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LAW ENFORCEMENT EXECUTIVE MANAGEMENT (LEEM) PROFILE

A CONCEPT DEVELOPED BY
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U.S. Department of Justice
National Institute of Justice

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ABSTRACT

A pilot study which describes the development and findings of a personality, cognitive, performance and skills-based profile of the effective law enforcement executive manager. Description is based on a 21-variable, national assessment of executive and nonexecutive populations of the Federal Bureau of Investigation, as well as 12 police, corrections and sheriffs' agencies on the federal, state and local levels, utilizing the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal, the Gordon Personality Profile and Inventory, and the Jenkins Activity Scale. Findings indicated there were statistically significant differences in several variables which could be used as criteria for identifying personnel who display high levels of potential in the areas considered necessary to the make-up of effective managers. These variables were critical thinking ability, higher education, career commitment, original thinking ability, competitive drive, speed and impatience, vigor (energy devoted to the agency), achievement drive, ascendancy (upward mobility), emotional stability, sociability (identification with hierarchy), self-esteem and personal relations (ability to motivate). No differences were noted in levels of responsibility and cautiousness (careful consideration in decision-making).

An average of 29 percent of the nonexecutive sample displayed potential levels similar to the highest levels displayed by the executive sample, indicating an identifiable agency resource. It was found that correlations existed between certain variables which were more statistically significant among both groups, but stronger in the executive than the nonexecutive sample. Other correlations were found to be significant among the executive, but not statistically significant among the nonexecutive sample. It was further found that among the highest percentiles, important potential indicators increased with rank and age, peaking at specific levels and then declining. Implications for selection, training and development are discussed.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This Executive Summary describes a national Law Enforcement Executive Management (LEEM) Profile, developed by Arnett Gaston, Ph.D., while a Visiting Fellow at the National Institute of Justice, United States Department of Justice. This profile is based on a national personality, cognitive, performance and skills-based assessment of police, corrections and sheriff's agencies on the federal, state and local levels. This profile resulted from a pilot study which sought to ascertain if there were demographic, cognitive, personality and behavioral indicators which might be used to identify potential among agencies regarding those qualities considered requisite to the skill, knowledge and ability composition of effective managers; and if it could be indicated they were qualities which might be developed among personnel.

Objective:

To provide a comprehensive indication of the potential of an individual to be an effective manager based on agency-specific, concrete indications of the personality characteristics, skills, knowledge, and abilities of executive managers who have demonstrated their effectiveness within that agency.

To provide the agency with an executive management profile of the agency in general, as well as profiles on individuals for management selection and development.

To highlight specific areas which clearly and significantly identify the individual who displays executive management potential, irrespective of race, sex, age or rank.

To provide the agency with a cost-effective means of determining the potential of large or small groups, through an on-site assessment which gives the agency a global picture of the employee's capacity not available through other examination processes.

Method

Being an exploratory and descriptive pilot study, consideration was given to researcher bias, selection criteria, subject selection bias, how subjects would be tested, the instruments used, and how the data would be assessed. The procedure was anonymous and voluntary, and informed consent was obtained. The entire process was consistent with the Ethical Principles of Psychologists (APA, 1981), and the Ethical Principles in the Conduct of Research with Human Participants (APA, 1982).

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Interviews were conducted with executives among the various law enforcement agencies across the nation, and consensus was reached as to what qualities were perceived as being necessary to the structure of the effective law enforcement executive. The literature was searched to see if any significant body of research was published in the area of law enforcement executive management. While a paucity of such literature was indicated, it was also indicated that much of what was discussed in the interviews agreed with the literature of the field in private industry as to what constituted the character of the effective manager. Psychodynamic and psychometric instruments were examined, and those most applicable to studying the variables noted were selected. The variables which were selected for investigation (based on the noted interviews and literature examination) were delineated as independent and dependent variables. The independent variables were age, tenure, assignments, education and rank. These were selected as independent variables because they had universal application to the population, and could be quantified, making them measurable, so their impact could be assessed against the dependent variables of critical thinking ability, original thinking ability, ascendancy (upward mobility), responsibility, emotional stability, sociability (identification with hierarchy) self-esteem, cautiousness (consideration in decision-making), personal relations (ability to motivate), vigor (energy devoted to the organization), achievement drive, speed and impatience (tolerance thresholds), competitive drive and career commitment.

Subjects:

Each agency was asked to provide a sample of their incumbent executive staff which represented the agency's population of effective managers. All conditions were met to ensure complete agency ethnic and gender representation. The data were statistically assessed for significant differences and relationships. Quality indices (70th through 90th percentiles) were also established, and each variable was assessed for its uniqueness and its composite contribution to the profile. A total of 304 subjects (97 executive and 207 nonexecutives) participated fully in the study. The participating agencies were:

- Federal Bureau of Investigation
- Federal Bureau of Prisons
- New York City Police Department
- Maryland State Police Department
- Maryland State Department of Corrections
- Miami Police Department
- Dade County (Miami) Department of Corrections
- Los Angeles Police Department
- Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department
- Seattle Police Department

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King County (Seattle) Department of Corrections
Washington State Department of Corrections
Baltimore County Police Department

Consideration was given to separating the subjects into groups of police and corrections, but it was determined that would be impractical for this study. As a pilot study, one of the objectives was to see if there were "common threads" which were evidenced in (hopefully) all, or at least most of the agencies which appeared to be endemic to the manager's character. It was found that a large body of research in the private sector did not bifurcate populations when general studies were undertaken to assess groups where process and product are similar. The most important reason for not separating the population into two distinct (police and corrections) groups is that it would exclude a large and important group from the study, i.e., those "crossover" law enforcement agencies such as sheriffs, who perform both police and correctional functions.

Apparatus:

The apparatus selected demonstrated their ability to measure the dependent variables mentioned. The protocols employed in this assessment were instruments widely utilized in private as well as public industry, and have special application to law enforcement. They are instruments which have demonstrated their predictive, content, criterion and construct validity. The protocols used were

The Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal, a protocol which measures the ability to make appropriate inferences, recognize assumptions, make valid deductions, appropriate interpretations and evaluations of arguments.

The Gordon Personality Profile and Inventory, which measures levels of ascendancy, responsibility, emotional stability, self-esteem, cautiousness, original thinking ability, personal relations, and vigor.

The Jenkins Activity Scale, which measures certain Type 'A' behaviors as achievement drive, speed and impatience, competitive drive and career commitment.

Procedure:

This was a posttest only experiment, which eliminated problems usually found in other experimental designs such as one-shot case studies, one group pretest-posttest designs and nonequivalent control groups. The process was straightforward rather than staged, so no manipulation was necessary. The executive sample was administered the protocols outlined above, and a profile was developed. The same protocol was given to a randomly selected sample of the nonexecutive population in each agency from which the executive ascends. The findings were

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statistically assessed, utilizing the SPSS to determine statistically significant differences and relationships. Percentile ranges (10-30, 40-60, 70-90 decile groups) were established for comparative purposes. Nominal scales were assigned to the independent variables, and interval scales were assigned to the dependent variables. Descriptive and inferential statistics were utilized, employing (where appropriate) analysis of variance, chi-square analysis and correlation coefficients, using the .05 level of significance.

Findings:

o There are specific variables which significantly delineate the executive who is considered demonstrably effective from the subordinate ranks from which the executive ascends.

o Of the variables assessed, there were 13 identifiers which distinctly separated the executive from the nonexecutive samples which might be utilized as selection criteria:

- Critical Thinking Ability
- Education
- Career Commitment
- Original Thinking Ability
- Competitive Drive
- Speed and Impatience (Tolerance thresholds)
- Vigor (Energy devoted to the organization)
- Achievement Drive
- Ascendancy (Upward mobility)
- Emotional Stability
- Sociability (Identification with hierarchy)
- Self-Esteem
- Personal Relations (Ability to motivate personnel)

There were two areas where no differences were noted along the entire percentile continuum, and relatively high potential levels were demonstrated by both samples:

- Responsibility
- Cautiousness (Careful consideration in decision-making)

o There were significant differences regarding age, education, tenure and number of assignments, the executive sample being more representative in the higher decile ranges.

o When rank and age were compared to all other assessed variables, it was noted that potential increased among the highest percentiles, peaked, and then began to decline.

- Rank: among the executive ranks, highest levels of potential increased with rank until the next-to-highest executive

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rank, then began to decline in the highest executive rank. This peak and decline was noted in

Critical Thinking Ability
Original Thinking Ability
Ascendancy (Upward Mobility)
Vigor (Organizational Energy)
Achievement Drive
Speed and Impatience (Tolerance Thresholds)
Competitive Drive

- Age: Among the executive ranks, highest levels of potential increased with age, peaked at the age range of 46-50, and began to decline through the age ranges of 51-55 and 56-60. This peak and decline was noted in

Critical Thinking Ability
Career Commitment

Indications:

o Two factors which further enhance the identification process are (1) there are significant relationships between the primary and other variables that appear among the executive group which do not significantly occur among the nonexecutive group; and, (2) there are significant relationships which occur among both groups, but have stronger representation among the executive sample.

o A cadre of the subordinate population exhibits potential levels similar to those demonstrated by the executive sample at the highest levels (70th through 90th percentiles), indicating there is a resource within the agency for management selection and development. An average of 29 percent of the subordinate ranks displayed potential levels similar to that of the highest executive group.

o Agencies can acquire a comprehensive indication of the potential of an individual to be an effective manager based on agency-specific, concrete indications of the personality characteristics, skills, knowledge, and abilities of executive managers who have demonstrated their effectiveness within that agency.

o Agencies can be provided with an executive management profile of the agency in general, as well as profiles on individuals for selection and development.

o Agencies can have the ability to highlight specific areas which clearly and significantly identify the individual who displays executive management potential, irrespective of race, sex, age or rank, as there were no significant differences found

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for sex, race or age, regarding the display of potential. Individuals who demonstrate high executive management potential can be identified from all subordinate ranks.

- o Agencies can be provided with a cost-effective means of determining the potential of large or small groups, through an on-site assessment which gives the agency a global picture of the employee's capacity not available through current examination processes.

- o Where an individual places within the 70th through 90th percentile range displays what are considered quality potential levels. The greater the quantitative representation, the greater the overall potential displayed.

- o Employees within the subordinate population can be individually identified in terms of their indicated potential, the level of overall potential, as well as levels of potential in specific areas.

Implications

- o Selection: the process could be considered a viable tool to assist in the promotional processes among the executive management ranks. It allows for a more thorough understanding of the individual's capacities as they specifically relate to those qualities found among the executive managers who have demonstrated their ability to make the agency run efficiently.

- o Training: the process could allow for identification of personality, as well as skills, knowledge and abilities variables which contribute to the effective management of the organization. Training programs could be developed to enhance these areas among incumbent executives and/or executive-designates. This could provide a direct-benefit approach to training, based on identifiable variables which contribute to effective management.

- o Development: the process could provide for the early identification of employees who possess high potential. It could further allow for all employees within specific, or all ranks to display their potential. This could provide agencies the opportunity to learn the potential of their entire agency, rather than depending on fate allowing a few people to be recognized. This minimizes the risk of poor selection or the inability to increase the management selection pool. Those identified could be provided appropriate agency exposure and training, or findings could provide agency focus on how to allow appropriate exposure to groups of employees, thereby enhancing the potential of skills acquisition by a greater number of personnel.

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A major concern of any agency must be the quality of its leadership. Whether an organization is viable or fallible depends on the knowledge, commitment and demonstrable ability of its managers. They must decide wisely, be innovative without being irresponsible, and appropriately motivate personnel. One of the more cogent examples of this need is found among the law enforcement and other public safety agencies of our nation. The American criminal justice system is certainly one of, if not the most sophisticated and complex in the world. As such, it dictates that its management personnel, particularly those at the executive level, be the best that can be provided.

A primary problem with current law enforcement executive management selection processes is chance. It is often assumed that if one makes a good supervisor, then one should or could also rise through the ranks to become a good executive manager. A major fallacy of this premise is the time it takes to find such thinking is incorrect is time enough to cause considerable, if not irreparable operational, political and fiscal damage to an agency. Law enforcement systems have become big business, with multi-million dollar budgets and activities which have impact on the entire society. Such responsibility mandates that every reasonable effort be made to ensure effective management.

There are two basic methods of management selection utilized by many law enforcement and other public safety agencies, both

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with inherent problems which can produce negative results. There is the traditional method of management selection where individuals are selected from the ranks. A notable advantage is selection of individuals who have developed technocratic capability and acquired in-depth knowledge of the agency. A prominent negative is one which is universal to technocratic leadership, i.e., technocratic managers are usually skilled only in the areas to which those managers have been exposed, but can be deficient due to lack of exposure in other areas where proficiency is required once the executive management role has been assumed.

The other method of management selection is that known as "broad-banding." Candidates are to be found within the agency, from immediately preceding and lower ranks. Candidates can also be external to the department. While the former provides a greater talent pool, it also falls victim to technocratic fallibility. The latter, while providing for the introduction of management practices, principles and philosophies into an agency, lacks that acumen one can only acquire through the intra-agency experience.

A technocratic argument can be made for the practice of intra-agency selection of management personnel. A viable argument against such a practice is technocracy, as the sole criterion, limits exposure which is critical to the acquisition

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of management principles, as well as skills, knowledge and abilities necessary for the optimal functioning of any complex agency. What is needed is an educational and experiential 'hybrid' to ensure that law enforcement agencies acquire the level of managers they require. Unfortunately, law enforcement agencies neither have the luxury of releasing their potential managers for extensive periods to receive the required training and expertise, nor an allowable margin for error that is necessary for on-the-job training. Given fiscal constraints and the necessity of ongoing command, departments cannot, to any significant extent, grant educational leave or training sabbaticals. Neither can they afford a "learning by error" situation, for the impact of such an approach could be far-reaching and devastating.

There is consensus among public safety agencies (Manili and Connors, 1988, Guynes, 1988), that lack of other than technocratic skills is a major concern. Law enforcement agencies have been severely criticized for their operation. Some agencies have been the subject of lawsuits and are losing a significant number of them. This loss is not so much due to gross negligence or malfeasance as it is to the lack of appropriate management. Criminal justice agencies run the gamut from crime fighting, such as our police, to total care agencies such as our prison systems. Such wide range makes the service provision aspect of their

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mandated responsibility all the more critical. And, what with myriad court orders, consent decrees, policies and procedures which must be followed in sufficient and appropriate fashion, there is no appreciable latitude for or tolerance of mistake. Even more important, because inadequate management can negatively impact the life style, health and welfare of so many people, and cause irreparable harm or loss, criminal justice agencies can no longer operate from many of their traditional concepts and philosophies. They must attempt to function consistent with what they are--large, complex systems, with all the attendant problems.

Being cognizant of the high-risk implications of law enforcement, as well as an awareness of time, assets, error margins and resource pools being severely constricted, who is selected as manager takes on critical proportion. The traditional method of selecting executive level managers with no satisfactory indication of their overall potential to manage has often caused agencies to waste scarce resources and negatively impact morale. It has caused losses and embarrassment resulting from inappropriate decisions and management application. These methods have also made demands on some employees who, for whatever reason, could not meet those demands.

