do you believe your role to be as the top leader for your police agency?
9. How is the community affected by your part-time status as the police leader?
10. If you do not hold the title of police chief, how does the lack of having this title and position affect your ability to perform your duties as the top leader of the police department?
11. How are communities affected by police departments that do not have police chiefs?

### ***Specific Areas of Experience:***

*Use these categories below to prompt participants, if not mentioned spontaneously answering the above questions.*

- Collective Bargaining**
  - \_\_\_ Management/employee rights
  - \_\_\_ Negotiating contracts
  - \_\_\_ Living with contracts

- Community Policing**
  - \_\_\_ Realistic definitions & applications/successful programs
  - \_\_\_ Partnerships with civic associations, organizations, businesses, schools
  - \_\_\_ Volunteers in Police Service
  - \_\_\_ Citizen Police Academy
  - \_\_\_ Community surveys
- Crime Control**
  - \_\_\_ Crime prevention
  - \_\_\_ Mutual aid agreements: regional/county/state
  - \_\_\_ Investigations
  - \_\_\_ Terrorism: personnel/training/equipment
  - \_\_\_ Weapons
  - \_\_\_ Task forces
  - \_\_\_ Major crime
  - \_\_\_ Gangs
  - \_\_\_ Drugs
  - \_\_\_ Auto theft
  - \_\_\_ Tactical operations
- Financial**
  - \_\_\_ Budgeting
  - \_\_\_ Leveraging limited resources
  - \_\_\_ Capital equipment plans
  - \_\_\_ Grant resources, writing
  - \_\_\_ Purchasing: principles and practical considerations
- Governance/Policies**
  - \_\_\_ Relationships with elected officials, municipal administrators, commissions, etc.
  - \_\_\_ Model policies & protocols in policing
  - \_\_\_ Local/state/federal policies
- Inherited Issues**
  - \_\_\_ Unresolved predecessor issues
- Leadership Skills**
  - \_\_\_ Communication/active listening
  - \_\_\_ Conflict resolution
  - \_\_\_ Decision-making
  - \_\_\_ Establishing authority/limit setting
  - \_\_\_ Establishing and communicating the vision and goals
  - \_\_\_ Relationship building
  - \_\_\_ Shaping organizational culture
  - \_\_\_ Staff motivation
  - \_\_\_ Stress management
  - \_\_\_ Supporting employees
- Liability/Legal Issues**
  - \_\_\_ Federal and state statutes
  - \_\_\_ Chief's personal liability issues
  - \_\_\_ Force
  - \_\_\_ Sexual harassment
  - \_\_\_ Pursuits
  - \_\_\_ Domestic violence

- Maintenance and Safety**
  - \_\_\_ Maintaining facility
  - \_\_\_ OSHA compliance—safety officer
  - \_\_\_ Fleet vehicle management
- Management**
  - \_\_\_ Internal affairs investigations
  - \_\_\_ Internal records system
  - \_\_\_ Internal surveys
  - \_\_\_ Learning about new initiatives
  - \_\_\_ Lines of authority
  - \_\_\_ Marketing strategies
  - \_\_\_ Measuring success
  - \_\_\_ Setting priorities
  - \_\_\_ Strategic planning
  - \_\_\_ Team-based management
- Media**
  - \_\_\_ Effective media policy
  - \_\_\_ Proactive relationship with media
  - \_\_\_ Public Information Officer issues
  - \_\_\_ Print vs. electronic media
- Personnel Issues**
  - \_\_\_ ADA accommodation
  - \_\_\_ Ethics issues
  - \_\_\_ Benefit package/wages
  - \_\_\_ Sick Leave
  - \_\_\_ Diversity issues
  - \_\_\_ Family issues
  - \_\_\_ Mentoring new officers
  - \_\_\_ Optimizing use of limited personnel
  - \_\_\_ Marketing/competing for recruits
  - \_\_\_ Mental health issues
  - \_\_\_ Hiring: testing, background, selection issues
  - \_\_\_ Intra-staff issues/conflicts
  - \_\_\_ Employee recognition
  - \_\_\_ Use of discipline
  - \_\_\_ Retention
  - \_\_\_ Allocation and deployment
- Technology**
  - \_\_\_ Identifying/acquiring emerging technology/applications
  - \_\_\_ Website development
  - \_\_\_ Future needs projection
- Traffic Management**
  - \_\_\_ Enforcement
  - \_\_\_ DUI/impaired driving
  - \_\_\_ Crash investigations/studies
- Training/Staff Development**
  - \_\_\_ Internal resources
  - \_\_\_ External resources

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**Funding** **Other**

\**Source.* International Association of Chiefs of Police. (2006). *Mentor application: New Chief Mentoring Project.* Washington, DC: Author.