Designation of management does not automatically confer the mantle of effective management. For instance, a major problem of

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management selection is the impact of 'halo' effect and false-positives. The halo effect is the assumption a person can do everything well because that person has demonstrated the ability to do something well. The halo effect can compromise the viability of a selection process resulting from interviewers being impressed by their knowledge of the individual who is interviewed. Another major risk is that of false-positives (people who give the impression they are capable of accomplishment, but cannot actually do so). The tragedy of such selection is the inability is demonstrated only after the responsibility has been assumed. A further problem, a waste of human resources, is the incapacity to identify individuals who have the potential of becoming effective managers. These are people who either do not indicate this potential due to denial of opportunity, or who do not otherwise happen to "be in the right place at the right time." Lang's research (1985), indicates that more care is needed in selecting individuals for high-risk job assignments with low probability of success.

There is the need to develop individuals into capable managers. Before this can be accomplished however, there is the need to know the potential of individuals to become effective managers. In this way a viable attempt could be made to focus resources in such fashion as to derive optimum benefit. Etzion and Segev (1984), have demonstrated the importance of matching

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individuals' specialized abilities to the organizational task to promote both individual adaptability and organizational performance.

This research effort is a comparative study which has as its objective the accurate portrayal of specific characteristics of that particular population within law enforcement agencies known as effective executive level managers. It also attempts to indicate to what extent and frequency are these characteristics portrayed among that executive management group. A further objective is to determine the nature and extent of similarities and differences about these characteristics found among the nonexecutive law enforcement population. Such comparison contributes to the identification of human resources within the agency.

Focus of the Study

This study can be considered exploratory, as a search of the literature indicated no significant levels of investigation in this particular area. Also, hypotheses have not yet been formulated about the personality, performance and skills-based aspects of the law enforcement executive manager. The exploratory nature of this study is additionally intended to help address some of the problems of executive management selection, training and development. These problems are regarded as urgent by those engaged in the profession of law enforcement. Because

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of the paucity of research, this particular area is relatively unformulated. There is therefore little experience to develop guidelines and focus. Considering this, the intensive study of this particular group for the stated problems and characteristics should prove helpful toward resolution and discovery.

This study is not limited to exploration. It is to a much larger extent descriptive in that it seeks, through the application of scientific procedures, to indicate the salient characteristics of the demonstrably effective law enforcement executive manager. The study intends to depict whether or how certain variables are associated, what are their priority and prevalence, and if these factors are found to be significantly different among and between the executive and nonexecutive groups.

What is being attempted in this study is to illustrate there are a multiplicity of contributory conditions which together enhance the possibility or likelihood of effective management. Where there are stronger indications of more of these contributory conditions, the greater the possibility of a person developing into an effective manager. These conditions are considered to be contributory as a universe of conditions, and no single provision should be considered a necessary condition of effective management potential. While no single factor may be considered a sufficient condition for indicating who displays

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executive level management potential, lack of sufficiency in the universe of noted personality factors can negate the probability of effective management potential. In order for there to be a viable indication of potential for effective management, a necessary and sufficient display of the noted factors must be in evidence.

It is critical that a screening modality be developed to give the criminal justice system some indication of who are the most likely individuals to whom they can entrust their extremely complex, expensive and problematic agencies, facilities and operations. It is crucial that the system begin to explore the development of management potential indicators for future executive level managers which address specific needs and problems. This must be accomplished to minimize the prospect of ineffective management and its parenthetic consequence. The principal objective is to provide a viable management tool which provides the opportunity to minimize risk in the selection process. One of the adjunct objectives is to develop a process to uniformly, expediently and objectively assess an entire candidate population for their management potential. Another is to allow selection of candidates who demonstrate potential for accomplishing specific functions or assignments which might call for specialized skills, knowledge, abilities or distinct personality characteristics.

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Theory and Practice

This study relates to previous work in the field by synthesizing various efforts, building on them, and carrying the process to a higher level of predictability and practical application. This study attempts to merge relevant theory and empirical study, using scientific assessment processes, to determine agency-specific needs. In addition to identifying needs, it will contribute to determining how these needs are being (or should be) met by indicating the qualities of that cadre of individuals identified as most effectively meeting those needs. The study will examine to what extent those qualities exist among intra-agency groups from which effective managers evolve.

This study relates to previous work in the field in another important fashion. One of the study's foci is to identify agency-specific qualities. However, the study is national in scope rather than regional, and looks at several, as opposed to one particular law enforcement or public safety agency. A major objective in this regard is to determine if there are effective management qualities, or characteristics universal to the field of law enforcement and public safety which can be used as identifiers.

The theoretical propositions to be tested are that management potential can be reliably assessed, and varying

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degrees of individual personality, cognition, and skills-based performance potential can be identified.

Nature of the Study

This study was exploratory and descriptive. Twenty-one variables were examined, subsumed under the following headings:

Demographic:

When investigating causality, the phenomenon of contingent conditions should be addressed. Certain personality factors at certain levels of display will increase one's potential for development into an effective manager. How this potential might be realized is also contingent upon the exposure, knowledge, training and experience one receives. This is where the assessment of demographic and logistical factors play an important role.

One of the objectives of this study is to demonstrate concomitant variation, i.e., the extent to which it is inferred the assessed personality, demographic and logistical variables interact to test stated hypotheses. Data were collected on geographic and agency type for their probative value. When looking at measurements of those variables indicative of experience (skills, knowledge and abilities), what is actually being assessed is the maturity, i.e., how proficiently do individuals develop skills. When attempting to assess maturity, important factors for consideration are age, education, tenure,

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assignments and rank.

Age was examined as to indicated relationships between age and effective management.

Tenure, or time on the job, is an important criterion. Tenure can be defined as the opportunity to gain maturity. Any benefit derived from a learning experience can usually be accomplished through time. If one seeks to gain that which is to be obtained by the learning experience, one must then take advantage of available time to cultivate what is acquired. If accomplished, the result is that wisdom which develops through maturity. Maturity is not a concomitant of age; it is a concomitant of how one uses time.

Assignments were also studied. In addition to viewing time as the opportunity to profit from one's experiences, how enriched is one's environment will in large part also contribute to that person's maturity. An individual who has had long exposure to an environment that is not enriched by diversified learning experiences will in all probability not have an experience quotient as high as the person who might have had shorter exposure to a much richer environment. The same principle applies to one's occupation. The combination and quality of tenure and environment, i.e., diversification and richness of occupational exposure, are variables which might prove viable indicators of management potential.

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Education was examined to ascertain if it played a prominent role in executive management. Knowledge cannot be ignored as a significant factor. If all things were equal, the person with more tenure could be the most likely candidate. Since things are seldom if ever equal, we cannot depend on such neat packaging. For example, if the less tenured candidate possesses greater incorporating (comprehension) ability than the more tenured candidate, the less tenured candidate (depending on the equality of environmental enrichment) could conceivably be the better candidate. We must, however, be as practical as possible in our attempts to assess knowledge.

The purpose could be practically served by learning the following. Theoretically, the more knowledgeable the candidates for management consideration are, the more apt they are to have the knowledge base required for effective management. We are not speaking of technocratic knowledge per se; it is assumed people being considered for executive management positions have already demonstrated sufficient technocratic knowledge. In addition to knowledge of the department or agency, candidates would also have to possess substantive knowledge in general. This knowledge would have to be broad-based rather than limited to a specialty in an agency or department. Because most law enforcement agencies cannot give extensive educational sabbaticals to their managers, what must be ascertained is the level of formal

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education they have otherwise acquired. Who is being sought is the person with well-rounded intellect. One of the hypotheses to be tested is whether higher levels of formal education on the college or university level play a significant or contributory role in the development of an effective manager, especially concerning cognitive ability.

Rank was examined for the following reasons. Beyond skills and knowledge, there is the variable of organizational adaptability. This variable is most aptly demonstrated by how well one functions in various assignments. A desirable trait among effective managers is adaptability. The varying nature of the law enforcement function dictates its managers be flexible and adaptable so different assignments might be successfully carried out. It is theorized the promoted, appointed or designated positions held in the agency give some indication of diversity of the occupational and management role. This diversity can also serve as an indication of acquired management ability. The greater the number of positions successfully held, particularly among the higher ranks, the more significant the indication of demonstrable management capability. Where this holds import for prediction is that if the hypothesis as stated is tenable, then giving optimum exposure to those who demonstrate high management potential could conceivably increase their ability to be effective managers. The study of rank can provide

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indication about the development and progression of the variables addressed in this study. If differences between ranks are indicated, e.g., the higher the rank, the greater the display of certain variables, this suggests these variables contribute to the development of staff as they rise through the ranks.

Race was examined to see if there were significant differences in the demonstration of potential.

Sex, like race, was examined to see if there were significant differences in the demonstration of potential.

Theoretically then, the higher the skill, knowledge and ability indicators of individuals, the greater the potential to display experience levels necessary for effective management.

Personality:

Beyond skills, knowledge and abilities, there is also a need for measurement of positive management traits. Included among these traits are personality factors found conducive to a stable, assertive management type desired by law enforcement agencies. Earlier mention was made of consensus that an effective manager should possess certain character, or personality traits. Some of the more desirable personal attributes of an effective executive manager in law enforcement are the ability to think critically, cope with stressful situations, work long and hard, and have organizational loyalty. The effective manager should also possess organizing as well as analytical skills, be upwardly

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mobile, professionally assertive, and emotionally stable.

Consistent with attempts to measure the above-mentioned qualities, Gordon (1978), Watson and Glaser (1980), and Jenkins (1979), have identified certain personality factors which can be subsumed under three broad headings--personality, cognition, and Type 'A' behavior.

A personality constellation found to be prevalent among effective executive managers may be measured by how well the following characteristics are displayed:

Ascendancy (upward mobility): a trait of high performers and assertive people who are self-assured.

Responsibility: found among those who place a high value on being dependable.

Sociability: identification with the organization hierarchy and social interactivity.

Cautiousness: consideration of matters carefully before deciding.

Personal Relations: the ability to motivate personnel. There should be empathy, and the ability to be constructively critical.

Vigor: energy devoted to the organization; the ability to accomplish more than the average person.

Cognition:

Critical Thinking Ability: Effective executive managers must

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possess the ability to think critically. This includes what Watson and Glaser (1980), have defined as an ability to recognize the existence of problems and an acceptance of the general need for evidence in support of what is asserted to be true, as well as defining a problem, drawing valid conclusions and judging the validity of inferences. This is accomplished by looking at (1) attitudes of inquiry that involve an ability to recognize the existence of problems and an acceptance of the general need for evidence in support of what is asserted to be true; (2) knowledge of the nature of valid inferences, abstractions, and generalizations in which the weight or accuracy of different kinds of evidence are logically determined; and (3) skills in employing and applying the above attitudes and knowledge. The assessment should demonstrate one's ability to define a problem, select pertinent information for the solution of a problem, the ability to recognize stated and unstated assumptions, formulate and select relevant and promising hypotheses as well as the ability to draw valid conclusions and judge the validity of inferences. This is accomplished through the employment of Inference: discriminating among degrees of truth or falsity of inferences drawn from given data; Recognition of Assumptions: recognizing unstated assumptions or presuppositions in given statements or assertions; Deduction: determining whether certain conclusions necessarily follow from information in given

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statements or premises; Interpretation: weighing evidence and deciding if generalizations or conclusions based on the given data are warranted; and, Evaluation of Arguments: distinguishing between arguments that are strong and relevant and those that are weak or irrelevant to a particular question at issue.

Original Thinking Ability: people who Gordon (1978) describes as liking to work on difficult problems, who like to think about new ideas.

Type 'A' Behavior

Effective executive managers possess certain qualities which can contribute to the success of an organization. Some of these qualities are identified by Jenkins (1979), as high levels of job involvement and career commitment, competitiveness, as well as a sense of time urgency, and personal achievement motivation. Effective managers have the ability to tolerate stress. This ability can be measured by examining the variables of achievement drive, speed and impatience (tolerance thresholds), career commitment, and competitive drive.

Achievement Drive is the quality of self-motivation and the desire to accomplish. It is a quality possessed by "self-starters," who need little if any direction or supervision, and who take pride in accomplishment.

Speed and Impatience (Tolerance Thresholds) are the levels to which speed and impatience are demonstrated by effective

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managers.

Career Commitment is self-explanatory, and this study attempts to see if there are notable differences between the executive and nonexecutive populations.

Competitive Drive is a factor assumed to be part of the makeup of successful, effective people. This study attempts to see if this is true of the population under study.

It is theorized where a manager or manager-candidate quantitatively or qualitatively displays these attributes, the greater potential the individual has for being an effective manager. Some indication of those attributes, before selection of an individual for the management role, will assist in minimizing selection risk. The following are the formal hypothesis and their rationale.

• There are certain demographic, personality, cognitive and type 'A' variables which are significantly more represented among that population considered to be effective managers than are to be found in the general, nonexecutive population. Effective managers are not effective by chance. There are components to their makeup which allow them to be effective. These elements can be identified and utilized for management selection and development.

• There are significant relationships between variables that appear among the executive group which do not significantly occur

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among the nonexecutive group. Certain combinations of factors contribute to making a manager effective. The relationships between these variables significantly delineate the effective executive manager from the nonexecutive population.

◦ There are individuals among the nonexecutive group who display potential levels similar to those exhibited by the effective manager population. Also, significant relationships occur among both groups, but usually have stronger representation among the executive sample. While not all the nonexecutive population can be effective leaders, there is a cadre among this group which display such potential. This would indicate there is an employee resource within agencies for management selection and development.

Purpose and Rationale

The objective of this study is to develop a law enforcement executive management (LEEM) profile. This profile will provide a comprehensive indication of the potential of individuals to be effective managers based on agency-specific, concrete indications of certain personality characteristics, as well as the skills, knowledge, and abilities of executive managers who have demonstrated their ability to perform effectively within those agencies. This can be accomplished by providing agencies with an executive management profile of agencies in general, as well as profiles of individuals for management selection and development.

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The profile will highlight specific areas which clearly and significantly identify individuals who display executive management potential, irrespective of race, sex, age or rank. The purpose is to provide law enforcement and other public service agencies the ability to reduce chance in the selection of their executive level managers, and assist in the creation of viable management development programs. The goal is to provide a practical method of indicating if individuals possess the qualities which have been demonstrated among effective managers. If the potential is demonstrated, the findings can be utilized as a component of management identification, selection and development processes. A further goal is to provide a cost-effective means of determining management potential of large or small groups, through on-site assessments, which provide global as well as specific indications of employees' capacities not available through other assessment processes.

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METHOD

SUBJECTS

Subjects were drawn from law enforcement agencies across the nation to ensure regional as well as national representation. The subjects' agencies were on the federal, state and local levels. The following agencies participated in the study.

National Sample

- Federal Bureau of Investigation
- Federal Bureau of Prisons

Northeast Sample

- New York City Police Department
- Maryland State Police Department
- Maryland State Department of Corrections
- Baltimore County Police Department

Northwest Sample

- Seattle Police Department
- King County (Seattle) Department of Corrections
- Washington State Department of Corrections

Southeast Sample

- Miami Police Department
- Dade County (Miami) Department of Corrections

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Southwest Sample

- Los Angeles Police Department
- Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department

Each agency was asked to provide a sample of their incumbent executive management staff which represented the agency's population of managers who were considered effective. These were executive managers on the highest levels, e.g., police captains, deputy inspectors, inspectors, and division chiefs. The reality existed of all sex and ethnic groups not being represented on these levels consistent with their total numbers within an agency. In light of this, the only condition was that the managers selected be representative of that cadre of executive managers who were considered effective. Because the study was national in scope, there was gender and ethnic representation among the total executive sample.