## APPENDIX B: LETTER OF INVITATION

19xx [Name of] Road  
[Name of City] Falls, [State]  
[Insert Date]

Insert Name  
Name of Police Department  
Street Address  
Name of Town or Village, New York, 00000

Dear Insert Name,

I am a student in the doctoral program at Walden University and presently employed as a police captain with the City of Poughkeepsie Police Department. I will be conducting research for the doctoral dissertation, "Community Policing by Part-Time Police: A Qualitative Multiple-Case Study."

The purpose of this research is to explore the community policing experiences and the challenges and opportunities in performing your duties on a part-time basis. The reason that you have been invited to take part in this research study is the type and size of the police department that you lead, which is within the scope and parameters for the proposed research study. I am requesting your voluntary participation to allow me to conduct an in-person, 1- to 1.5-, or possible 2-hr, confidential interview concerning your own experiences, perceptions, and observations of community policing on a part-time basis.

I am also requesting permission to tape record this interview to ensure the accuracy of the information for the dissertation. The tapes will remain in my possession and will be secured for 5 or more years and will be destroyed after retaining them for the designated time period. You and your department will not be named or identified in the



study and will remain anonymous. I would also ask you to voluntarily complete a questionnaire if you agree, which will ask questions pertaining to the study, which will also assist in preparing for the interview.

Thank you very much for your time and consideration in sharing your valued experiences and contributions to this study. I will contact you by telephone in the near future to answer any questions or concerns that you may have and to schedule the interview if you agree to participate.

Sincerely,

Steven W. Minard

## APPENDIX C: LETTER TO PARTICIPANTS

19xx [Name of] Road  
[Name of City] Falls, [State]  
[Insert Date]

Insert Name  
Name of Police Department  
Street Address  
Name of Town or Village, New York, 00000

Thank you for agreeing to participate in the research study and allowing me to interview you on (Insert date, time, and location of the interview). I will be conducting research for the doctoral dissertation “Community Policing by Part-Time Police: A Qualitative Multiple-Case Study.”

The purpose of this research is to explore the community policing experiences and the challenges and opportunities in performing your duties on a part-time basis.

Please find enclosed a copy of the consent form that is required by Walden University and a questionnaire that I ask that you complete, which will assist in preparing for the interview. The questionnaire contains preliminary questions that will be expanded upon during the interview process. The answers you provide on the questionnaire and during the interview will help in answering the research questions for this study. I ask your permission to tape record the interview. The tapes will be secured and remain in my possession for 5 or more years and will be destroyed after the designated time period. The identities of both you and your police department will remain confidential.

Thank you very much for your time, cooperation, and participation in this valuable research study. I look forward to seeing you on the XX of (name of the month)

at XX (AM/PM). In the event you need to contact me for any reason, you can call me at my home telephone number xxx-xxx-xxxx.

Sincerely,

Steven W. Minard

## APPENDIX D: CONSENT FORM

### Community Policing by Part-Time Police: A Qualitative Multiple-Case Study

You are invited to take part in a research study of part-time police leaders performing community policing. You were chosen for the study because you are a police leader in a part-time police department. Please read this form and ask any questions you have before agreeing to be part of the study.

This study is being conducted by a researcher named Steven W. Minard, who is a doctoral student at Walden University.

The purpose of this research is to explore your community policing experiences and the challenges and opportunities in performing your duties on a part-time basis. The impact on the communities that have part-time police leaders will also be explored.

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

- Be interviewed in person by the researcher for an in-depth interview for approximately 1 to 1.5 hr, possibly 2 hours.
- Complete a questionnaire that will be used to answer preliminary questions pertaining to the study and prepare the researcher for follow up and additional questions to be asked during the interview.

Voluntary Nature of the Study: Your participation in this study is voluntary. This means that everyone will respect your decision of whether or not you want to be in the study. No one at Walden University will treat you differently if you decide not to be in the study. If you decide to join the study now, you can still change your mind later. If you feel stressed during the study you may stop at any time. You may skip any questions that you feel are too personal.

Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study: There are no anticipated risks for being part of this study. The benefit to being in this study is that there will be an increased amount of information and knowledge that will be available as a result of the study and the contribution of the participants of the study concerning part-time police leaders.

Compensation: No compensation will be provided to you for participating in the study.

Confidentiality: Any information you provide will be kept confidential. The researcher will not use your information for any purposes outside of this research project. Also, the researcher will not include your name or anything else that could identify you in any reports of the study.