A second, nonexecutive population was provided by each agency which consisted of those ranks from which executive managers ascend. These ranks were from entry and line officer level to supervisor and manager; e.g., police patrol officer or correction officer, sergeant and lieutenant (or their agency equivalent). All conditions were met in this group to ensure complete agency ethnic and gender representation, i.e., where applicable, each agency provided subjects which fit the following conditions:

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Nonexecutive Population Variable Assignment

	White		Black		Hispanic		Other	
Line Staff	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
1st Level Supervisor	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
2nd Level Supervisor	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F

A total of 148 executive managers and 364 nonexecutives participated in the study.

The nonexecutive subjects were randomly selected from the entire pool of each agency to meet the conditions outlined above. All participants were informed that their participation was voluntary, and that all data would be collected in a fashion to ensure anonymity. Where applicable, informed consent was obtained. All participating agencies received enough volunteers to achieve random selection. Treatment of participants was in accord with Principle 9 (Research with Human Participants) of the Ethical Standards of the American Psychological Association.

APPARATUS

The components of the assessment battery were administered in the following order. First, a demographic questionnaire was completed by all participants providing their age, race, sex, rank, tenure, number of assignments and formal higher education. Assessment protocols, extensively used in private industry and

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applicable to the law enforcement field, were utilized. These protocols were also selected for their predictive, content and construct validity.

PROCEDURE

All participants were given identical instructions. They were informed of the rationale for this research effort, and why they were participating. They were advised that the information was to be anonymous and confidential and they should not put any information in their responses that could individually identify them. The entire process was a "paper and pencil" type, where no participant could see the responses of another. There were no oral interviews or responses required.

The data were statistically assessed, utilizing the Statistical Program for Social Sciences (SPSS) to determine statistically significant differences and relationships, as well as to provide descriptive statistical data. Each agency was assessed individually for its probative and comparative value to the collective assessment of all participating agencies. Additionally, percentile ranges were established and divided into triads, the highest, or quality triad consisting of all scores of the 70th through 90th percentiles. The variables of age, rank, tenure and education were treated as independent variables. They were assessed for their impact on each other as well as on all other assessed variables.

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FINDINGS

Demographic Variables

Certain demographic variables were looked at as to their impact on what comprises the effective manager in law enforcement and public safety. These variables are constants in that everyone in the law enforcement profession is impacted by them, the only difference being the levels of impact. Beyond age, race, and sex, data were gathered on rank, tenure, education and number of assignments to note any differences or relationships between the groups of subjects. These data were also assessed for their relationships to each other as well as their relationships to the other variables investigated in this study.

There were no statistically significant differences found in the display of potential when gender and ethnicity were assessed. This is consistent with the findings of Heimovics and Herman (1988), as well as Chusmir and Koberg (1986). The following describes what was indicated by all other variables.

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Age

Age is the medium through which individuals can achieve intellectual maturity. As will be demonstrated throughout this report, studies have indicated that the utilization of age in the development of skills, knowledge and abilities can contribute to the effectiveness of an individual, particularly in leadership situations. However, the relationship between age and the development of skills, knowledge and abilities is one of quality, not quantity. Merely growing older does not guarantee intellectual maturity. This axiom was positively demonstrated by the national sample when the data regarding age were examined.

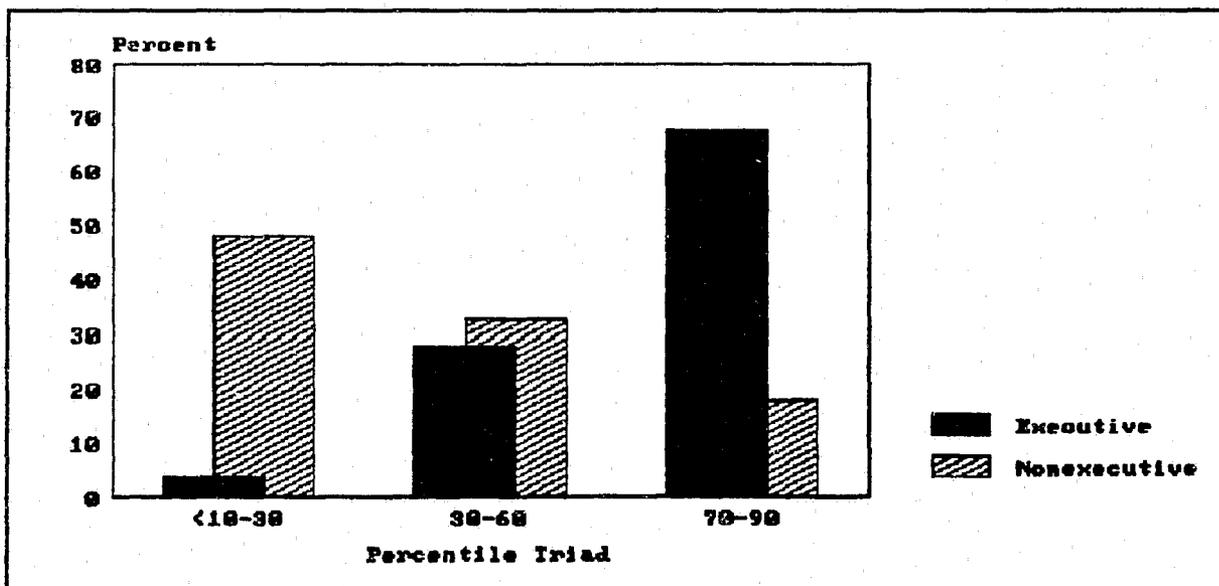


Figure 1: Age

As anticipated, the mean age of the executive sample was significantly higher than the mean age of the nonexecutive sample

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($F = 1.63, <.01$), the difference equalling 9.10 years. The executive sample had an age range of 34 to 60 years, with an average age of 45. The nonexecutive sample had an age range of 21 to 52 years, with an average age of 36.

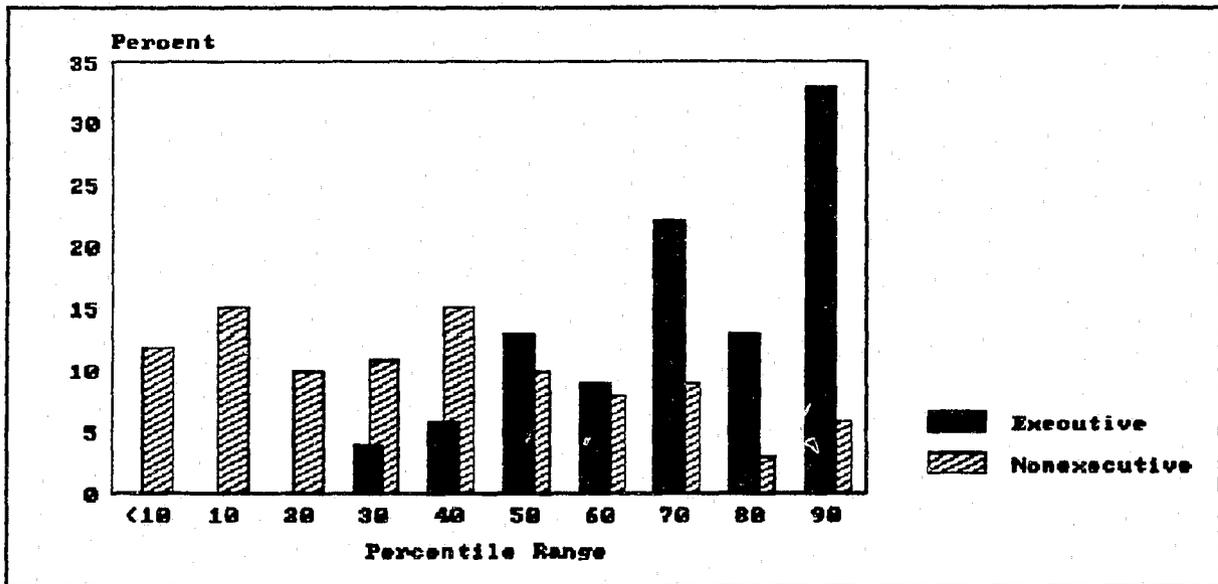


Figure 2: Age Percentiles

Age was treated as an independent variable. Its impact on other assessed variables was investigated to determine what role age played in the display (or lack thereof) of potential for effective management. The 70 percent age overlap between the executive and nonexecutive populations, as illustrated in Figure 2, provided ample resource for this analysis.

It will be demonstrated throughout the findings that age, like gender or ethnicity, is not a factor that mitigates against the display of potential for effective executive leadership. The

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higher display of leadership potential is evident along the entire age spectrum in both populations. No evidence was found to suggest that age had a negative impact on any of the variables studied. The findings suggest that, as with gender and ethnicity, age should not be a consideration in the selection and development of executive leadership.

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Rank

As individuals progress through the ranks within law enforcement and public safety agencies, there are anticipated, commensurate progressions. Some of these progressions are natural, such as age and tenure. There are others which, while anticipated, are not necessarily augmented by time. Among these are variables which indicate the potential for effective leadership. Rank, like age, was treated as an independent variable. Throughout this report are differences and similarities between the noted variables, among the different groups. What will be demonstrated is the representative progression among these variables through the ranks. The question to be answered is, are there variables which are more represented in a higher rank than are represented in a lower rank? This issue will be addressed as it relates to each variable under investigation.

Analysis of variance demonstrated significant difference between the mean age of the samples in the assessment of rank-- the higher the rank, the older the average age ($F = 149.167$, $<.0001$). As individuals progressed through the ranks in the national sample, several personality and other variable progressions occurred which would indicate certain variables are necessary to the development of those skills, knowledge and abilities required for effective leadership; and can be developed

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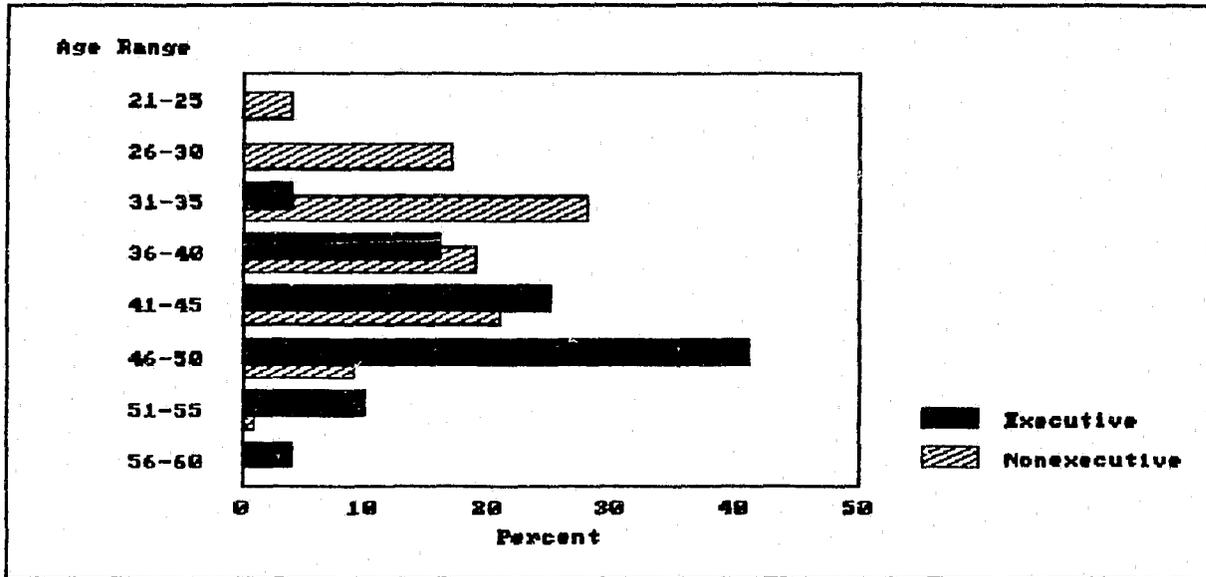


Figure 3: Rank and Age

as employees progress through the ranks. It could even be considered that such development contributes to rank progression. The reason this assumption can be made is, as noted in Figure 3, there is notable overlap regarding rank and age. This indicates that while age may be associated with rank, rank is not always a concomitant of age. The evidence that these qualities became more apparent as rank increased lends strength to the indications of certain variables being more noted in higher ranks, and could be considered necessary to rank progression. This will be articulated in the findings devoted to those specific variables.

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Tenure

As indicated by age, some employees in the younger as well as older age groups displayed the potential as well as the ability to be effective managers. This would suggest that whatever the age, those who aspire to leadership can take advantage of their time with an agency to develop the skills, knowledge and abilities consistent with effective leadership. A cogent example of this is that executive sample of the agency contained younger as well as older employees, as did the nonexecutive sample.

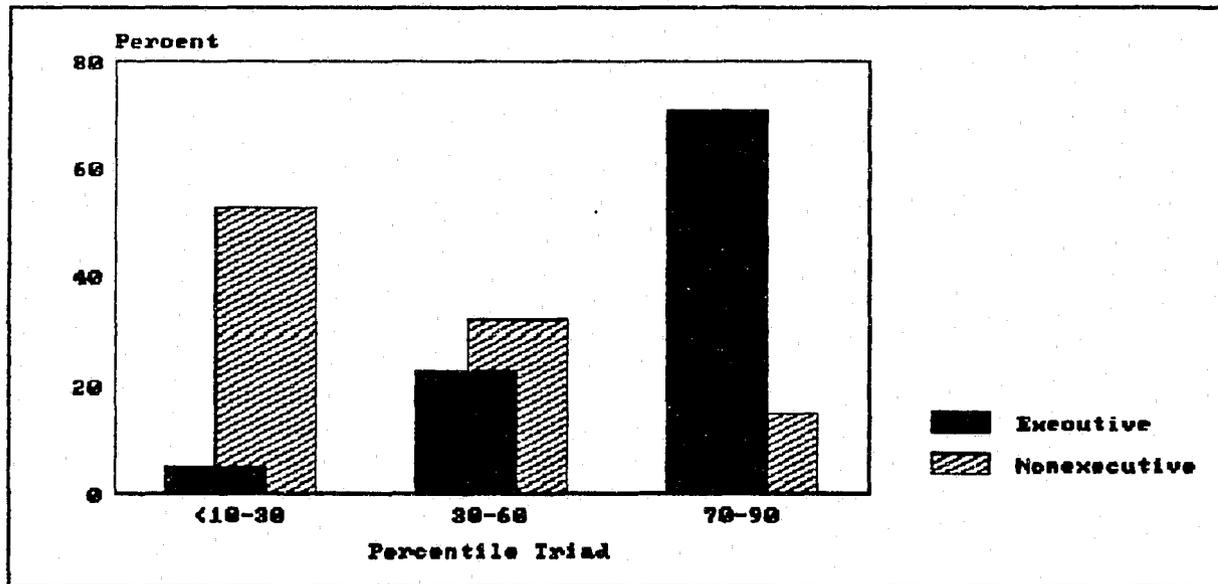


Figure 4: Tenure

No statistically significant differences were found between the means of both groups when the entire percentile spectrum was investigated. There were significant differences in the

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comparison of tenure to age ($F = 438.404, <.0001$), and rank ($F = 221.453, <.0001$). When the highest percentiles (70th through 90th) were investigated, the anticipated notable difference of the executive sample being higher was demonstrated. Fifteen percent of the nonexecutive sample was represented in the 70th through 90th percentiles. The executive sample had a tenure range of seven through 30 years, with an average of 20 years. The nonexecutive sample had a tenure range of one through 32 years, with an average of 10 years. A noteworthy indication is the quality of tenure can impact the ability of the individual. This will be demonstrated as relationships between tenure and other variables are examined.

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Education

There is no question that the pursuit of formal higher education can assist individuals in the development of cognitive and performance skills requisite to effective management. Chenault (1987) contends if executives are to be effective, they must be involved in long-term, integrated continuing education. This process includes blending of organizational and personal goals; emphasis on creative, independent thinking; and requires excellence in both critical and experimental learning. The environment which prepares people to benefit by this process is found in formal settings of higher education. Study on the college or university level helps in developing the mind-set necessary to address complex, abstract problems in an innovative, analytical, goal-oriented fashion. It is this type of mind-set required to approach and resolve the problems law enforcement managers must face. The findings concerning education suggest there is an awareness of this need among the personnel in the law enforcement profession.

In achieving higher education, there was a significant difference between the means of both samples ($F = 1.57, <.0001$). The executive sample was more highly educated than the nonexecutive sample. When all percentiles were formulated into triads and the percentages of both samples assessed, the differences between the samples were striking, particularly in

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the highest percentile triad.

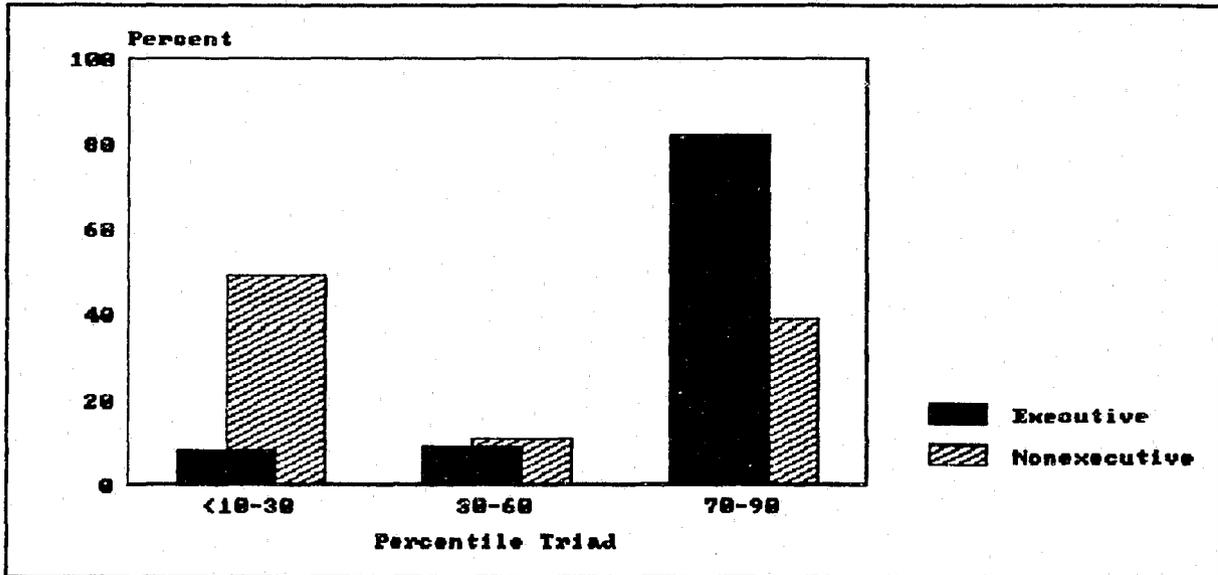


Figure 5: Education

The executive sample was much higher in college-level education. The executive sample displayed a higher formal education range of having less than one year's college education to obtaining a Ph.D. The average level of education was a bachelor's degree with one year's additional study. The nonexecutive sample displayed a higher formal education range of no college education to obtaining a master's degree with two years additional study. The average level of higher education was three year's undergraduate study. Analysis of variance indicated there were significant differences between education and age ($F = 38.206, <.0001$), rank ($F = 108.216, <.0001$), and tenure ($F = 80.273, <.0001$). In each instance, the executive population was

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higher. It was further indicated that education levels increased with age, rank and tenure.

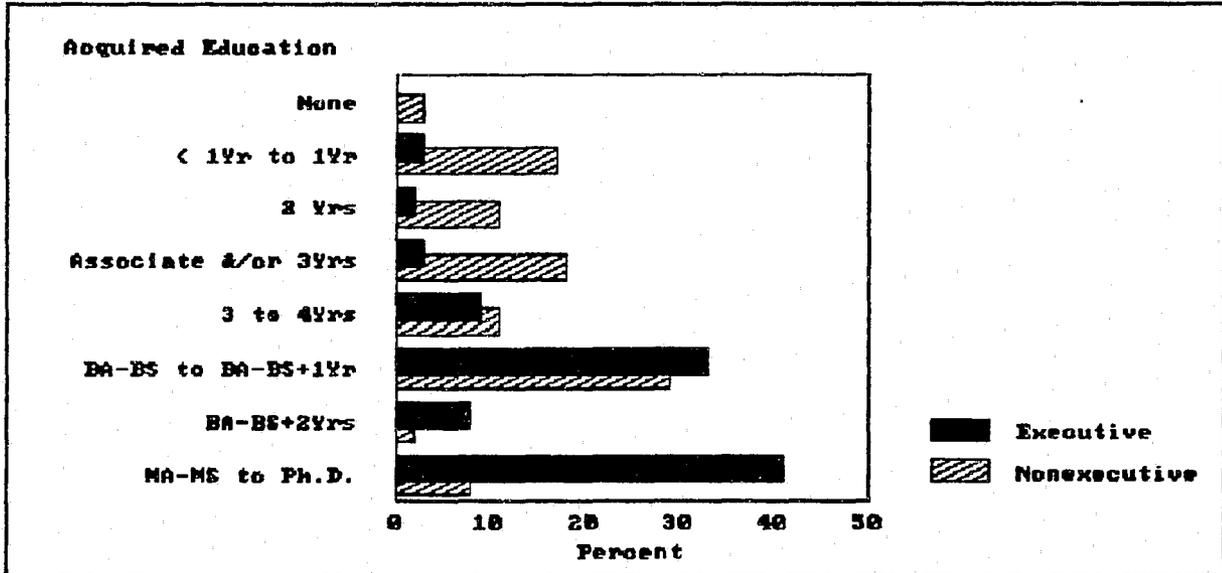


Figure 6: Education and Status

Another finding among the nonexecutive sample was, the higher the rank, the higher the level of education. When comparing the population of executives against the population of nonexecutives, it was anticipated the executive sample would have more education. A requirement of this study was the executive population be representative of people who were considered effective managers. It was assumed that, on the average, they would possess higher levels of education. The findings indicated the assumption was accurate. The nonexecutive sample, on the other hand, was a random sample. The only requirement was that they were representative of the agency population (sex, race

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and rank). As noted in the following table, the nonexecutive random sample indicated a higher average level of education commensurate with higher rank.

Table 1: Education and Nonexecutive Ranks

Rank	Average Level of Education
Line Staff	Three Years Undergraduate Study
1st Level Supervisor	Four Years Undergraduate Study
2nd Level Supervisor	Four Years Undergraduate Study and/or Associate Degree

Employees in the law enforcement profession apparently recognize that higher formal education is requisite to upward mobility. It is also necessary for the acquisition of skills and knowledge. Given this, the effective executive, as well as those who aspire to be executives, may pursue formal higher education as one of several media through which advancement and adequate performance might be achieved. While the findings in the nonexecutive sample were not equal to those of the executive sample, it is noteworthy that their education levels were quite high, and 39 percent of the nonexecutive sample displayed the same levels as the executive sample in the highest percentile triad.

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It can only be speculated at this point that, as with age, individuals who enter the agency and proceed to become executives either enter the agency earlier than nonexecutives, or apply themselves earlier in their careers and make a career commitment to the agency that some nonexecutives might not. A finding which buttresses this speculation is that of strong relationships between education and tenure. There was a .4827 ($p < .01$) relationship between education and tenure found among the executive sample. There was evidence among the nonexecutive population of a similar finding (.2720, $p < .01$) which, while slightly more than half as strong as that found among the executive population, was still statistically significant. This finding lends support to two premises articulated in the introduction: (1) regarding education and tenure, effective executives make better use of their time relative to personal improvement, as evidenced by the relationship between tenure and education; and, (2) there is a group among the nonexecutive population which indicates ability equal to that demonstrated by the executive population. This supports the hypothesis of an identifiable cadre within the nonexecutive population who display the potential to become effective managers. It also suggests that education could be considered a viable criterion for executive management selection and development, as both samples indicated a striving for higher levels of formal education.

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Assignments

Along with tenure, the various assignments an employee has serve as an opportunity for greater exposure to the different aspects of an agency. They can afford the employee a broader general knowledge which could prove beneficial in decision-making processes. There was a significant difference ($F = 1.56, <.01$), between the average range of assignments of both samples.

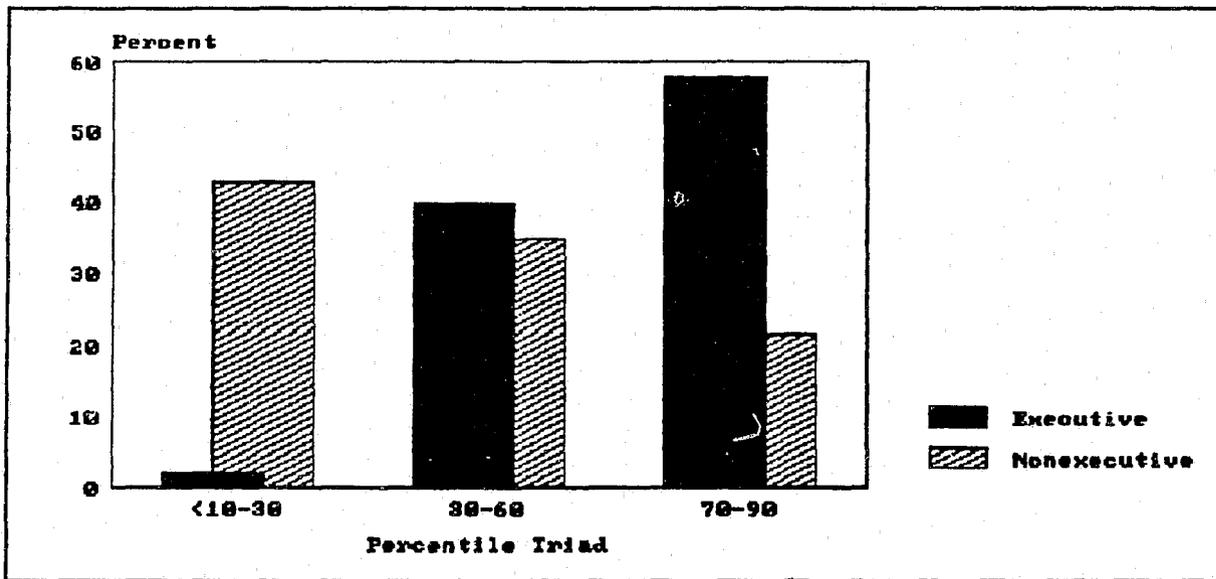


Figure 7: Assignments

The executive sample averaged 11 through 15 different assignments, while the nonexecutive sample averaged six through 10 assignments. The number of assignments increased progressively with age, tenure and education. The number of assignments increased progressively through the nonexecutive ranks (line staff, first and second level supervisors). They

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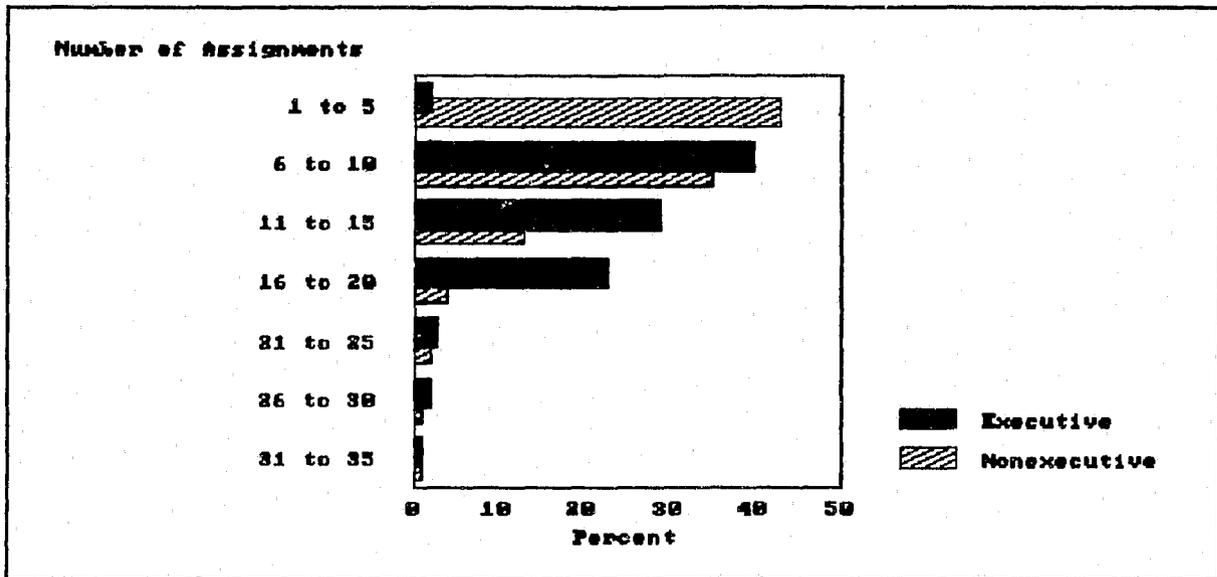


Figure 8: Agency Exposure

continued to increase through the first executive level, peaking at the second, and declining at the third (highest) executive manager level. This is understandable, considering the higher one ascends in the organizational pyramid, the fewer assignments there are.

There was substantial difference in the number of assignments--the executive sample having much greater exposure. What was also evident in the findings was that the employee population had diverse agency exposure. This suggests that agencies are sensitive to the need and benefit of having appropriate agency exposure. Agencies are making obvious efforts to ensure such exposure for its employee population.

These findings indicate the effective manager has had wide-

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ranging exposure to the agency. Such exposure could be beneficial to the potential manager, depending on how one makes use of this opportunity. As with age and tenure, quality and quantity are important, the better situations conceivably occurring when the employee takes full advantage of as many assignments as possible.

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Personality Variables

Private industry has long recognized that certain personality traits are more conducive to effective management than others. To some extent, this is also being recognized by the public sector. The complexities of law enforcement and other public safety agencies require personality types which are best suited for the demands endemic to managing agencies within the criminal justice system.

The personality variables noted in this segment are those which, through research and consensus, are necessary to the structure of the effective executive manager.

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Ascendancy (Upward Mobility)

Ascendancy is the need or desire to achieve and advance, as well as for personal growth. Gordon (1978) asserts people who are highly ascendant tend to be verbally assertive, sometimes aggressive, individuals. They are likely to employ confrontation to a greater than average degree in meeting challenges as well as in interpersonal interaction and are usually outspoken. They often present themselves as individuals with significant ego strength and convey an impression of confidence and competence.