Contacts and Questions: The researcher's name is Steven W. Minard. The researcher's faculty advisor is Dr. Elaine Spaulding. You may ask any questions you have now. Or if

you have questions, you may contact the researcher via xxx-xxx-xxxx or at slm1085@aol.com or the advisor at xxx-xxx-xxxx or at Elaine.Spaulding@Waldenu.edu. If you want to talk privately about your rights as a participant, you can call Dr. Leilani Endicott. She is the Director of the Research Center at Walden University. Her phone number is 1-xxx-xxx-xxx, extension xxxx.

The researcher will give you a copy of this form to keep.

Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information, I have received answers to any questions I have at this time. I am 18 years of age or older, and I consent to participate in the study.

Printed Name of Participant

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Participant's Written or Electronic\* Signature

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Researcher's Written or Electronic\* Signature

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\*Electronic signatures are regulated by the Uniform Electronic Transactions Act. Legally, an "electronic signature" can be the person's typed name, their email address, or any other identifying marker. An electronic signature is just as valid as a written signature as long as both parties have agreed to conduct the transaction electronically.

APPENDIX E: QUESTIONNAIRE

***Demographic Information:***

Name (Code) \_\_\_\_\_ # of Years in Police Service \_\_\_\_\_ Age \_\_\_\_\_  
Current Title \_\_\_\_\_

Name of Department (Code) \_\_\_\_\_ # of Months/Years as Chief \_\_\_\_\_ Sex  
M/F \_\_\_\_\_

# Sworn Officers in Department \_\_\_\_\_ # Civilians in Department \_\_\_\_\_ Population Size  
\_\_\_\_\_

Other Past Positions: \_\_\_\_\_ Length \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

Education/Training: # of Years Post High School Education \_\_\_\_\_  
Degree(s) awarded \_\_\_\_\_

Name of major command school attended (e.g., FBI N A, SPI, NWTI, FBI LEEDS)  
\_\_\_\_\_

Specialized Education Training:  
\_\_\_\_\_

Does your department have a union? Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_

## CURRICULUM VITAE

**Steven W. Minard**

### **Educational Background**

- 2005-Current PhD Candidate (ABD), Human Services-Criminal Justice, Walden University, Minneapolis, MN  
2004 FBI National Academy, Quantico, VA  
2002 MPA, Marist College, Poughkeepsie, NY  
1996 BS, Marist College, Poughkeepsie, NY

### **Teaching Experience**

- 2009-Present Adjunct Online Instructor, Justice Studies Graduate Program, Southern New Hampshire University  
2009-Present Adjunct Online Instructor, Ethics in Criminal Justice Course.  
2007-Present Adjunct Instructor, Introduction to Criminal Justice Course, Human Behavior and Social Environment, and Introduction to Sociology.  
2005-Present Adjunct Instructor, Instructed Criminology, Criminal Justice Administration and Organization, the Juvenile Justice System, Policing in America, Drug and Alcohol Use and Abuse, and Introduction to Criminal Justice.  
1988-Current Instructor at various police academies. Instructed in ethical awareness, contemporary police problems, report writing, and other general topic areas.

### **Employment History**

- 2001-Present Police Captain.  
1996-2001 Police Lieutenant.  
1994-1997 Assistant Coordinator of [Name of County] Drug Task Force  
1991-1994 Police Sergeant.  
1989-1991 Traffic Division.  
1985-1988 Crime Scene Technician.  
1984-1991 Police Officer.  
1981-1984 Police Officer.

### **Committee Service**

- Chair of the [Name of County] Traffic Safety Board
- Member of [Name of County] Women in the Criminal Justice System Committee
- Member of Marist College Criminal Justice Department Advisory Committee
- Chair of [Name of City] Police Department Safety Committee
- Former member of [Name of City] Nuisance Committee
- Police Recruitment Committee (2007)

### **Association Memberships**

- FBI National Academy Associates
- International Association of Chiefs of Police
- [Name of State] Association of Chiefs of Police
- Hudson Association of Chiefs of Police
- [Name of County] Association of Chiefs of Police (President-2008)
- The American Society of Criminology
- Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences

### **Awards**

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|------|---|
| 1997 | Exceptional Service Award, [Name of County] Drug Task Force. “In recognition of Outstanding Drug Investigations in the Line of Duty, Bringing Honor to Himself, [Name of County] Drug Task Force and the Police Profession. |
| 1999 | Meritorious Duty in the Third Degree, [Name of City] Police Benevolent Association.   |