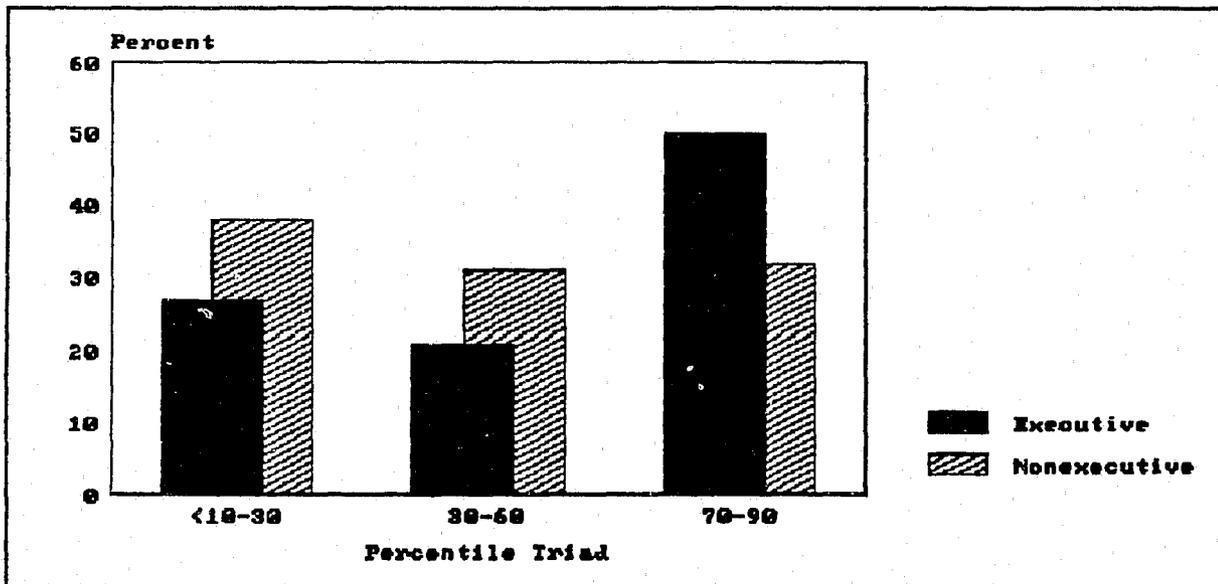


Figure 9: Upward Mobility

Within the national sample, upward mobility was in evidence in both populations. There was no significant difference between the degree in which ascendancy was expressed by both populations. Among the highest percentiles, the executive sample was notably

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higher in its expression of upward mobility than was the nonexecutive sample.

Age does not appear to mitigate against upward mobility. When the entire sample was assessed regarding age and ascendancy, analysis of variance indicated significant differences ($F = 9.84$, $<.002$), and linear regression analysis indicated that upward mobility increased with age. Table 2 demonstrates this, and indicates ascendancy progresses with age, peaking at the age range of 51 through 55, and then declining, but remaining comparatively high after 55 years of age.

Table 2: Age and Ascendancy (Upward Mobility)

Age Range	Percentile Range		
	<10-30	40-60	70-90
21-25	62%	0%	37%
26-30	40%	21%	40%
31-35	30%	35%	35%
36-40	44%	31%	23%
41-45	28%	25%	46%
46-50	28%	30%	42%
51-55	25%	17%	58%
56-60	00%	50%	50%

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This finding is consistent with that of McEnrue (1989), who found young as well as other employees who expressed a high level of organizational commitment were more willing to engage in self-development to prepare themselves for higher levels of organizational responsibility.

Rank was significantly associated with upward mobility ($F = 13.79, <.0002$), the higher the rank, the greater the degree of ascendancy expressed. Linear regression indicated the progression of ascendancy with rank, peaking at the next-to-highest executive rank, and then declining, but remaining comparatively high at the highest rank, as indicated in Table 3.

Table 3: Rank and Ascendancy (Upward Mobility)

Rank	Percentile Range		
	<10-30	40-60	70-90
Line Staff	41%	30%	30%
1st Level Supervisor	35%	27%	37%
2nd Level Supervisor	32%	35%	32%
1st Level Executive	23%	31%	44%
2nd Level Executive	16%	8%	77%
3rd Level Executive	12%	47%	41%

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It was also indicated that tenure and education were associated with upward mobility. The effective executive (and those who aspire to ascend through the ranks) obviously utilize their time with the organization to develop themselves intellectually as well as in other ways to first achieve and then meet the demands of advancement. When tenure and levels of ascendancy were examined, it was found that upward mobility increased significantly with tenure ($F = 8.97, <.003$). This observation is consistent with that of Gandy (1983), who found a combination of education and longevity seemed to be an important factor in upward mobility. Table 4 indicates upward mobility continues to increase with tenure.

Table 4: Tenure and Ascendancy (Upward Mobility)

Tenure (in Years)	Percentile Range		
	<10-30	40-60	70-90
1 to 5	36%	30%	32%
6 to 10	39%	26%	35%
11 to 15	35%	38%	26%
16 to 20	37%	22%	42%
21 to 25	22%	26%	48%
26 to 30	17%	26%	57%

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Lawler (1985) noted that education has been associated with improvements in skill levels and upward mobility. The findings of this investigation support those of Lawler, and further indicate that education does not always lead to agency upward mobility. While, as noted earlier in this report, the level of higher education found among the executive sample was significantly higher than that found among the nonexecutive sample, the nonexecutive sample also displayed notable levels of higher education. When the differences between ascendancy and education were examined for the entire population, it was found that while ascendancy does progress with higher levels of education, the differences were not statistically significant.

Table 5: Education and Ascendancy (Upward Mobility)

Level of Higher Education	Percentile Range		
	<10-30	40-60	70-90
None	66%	33%	00%
<1 to 2 Yrs Undergraduate	43%	31%	26%
2 to 4 Yrs Undergraduate and/or Associate Degree	31%	28%	40%
Bachelor's Degree to 2 Yrs study beyond Bachelor	34%	21%	43%
Master's Degree to Ph.D.	23%	35%	43%

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It should not be assumed that everyone in the organizational environment who seeks self-improvement also pursues mobility through the ranks. Observations made during my 30 year association in the field have led me to conclude the following. People in the executive rank have shown some level of ascendancy, and have to varying degree fulfilled some upward mobility needs by achieving executive status as well as education. The nonexecutive sample also clearly demonstrated the need to achieve through education, but all of them do not necessarily express the need to ascend. The possibility exists of people being achievement oriented but not organizationally ascendant, and acquiring a formal education could be for advancement exclusive of the organization. Every person among the executive group has expressed the desire to rise through the organizational ranks, and has actively sought to do so. There is no evidence to suggest that all employees in the subordinate ranks have the desire to ascend to executive level rank. Their educational accomplishments are perhaps for personal growth and achievement, to become better at what they currently do, or for purposes other than elevation to the highest organizational ranks.

Thirty-two percent of the entire nonexecutive sample indicated the highest ascendancy potential (70th through 90th percentiles). This suggests a significant part of the nonexecutive sample is upwardly mobile. When considered along

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with the high education levels of the nonexecutive group, the findings indicate almost one-third of the nonexecutive population displays the potential levels consistent with those found among the highest levels of the executive population of the national sample.

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Responsibility

Responsibility is the inherent need to be considered responsible and trustworthy. The individual who has a significant responsibility factor places a high value on being responsible. This person attempts to be so not only for recognition by others but also for the personal satisfaction of being responsible. These individuals are considered to have high personal motivation, and need little if any prompting to accomplish a task. This is a personality trait common among successful executives.

There were no statistically significant differences found between the two samples. This was also the case when the variables of age, rank, tenure and education were examined. The finding that the nonexecutive sample indicated potential levels equal to those displayed by the executive sample is encouraging. It strengthens previous evidence presented in this report of a viable group of candidates among the nonexecutive ranks who are similar in many respects to the incumbent effective executive managers. As these nonexecutives with demonstrably high potential are identified early on, they can be developed as they ascend through the ranks so upon reaching executive management status, they are better equipped to handle that responsibility.

There was extreme homogeneity among the executive and nonexecutive population in the high display of responsibility.

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This included the investigation of the impacts of age, rank, tenure and education on all other assessed variables. The only, and comparatively minor, difference was the highest indicated levels of responsibility were found among the most highly educated, as noted in Table 6.

Table 6: Education and Responsibility

Level of Higher Education	Percentile Range		
	<10-30	40-60	70-90
None	33%	33%	33%
<1 to 2 Yrs Undergraduate	34%	36%	31%
2 to 4 Yrs Undergraduate and/or Associate Degree	43%	30%	27%
Bachelor's Degree to 2 Yrs study beyond Bachelor	37%	30%	33%
Master's Degree to Ph.D.	35%	28%	37%

As mentioned, both samples displayed high responsibility potential. The indications are that the personnel of the national sample have a personal investment in functioning responsibly. This supports the common belief that, usually, responsible people are attracted to the various law enforcement occupations.

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Emotional Stability

Emotionally stable individuals possess the ability to tolerate anxiety and stress. They have sufficient emotional control, and are neither hypersensitive nor prone to hysterical reaction. They exhibit adequate tolerance thresholds and good coping skills.

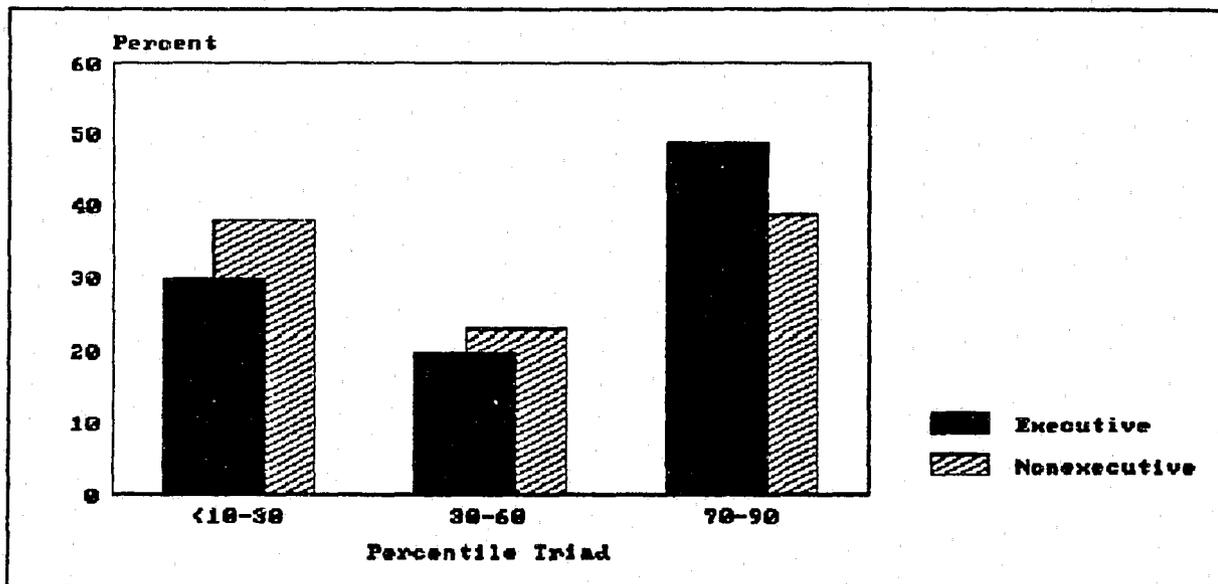


Figure 10: Emotional Stability

Both samples displayed average to above average levels of emotional stability, and there were no statistically significant differences between the means of the samples. When the highest levels (70th through 90th percentiles) were examined, they demonstrated that both samples were strongly depicted, with the executive sample having slightly greater representation. Linear regression analysis of the entire population indicated levels of

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emotional stability increased with age, rank, tenure and education. As they relate to age, these findings are consistent with those of Stoner and Panek (1985), who found an increase in sensitiveness, social values, and restraint with age. Analysis of variance indicated a significant ($F = 4.62, <.03$) difference between tenure and emotional stability, emotional stability increasing consistently with tenure. There was also a .001 correlation found between emotional stability and responsibility among both samples.

These findings are consistent with others of this study, which suggest there is a notable level of homogeneity among both groups. The findings further suggest a real resource pool among the nonexecutive sample in noted executive manager qualities.

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Sociability

The findings indicated an inverse relationship between successful executives and high levels of sociability, possibly due to the strong identification executives have with the organizational hierarchy. Sociability refers to identification with, and the need to be accepted by organizations, groups or individuals. Executives who display high levels of sociability indicate a strong association with the organizational hierarchy, which appears to contribute to superordinate-subordinate distancing. Research and observations over the last 30 years have led me to believe that high level, effective executives are more concerned with being productive than popular. They will risk disfavor by their subordinates to achieve agency objectives. The findings of the LEEM Profile assessment on the national sample suggest the behavior of the effective executive in law enforcement is consistent with that belief.

There was no significant statistical difference between the average scores of both samples on the sociability scale. As indicated in Figure 11, on Page 54, the executive sample had much less representation than the nonexecutive population among the higher levels (70th through 90th percentiles). Thirty percent of the nonexecutive population demonstrated sociability levels equal to those most prevalent among the executive sample.

Sociability is not always a factor among those who, as

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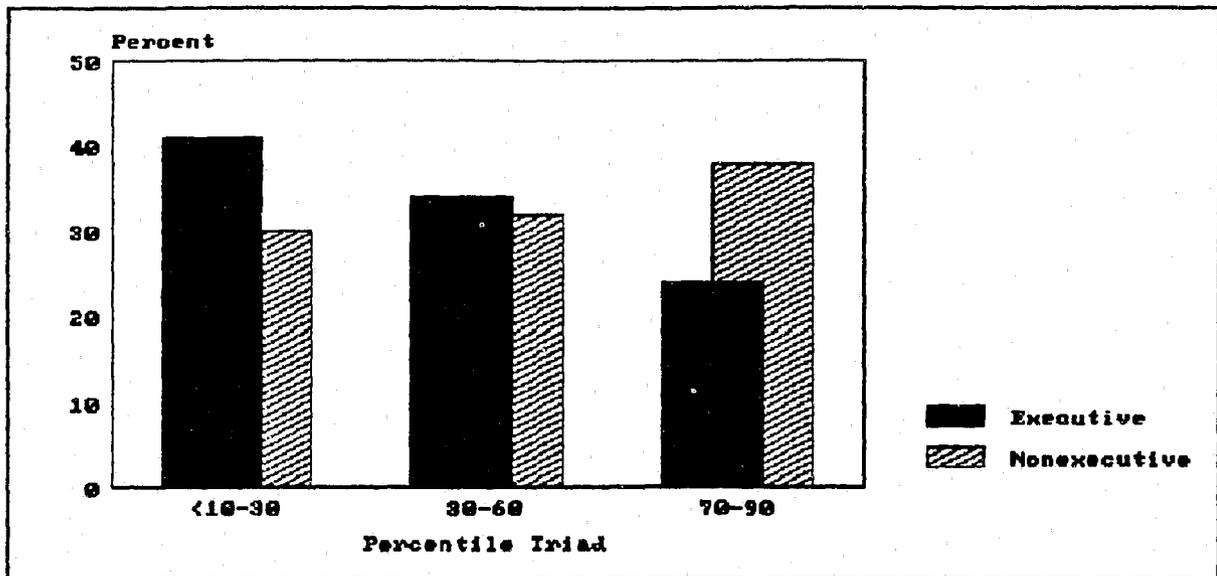


Figure 11: Sociability

stated earlier, prefer to be productive rather than popular. It is recognized the leadership role may require a degree of social distance between superordinate and subordinate. The variable of sociability should not be confused with social adjustment, as effective executives are usually found to be socially well-adjusted individuals. Nor should sociability be confused with the variable of personal relations, which will be addressed later in this report. Sociability, basically, is a need to be accepted. People who score high on the sociability scale are those who have a strong investment in social interaction. Successful executives are those who have strong identification with the organization and a need to be part of its hierarchy. As such, effective executives recognize that to be successful, there

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must be viable communication on many levels. The communication from superordinate to subordinate must usually be more authoritarian than peer-related or superordinate communication. This dictates status-appropriate social interaction. Although further study is required regarding this phenomenon, it is assumed at this point that the need and desire to belong to the organizational superior ranks, along with achievement drive, is a contributing factor to an executive manager being effective.

There is a second aspect about sociability which contributes to social distance between superordinate and subordinate. It too has to do with need, but from a different perspective. There is the need on the part of the effective executive manager to belong among the highest, or at least higher levels of the organizational hierarchy. There is the desire to be in command, to be a leader, and this need is strengthened by and through identification with the higher levels of the organizational structure. The strength of this need contributes to superordinate-subordinate distancing.

Further evidence of this is that the findings suggest sociability may be a function of age, but not of tenure, rank and education. Linear regression analysis indicated a positive relationship between age and sociability, but inverse relationships between sociability and the variables of rank, tenure and education. It was stated earlier in these sociability

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findings that social distancing between superordinate and subordinate was consistent with increase in rank. the reader will recall that while there was considerable overlap in age and rank, the greatest amount of tenure and education were noted among the higher (executive) ranks. It would follow that if tenure and education were more represented among that population which manifested lower levels of sociability, then lower sociability levels would be indicated when these variables were individually assessed. Further evidence of the noted desire and identification was found in a significant relationship between sociability and ascendancy (upward mobility). The executive sample indicated a .7528 (<.001) relationship, which was stronger than the significant relationship indicated by the nonexecutive sample (.6501, <.001). This strong showing in the nonexecutive ranks is probably a result of the large group within the nonexecutive sample (30 percent) which had sociability scores similar to those expressed by the largest number of executives.

There is the saying, "It is lonely at the top." This is due, in part, to there being less people at the top. Given this, it is hypothesized that executives are less sociable than subordinates because they have fewer peers to identify with and more subordinates to distance from. However, it is this distancing, when used effectively, which allows the executive to make logical, rather than emotional decisions. This is not to

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say that effective executives should be completely dispassionate in their decision-making processes and other leadership functions. Effective executives should have the appropriate blend of compassion and understanding, along with a clear sense of purpose, duty and process, to function for the greater good of agency and personnel.

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Self-Esteem

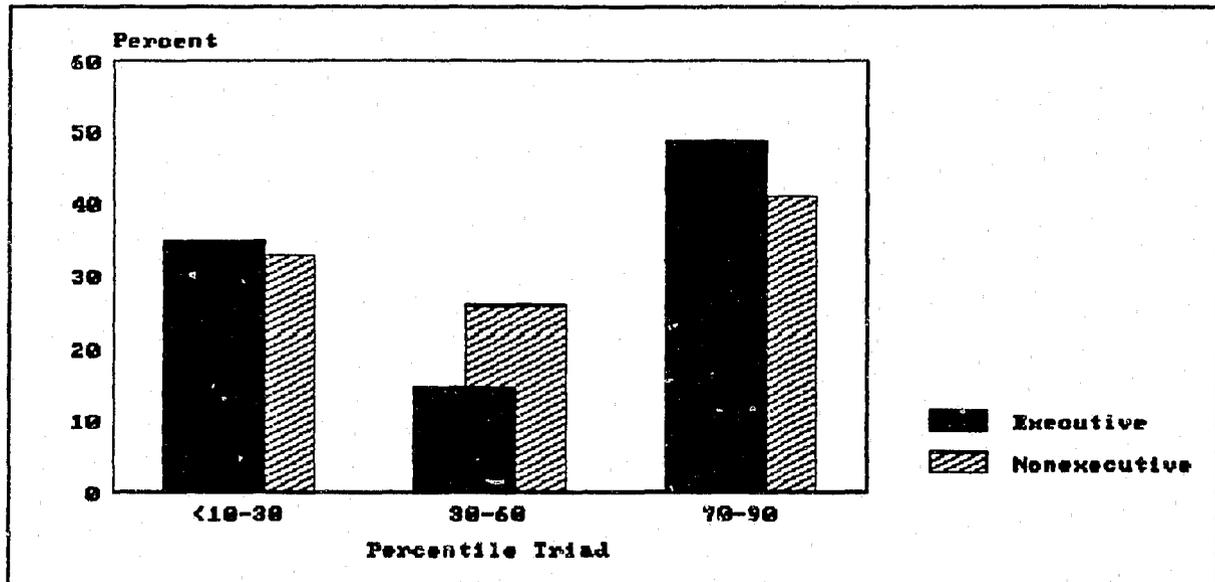


Figure 12: Self-Esteem

Self-esteem typifies a positive self-image, a factor necessary to the personality construct of the effective executive manager. Self-esteem is how good one feels about oneself; the belief individuals have in their own ability. It can act as a catalyst for effective performance on many levels. Massey and Palmer (1982) have found that high self-esteem mitigates against occupational stress, which promotes positive performance. They also found this occurred irrespective of tenure, age, or rank. Ghosh and Deb (1983) found that self-esteem had a significant influence on job involvement. If what one does complements an individual's self-perception and reinforces self-worth, then a greater investment can be made in achieving in that arena. Put

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another way, it is a matter of pride in performance.

There were no significant differences between the average scores of both samples across the entire percentile spectrum. Linear regression analysis did demonstrate that self-esteem increased with age, rank, tenure and education. There were positive relationships found among both samples between self-esteem and emotional stability. The executive sample displayed a stronger relationship (.5584, <.001), than did the nonexecutive sample (.2598, <.01). Self-esteem and ascendancy also displayed positive relationships among both samples, the executive sample (.7103, <.001), displaying a slightly greater correlation than the nonexecutive (.6934, <.001). A slightly stronger relationship existed at the .001 level among the nonexecutive sample (.5587), than among the executive sample (.5300), with regard to self-esteem and sociability. This is interesting, given what was indicated in this report on sociability levels and status. These findings indicate there is a positive self-image among all assessed occupational levels of the national sample.

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Cautiousness

In this instance, the cautious person is one who typically considers matters carefully before deciding, and who thinks before acting. There were no statistically significant differences between the average potential displayed by both groups, irrespective of age, rank, tenure or education. The size of that portion of the nonexecutive sample whose cautiousness levels were similar to the highest levels displayed by the executive samples was large.

This indicates there are staff at all levels who display this ability. The evidence further suggested a higher indication of this ability as age increased, but not so with rank, tenure and education. There were indications of slight decreases in the levels of cautiousness consistent with increases in these three variables. While it is beyond the scope of reporting the findings to attempt an explanation for this phenomenon, it will be a consideration for further study. Such consideration will be on risk-taking behavior among those who are in higher positions of authority, more experienced, and more highly educated. Such people are not prone to impulsivity, but can be spontaneous. They are usually perceived to be quick but careful thinkers who take prudent risks when the occasions demand.

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Personal Relations

Personal relations is the process of how one deals with people, the capacity to direct and motivate. It is the attention paid to making an operation run smoothly and harmoniously-- preferably through motivation, such as supportive leader behavior (Niebur and Davis, 1984), but if necessary, through control. Persons who score high in this regard can display patience and tolerance when dealing with the often abstract world of the law enforcement executive. These individuals can either be accommodating or demanding, as circumstances require, to ensure effective function. The responsibility of leadership carries with it the ability, on some level to be patient, understanding, empathic and even nurturant (within reason). While the effective

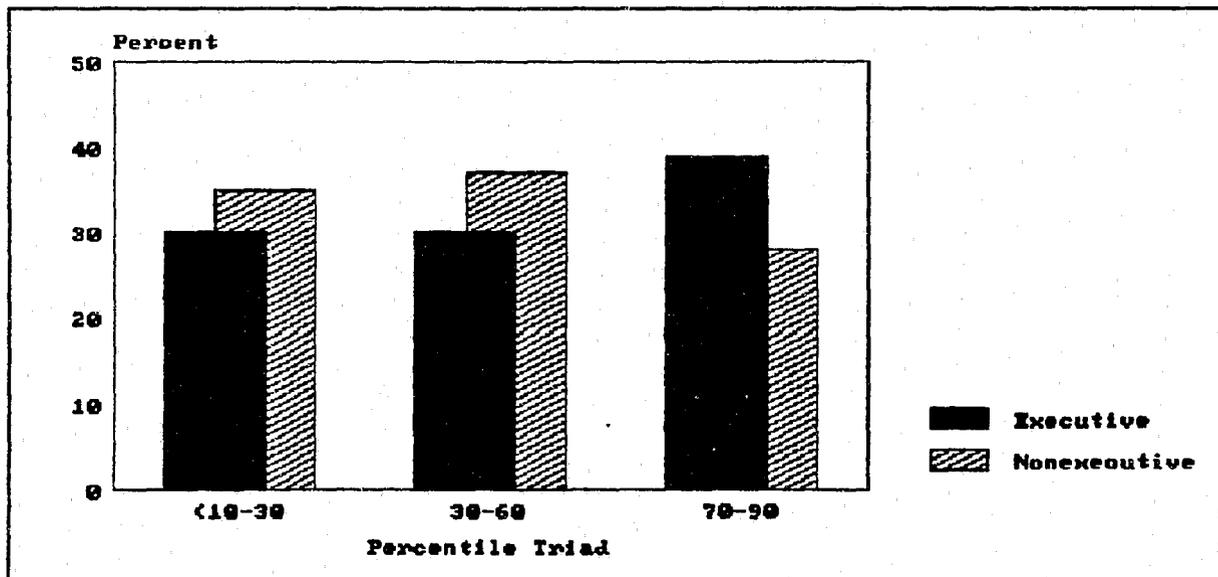


Figure 13: Personal Relations

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executive may not have an overpowering need to be accepted by everyone, there should be the ability to relate well to superordinate, peer, and subordinate.

The executive sample mean was not statistically different from that of the nonexecutive sample. Analysis of variance did indicate a significant difference between personal relations and age ($F = 4.125, <.04$), as well as personal relations and rank ($F = 4.491, <.03$). Linear regression analysis did indicate that personal relations increased significantly with age and rank. While not statistically significant, personal relations also increased with tenure and education. Twenty-eight percent of the nonexecutive population demonstrated potential similar to that of the highest executive levels. Although this study is focused on the attributes necessary to effective executive management, the capacity to direct and motivate people is a factor necessary to good law enforcement function. That so notable a percentage of the nonexecutive sample also displayed quality content in this variable indicates not only the potential for staff to relate well to each other, but for personnel to relate well to the public.

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Vigor

This variable comprises the energy level of the individual, specifically that energy which is devoted to the organization. Energy levels refer not just to the purely physical, but also cognition and tenacity. Such individuals may be considered dynamic, productive, highly motivated, and in some instances be seen as 'workaholics,' who do more than the average person or more than what is expected. Their 'workaholism' results in task accomplishment rather than frenetic, meaningless activity.

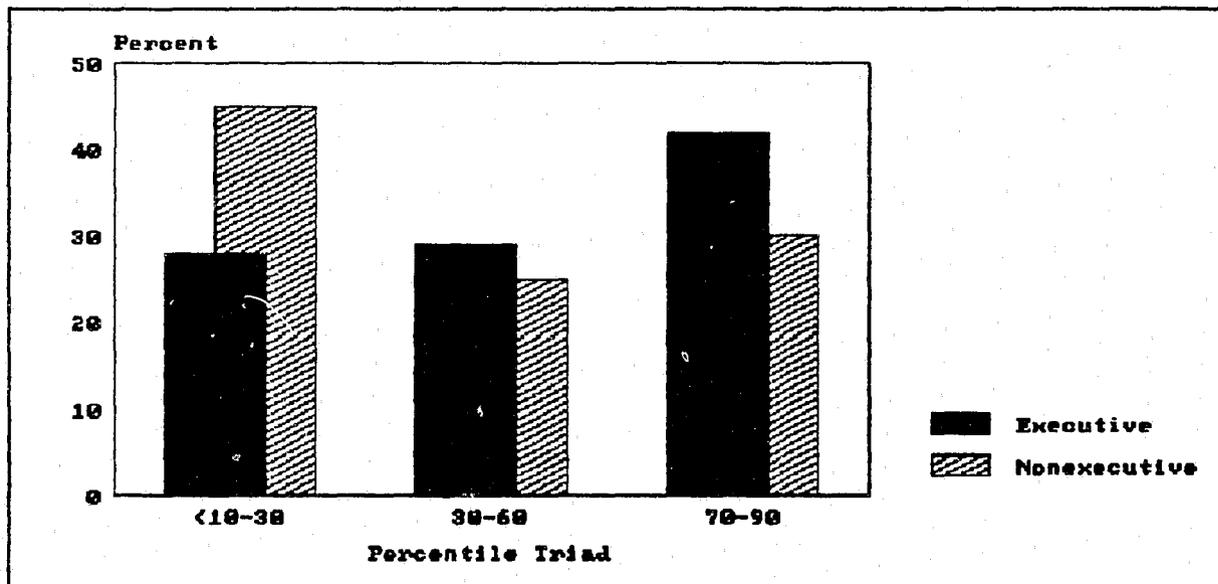


Figure 14: Vigor

The mean of the executive sample was not significantly higher than that of the nonexecutive sample. The executive sample had markedly higher representation in the 70th through 90th percentiles. Twenty-eight percent of the nonexecutive

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sample demonstrated potential similar to that of the highest executive levels.

Analysis of variance indicated that vigor increased significantly with rank ($F = 4.911, <.03$). As indicated in the following table, energy levels of the executive groups in the highest percentiles peaked at the next-to-highest executive rank and then declined. This analysis also indicated that while not statistically significant, vigor also increased with age, tenure and education, education being the strongest, followed by age and tenure. There was a .01 correlation between vigor and self-esteem found among both samples, the executive sample displaying a much stronger (.3746) relationship than the nonexecutive sample (.1309).

Table 7: Rank and Vigor (Organizational Energy)

Rank	Percentile Range		
	<10-30	40-60	70-90
Line Staff	46%	24%	30%
1st Level Supervisor	45%	23%	32%
2nd Level Supervisor	45%	26%	28%
1st Level Executive	34%	29%	37%
2nd Level Executive	18%	18%	64%
3rd Level Executive	36%	36%	29%

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The indications are there is strong identification with agencies and their objectives by the superordinate and subordinate groups within those agencies. This identification with agency and agency objectives is demonstrated through the commitment made (in this case the energy devoted) to agencies and the achieving of agency goals.

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Cognitive Variables

In law enforcement and public safety, people are both product and resource. People are constantly changing, and becoming ever more complex in their needs and demands. This requires that agencies charged with service provision, control, custody and care neither be inert nor static in their approaches to these changes. This demands analytical and innovative approaches, and the cognitive ability of those charged with that responsibility will largely determine success or failure.

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Critical Thinking Ability

The ability to think critically is essential to the success of any executive manager. A major component in being effective is how one utilizes time, particularly discretionary time, to resolve problems. To perform, as most executives must, in a relatively unsupervised setting requires a certain level of cognitive skill and functional autonomy. To be considered independent and effective, the executive, or those who aspire to be executives, must display notable levels of critical thinking ability. Dearden (1983), suggests it is the activity of critical thinking that makes intellectual education a development of autonomy. Guyton (1988), found that critical thinking positively affected personal control.

Critical thinking is that particular type of thinking required of executive managers due to the abstract nature of many of the problems they must confront and resolve. Watson and Glaser (1980) assert that critical thinking is a composite of attitudes, knowledge and skills which include: (1) attitudes of inquiry that involve an ability to recognize the existence of problems and an acceptance of the general need for evidence in support of what is asserted to be true; (2) knowledge of the nature of valid inferences, abstractions, and generalizations in which the weight or accuracy of different evidence is logically determined; and (3) skills in employing and applying the above

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attitudes and knowledge. This includes the ability to define a problem, select pertinent information for its solution, recognition of stated and unstated assumptions, formulation of relevant hypotheses, and the ability to draw valid conclusions and judge the validity of inferences.

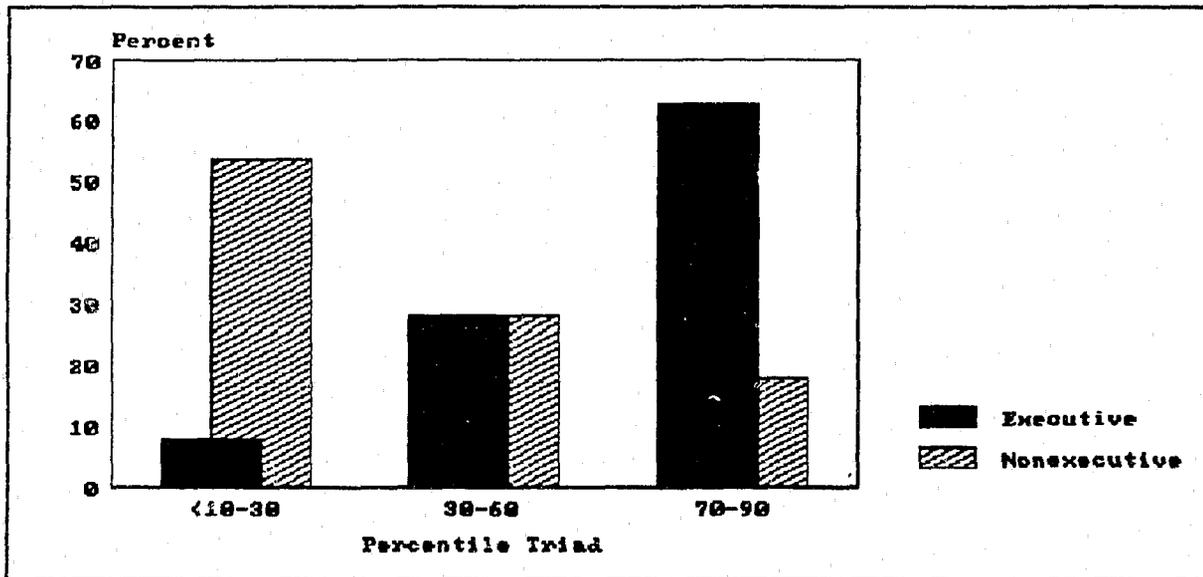


Figure 15: Critical Thinking Ability

The executive sample significantly outscored the nonexecutive sample ($F = 2.18, <.0001$). This was also the case in the 70th through 90th percentiles. This was particularly true in the areas described by Watson and Glaser (1980) as **Inference**, which is the ability to discriminate among degrees of truth or falsity of inferences drawn from given data; **Recognition of Assumptions**, which is recognizing unstated assumptions or presuppositions in given statements or assertions; **Deduction**, which is determining whether certain conclusions necessarily

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follow from information in given statements or premises; Interpretation, or the weighing of evidence and deciding if generalizations or conclusions based on the given data are warranted; and, Evaluation of Arguments, which involves distinguishing between arguments that are strong and relevant and those that are weak or irrelevant to a particular question at issue.

Although the literature search revealed no evidence concerning studies in the assessment of critical thinking ability and law enforcement, findings similar to those of this study have been noted in another profession. In the multimethod study of clinical judgement by Johnson, et al. (1982), it was found that the subjects considered expert in their field, having greater degrees of expertise, were significantly higher in their display of critical thinking ability than their counterparts with less expertise.

It was in the area of critical thinking ability, more so than any other in the entire assessment, that the effective executive was distinguished in any variable which cogently demonstrated a significant difference between the executive and nonexecutive samples. Nowhere in this report were the differences more evident, and perhaps more important, than in the area of critical thinking ability. While this report is not intended as a comparative analysis, the importance of critical

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thinking ability, as a primary identifying variable, cannot be overstated. Of all the variables examined on a national basis, critical thinking ability was that single variable which demonstrated itself within every agency assessed as the most prominent identifying variable.

When the independent variables of age, rank, tenure and education were examined, significant results were found in each instance. Linear regression analysis indicated increases in critical thinking ability relative to all independent variables. Of particular note were the differences displayed when the highest percentile ranges (70th through 90th) were examined.

Table 8: Age and Critical Thinking Ability

Age Range	Percentile Range		
	<10-30	40-60	70-90
21-25	67%	22%	11%
26-30	54%	23%	23%
31-35	59%	24%	17%
36-40	35%	24%	41%
41-45	31%	28%	41%
46-50	20%	35%	44%
51-55	33%	33%	33%
56-60	0%	75%	25%

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As noted in Table 8, on Page 70, the greatest representation among the highest levels of critical thinking ability were evidenced among the age range of 46 through 50, the age range where the greatest number of executives were found. This table also indicates a 'peaking' of the display of critical thinking ability at this age level, with diminution as age increased. It has been suggested in studies conducted by Holmgren and Coven (1984), that age and critical thinking ability are possible criteria for predicting a degree of professional success.

Table 9: Rank and Critical Thinking Ability

Rank	Percentile Range		
	<10-30	40-60	70-90
Line Staff	62%	21%	17%
1st Level Supervisor	51%	30%	19%
2nd Level Supervisor	41%	37%	21%
1st Level Executive	15%	28%	56%
2nd Level Executive	0%	25%	75%
3rd Level Executive	14%	29%	57%

Investigation of the impact of rank on critical thinking ability indicated another instance of peaking. Table 9 notes that in the highest percentiles there was a steady increase in

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the display of critical thinking ability, consistent with increase in rank. First level supervisors had a greater display than line staff, and second level supervisors' display was greater than that of first level supervisors. This was followed by a notable increase in display by first level executive managers. This display of critical thinking ability peaked at the second highest level executive manager and began to diminish at the highest level executive manager. A similar peak occurred when the relationship between rank and ascendancy (upward mobility) was investigated (Table 3, Page 44). The implications of this will be articulated in the Discussion section of this report.

Another peak and decline was noted when tenure and critical thinking ability was examined. The difference, however, was only one percent. What was notable was the peak in that tenure range of 21 through 25 years. That is the range occupied by the preponderance of those who indicated peaking in critical thinking ability relative to age and rank.

Perhaps most notable of all was no evidence of peaking when critical thinking ability and education were examined. As Table 10, on Page 73 indicates, the employees who had obtained four-year and advanced degrees were substantially higher in their display of critical thinking ability than those who had not obtained degrees. What is of further interest is, when the differences between four-year degrees and advanced degrees were

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Table 10: Education and Critical Thinking Ability

Level of Higher Education	Percentile Range		
	<10-30	40-60	70-90
None	50%	33%	17%
<1 to 2 Yrs Undergraduate	58%	19%	23%
2 to 4 Yrs Undergraduate and/or Associate Degree	53%	34%	12%
Bachelor's Degree to 2 Yrs study beyond Bachelor	31%	31%	38%
Master's Degree to Ph.D.	13%	25%	61%

examined, the display of critical thinking ability of those holding masters and doctoral degrees was notably higher than that of four-year degree holders. Other findings which underscore the importance of education and its impact on critical thinking ability are those of Pascarella (1989), which suggest that college produced some enhancement in the ability to weigh evidence and to distinguish between strong and weak arguments. Brabeck's (1983) studies of critical thinking and the development of reflective judgement found a significant positive relationship between critical thinking ability and reflective judgement. Regarding development, Brady (1984), found critical thinking and levels of education were significant correlates of growth.

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What this indicates is executives in the national sample can clearly be identified by their critical thinking ability. What this further indicates is there is a notable group of nonexecutives (18 percent) who display the potential for what is perhaps the most crucial element of the effective executive manager's makeup, i.e., the ability to think critically. Where the potential exists, individuals so identified can enhance their critical thinking skills, given appropriate exposure and training.

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Original Thinking Ability

Pichler (1983), asserts that executive action requires a balance between creative and integrative abilities and execution and control responsibilities. Effective executives must not only be analytical in their thinking, but creative as well. Organizational improvement results from innovative thinking which provides sound concepts for positive change. This is accomplished by people who perceive differently from others, who look at existing situations in ways others have not. They are the individualists described by Burns and Klingstedt (1988), who employ high-order learning, and originality to achieve high-quality individualization in their work efforts. To achieve this requires original thinking ability. Individuals who score high on this variable are those who are described by Gordon (1978), as being intellectually oriented, curious, who enjoy new ideas, and like to work on difficult problems.

No statistically significant differences were found among the average scores of both samples, but the executive sample was notably higher in the 70th through 90th percentiles. Twenty-eight percent of the nonexecutive sample displayed original thinking potential similar to that demonstrated among the highest levels of the executive sample. When the variables of age, rank, tenure and education were subjected to analysis of variance, it was found indications of original thinking ability increased

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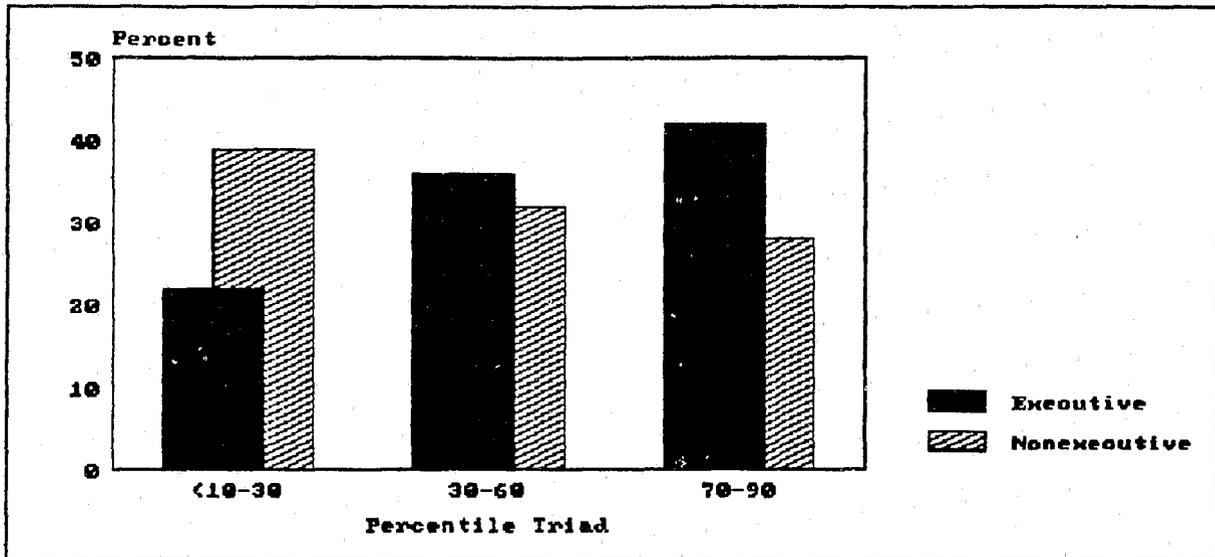


Figure 16: Original Thinking Ability

significantly as age, rank, tenure and education increased. The strongest significance was found between original thinking ability and education.

The examination of age and original thinking ability indicated significant differences ($F = 4.887, <.028$). It was also indicated that the largest representation among the highest percentiles (70th through 90th) were to be found among subjects over fifty years of age. This indication did not diminish with age.

Similar findings occurred with rank and original thinking ability ($F = 9.88, <.002$). There were no major observable differences in the expression of original thinking ability among line staff and supervisors. Striking differences among the 70th through 90th percentiles occurred when the executive levels were

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investigated. The peaking phenomenon found in upward mobility, critical thinking, and vigor also occurred here. As with the aforementioned variables, the greatest expression of original thinking ability occurred among the next-to-highest executive level group, with a slight downward trend being evidenced thereafter.

Table 11: Rank and Original Thinking Ability

Rank	Percentile Range		
	<10-30	40-60	70-90
Line Staff	32%	37%	31%
1st Level Supervisor	59%	20%	21%
2nd Level Supervisor	30%	38%	32%
1st Level Executive	32%	34%	34%
2nd Level Executive	11%	32%	57%
3rd Level Executive	14%	43%	43%

Tenure, like rank, showed significant progressions ($F = 5.189, <.02$). Like rank, there were no major observable differences in the expression of original thinking among line staff and supervisors, but striking differences when the executive ranks were noted. The peaking phenomenon was absent in

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tenure.

Education, the strongest of all indications ($F = 11.198$, $<.001$), indicated marked contrasts in expression of original thinking ability of those who had obtained degrees and those who had not. Table 12 illustrates these findings.

Table 12: Education and Original Thinking Ability

Level of Higher Education	Percentile Range		
	<10-30	40-60	70-90
None	67%	33%	00%
<1 to 2 Yrs Undergraduate	36%	34%	29%
2 to 4 Yrs Undergraduate and/or Associate Degree	39%	33%	28%
Bachelor's Degree to 2 Yrs study beyond Bachelor	32%	31%	36%
Master's Degree to Ph.D.	25%	36%	39%

There were significant correlations between original thinking ability and two other variables. In both instances, the executive sample displayed the stronger relationship. There was a relationship between original thinking ability and ascendancy (upward mobility). The executive sample demonstrated a .3919 ($<.01$) relationship, while the nonexecutive sample demonstrated a

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.2615 ($<.01$) relationship. There was also a relationship between original thinking ability and self-esteem, the executive sample showing a stronger (.5600, $<.001$) relationship than that shown by the nonexecutive sample (.3505, $<.001$).

Based on the above, neither the executive nor the nonexecutive appears reluctant to face challenge. This is not surprising, given the indicated levels of original thinking ability, as well as the distinctive display of ascendancy and self-esteem by both samples.

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Type 'A' Behavior Variables

These variables are among that class of Type 'A' behavior considered positive. These behaviors typify assertive, confident individuals who are dedicated and goal-oriented. These behaviors, as a group, give some indication of the ability to handle stress. If individuals are competitive high achievers, who have involvement with and commitment to their professions, and have reasonable tolerance thresholds, then these are the individuals who indicate greater potential to handle the stressors indigenous to the executive management function.

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Achievement Drive

Effective executive managers are high achievers. This ability to achieve transcends the desire or need to achieve, and demonstrates the achievement drive of the individual. Maitra (1983), found effective managers had high levels of achievement drive, more so than their less effective counterparts. In later studies (1985), Maitra came to the conclusion that effective management policy should include selecting managers with a high need for achievement.

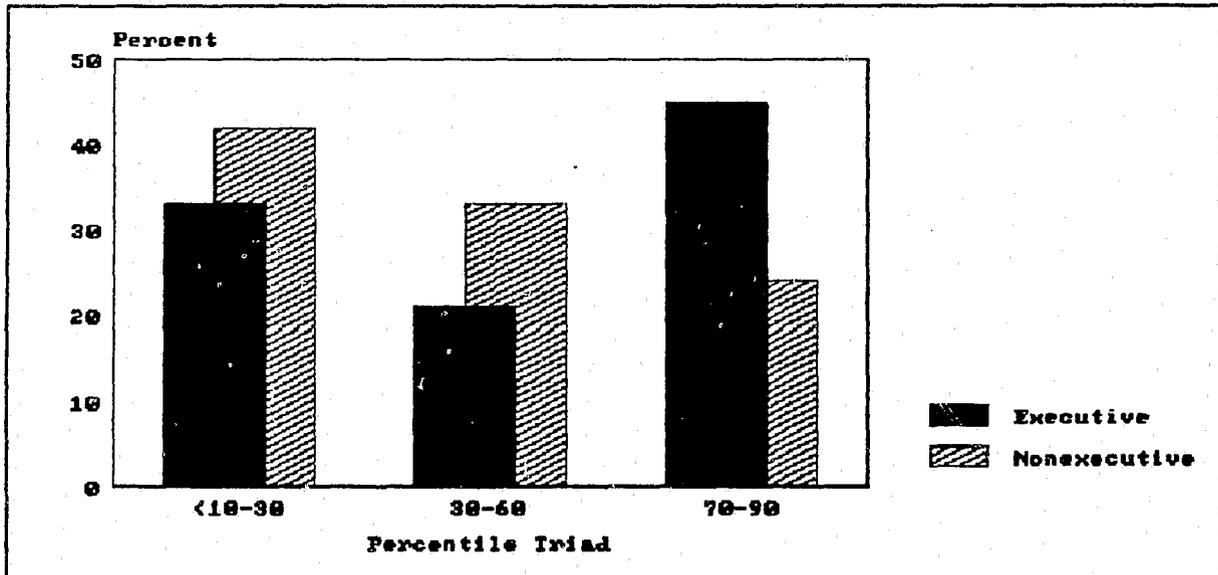


Figure 17: Achievement Drive

No statistically significant differences were found between the average scores of both samples. In the highest percentiles (70 through 90), the executive sample demonstrated notably higher achievement drive levels than did nonexecutives. Twenty-four

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percent of the nonexecutive sample displayed the highest levels of potential manifested by the executive sample. Analysis of variance indicated no significant differences between achievement drive and the independent variables of age and tenure. It was indicated that increases in achievement drive were consistent with increases in age and tenure.

Strong differences were noted concerning achievement drive and rank, the higher the rank, the greater the achievement drive ($F = 11.94, <.001$). These findings are consistent with those of Berman and Frederic (1985), regarding congruence with managerial role motivation theory (i.e., those who reach the highest levels will have higher motivation to manage than individuals with less achievement drive).

Table 13: Rank and Achievement Drive

Rank	Percentile Range		
	<10-30	40-60	70-90
Line Staff	48%	25%	27%
1st Level Supervisor	46%	32%	22%
2nd Level Supervisor	31%	50%	18%
1st Level Executive	38%	23%	38%
2nd Level Executive	14%	36%	50%
3rd Level Executive	54%	8%	38%

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As with the findings of ascendancy (upward mobility), vigor, critical thinking ability, and original thinking ability, achievement drive peaked at the next-to-highest executive rank. It was this rank which had the highest representation among the 70th through 90th percentiles regarding achievement drive, with decline occurring in the highest executive rank. Even so, the highest executive rank was still more prominent than any of the nonexecutive representation among the highest percentiles, as noted in Table 13.

Table 14: Education and Achievement Drive

Level of Higher Education	Percentile Range		
	<10-30	40-60	70-90
None	17%	50%	33%
<1 to 2 Yrs Undergraduate	42%	27%	31%
2 to 4 Yrs Undergraduate and/or Associate Degree	44%	35%	21%
Bachelor's Degree to 2 Yrs study beyond Bachelor	45%	27%	28%
Master's Degree to Ph.D.	24%	31%	45%

Achievement drive rose significantly with education ($F = 4.064, <.04$). What was particularly striking regarding

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education and achievement drive was that those who had obtained the highest degrees (masters or Ph.D.) were strikingly more represented in the highest achievement drive percentiles.

There were also significant correlations between achievement drive and vigor (energy devoted to the organization). Both relationships were significant at the .01 level, but the executive sample's correlation was slightly higher. What these findings indicate is high achievement drive among the executive and nonexecutive personnel of the national sample. This drive increases at significant rates in relation to rank and education. This indication is favorable, for it provides further evidence that executive potential exists among some members of the rank and file, in there are achievement-oriented people among the various ranks of nonexecutive employees.

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Speed and Impatience

Effective managers are goal rather than process-oriented. This type of manager appreciates the value of time and recognizes little as possible should be wasted. In the executive world of deadlines, ability to function in an expeditious fashion, and intolerance of processes or people who waste time, are part of the effective executive manager's makeup. Typical also of the nature of law enforcement work is the need to follow policies and procedures, often in regimented, time-efficient fashion. In dangerous situations, such as riot, or the possibility of the use of deadly force, no one questions the need for speedy, well-directed action. There are many occasions in the performance of duty where time is a rare commodity, and this happens on all levels. In the many critical situations faced by the various public safety agencies, tolerance is not necessarily a virtue. However, it is also the law enforcement professional's responsibility at times to tolerate ambiguity, or to be patient, even though the nature of the work does not always lend itself to tolerance.

Such events which demand swift action are not always predictable, so the law enforcement professional must virtually always be in some heightened, anticipatory state. This anticipatory state must be maintained so responses to dangerous situations can be achieved with minimal delay. In this

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environment, it is understandable that tolerance thresholds are not extremely high. Despite this, law enforcement personnel must exercise restraint. The stress engendered by the law enforcement environment is significant. It also increases with the responsibility of management. Speed and impatience can promote stress, particularly when they must be held in check. Goal-oriented people who work in occupationally stressful environments demonstrate high levels of speed and impatience. This is because they usually are hard-driving, competitive people, with high personal standards and commitment to their careers. This type individual was manifest throughout both samples.

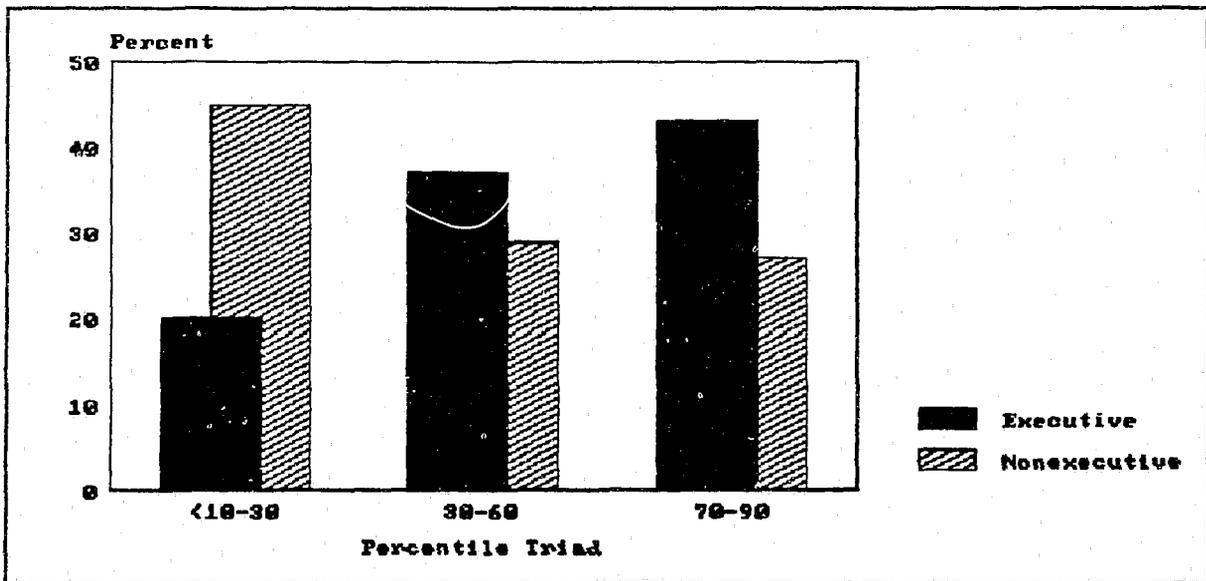


Figure 18: Speed and Impatience

There was no significant statistical difference between the average potential levels displayed by both groups. As

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illustrated in Figure 18, within the quality percentiles (70 through 90) executives displayed a markedly higher potential level in this area. However, 27 percent of the nonexecutive group also demonstrated the potential levels found among the highest scores attained by the executive sample.

Table 15: Rank and Speed and Impatience (Tolerance Thresholds)

Rank	Percentile Range		
	<10-30	40-60	70-90
Line Staff	52%	25%	23%
1st Level Supervisor	38%	41%	21%
2nd Level Supervisor	41%	20%	39%
1st Level Executive	26%	31%	44%
2nd Level Executive	21%	29%	50%
3rd Level Executive	15%	54%	35%

Analysis of variance indicated that, of all the independent variables, speed and impatience rose most significantly with rank ($F = 23.54, <.001$). Support for this finding is provided by Kittel (1983), who found indications of a strong relationship between employment grade and job stress. As with ascendancy (upward mobility), vigor, critical thinking ability, original

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thinking ability, and achievement drive, increases in the expression of speed and impatience peaked at the next-to-highest executive rank, and declined in the highest executive rank. Significant, but lesser levels were found in tenure ($F = 11.86$, $<.001$), age ($F = 10.92$, $<.001$), and education ($F = 9.60$, $<.002$). There were also significant correlations found among both samples between the variables of speed and impatience and achievement drive. The executive sample's indication of this relationship (.6040, $<.001$), was stronger than that indicated by the nonexecutive sample (.4667, $<.001$).

It is noteworthy that such a level of nonexecutive representation should be found among the quality percentiles. This indicates there is a general awareness of the critical nature of the law enforcement function at all levels of employment within the national sample. The findings further indicate a pervasive level of sensitivity to the need to be expedient as well as effective.

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Career Commitment

Effective executives are effective for several reasons. One of the more important is that they make a commitment to the organization. This commitment includes the contribution of time, talent and energy to the organization to help that organization be successful. Joslin (1984), suggests a career is not chosen, but develops in an orderly or chaotic way, personal to the individual. Effective executives decide to develop a career, not merely maintain a job, with the organization. The commitment is long-term and one of priority. The priorities of the agency are the professional priorities of individuals who have made these career commitments.

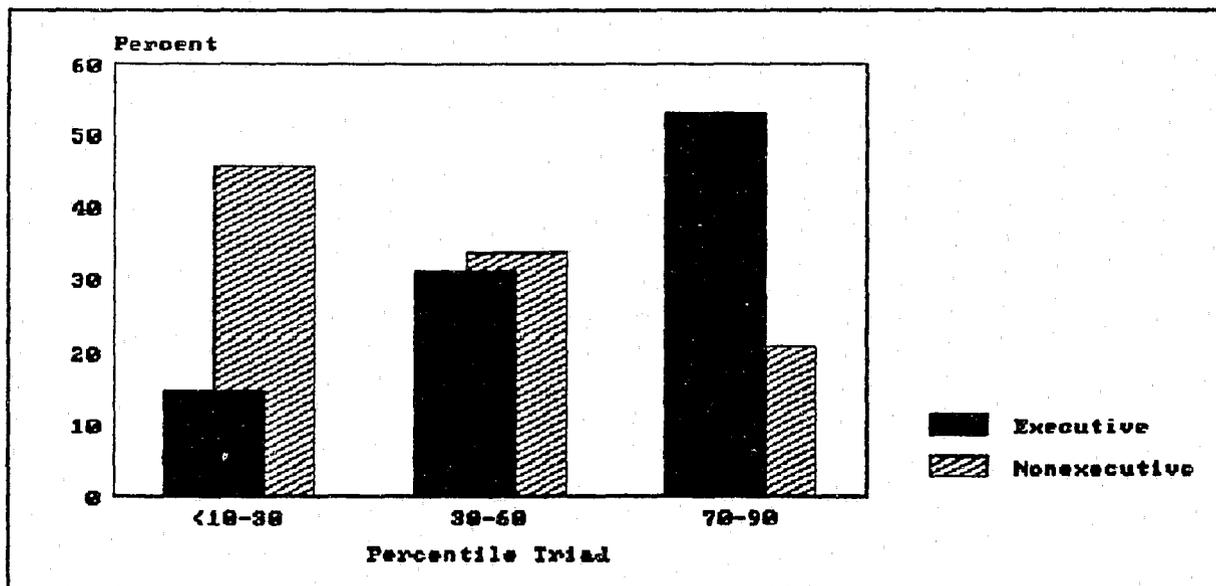


Figure 19: Career Commitment

The executive sample was significantly higher ($F = 1.42$,

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<.05) in the demonstration of career commitment than was the nonexecutive sample, and notably higher in the 70th through 90th percentiles. There was also a significant correlation between career commitment and achievement drive (.4160, <.001) which, while also evident among the nonexecutive population, was not statistically significant. These findings were consistent with those of Killeen's (1989), investigation of several variables as predictors of career commitment, which suggested labor-market position was the best of these predictors. There was also a markedly higher level of career commitment indicated among the executive sample in the 70th through 90th percentiles.

Adler and Asanya (1984), found older employees had significantly higher levels of organizational and professional commitment. These findings were supported by the findings of this study, which indicated a significant ($F = 14.88, <.001$) increase of career commitment with increase in age. Lorence and Mortimer (1985), found growing stability with age in job involvement. Super's longitudinal studies (1985), give further support to the findings of this study regarding age and career commitment. The findings of this study also indicated that this increase in career commitment continued through the age range of 46 through 50, peaked, and then began to decline (Table 16, Page 76). This peaking occurred earlier than what was indicated by the findings regarding age and ascendancy (upward mobility, Table

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2, Page 43), and age and critical thinking ability (Table 8, Page 70), where the peak age range was 51 through 55.

Table 16: Age and Career Commitment

Age Range	Percentile Range		
	<10-30	40-60	70-90
21-25	67%	33%	00%
26-30	45%	39%	15%
31-35	41%	32%	27%
36-40	35%	31%	33%
41-45	26%	36%	38%
46-50	25%	29%	45%
51-55	25%	42%	33%
56-60	00%	80%	20%

When career commitment and rank were examined, rank indicated the strongest impact on career commitment of all four independent variables (the others being age, tenure and education). There was a significant difference ($F = 57.29$, $<.0001$) in rank and career commitment, the higher the rank, the greater the indication of career commitment (Table 17, Page 92). There was an absence of the peaking phenomenon that has been expressed in other areas of this report, regarding rank.

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Table 17: Rank and Career Commitment

Rank	Percentile Range		
	<10-30	40-60	70-90
Line Staff	57%	32%	10%
1st Level Supervisor	37%	40%	24%
2nd Level Supervisor	37%	30%	33%
1st Level Executive	21%	26%	54%
2nd Level Executive	00%	46%	54%
3rd Level Executive	23%	15%	62%

When tenure and career commitment were investigated, it was found the more tenured employee displayed more job commitment than did the younger employee. There were significant concomitant increases ($F = 24.13, <.0001$). Ghosh and Deb (1983), noted that the tenure individuals have on a job has significant influence on their job involvement. Blau (1985), found tenure to be a significant predictor of career commitment. Orenstein, et al. (1989), in their study comparing the career development models of Levinson et al (1978), and Super (1957), concluded that both models support the prediction that people feel less job commitment during the early stage of their career. As indicated in Table 18 (Page 93), the findings of this study agree with

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those cited.

Table 18: Tenure and Career Commitment

Tenure (in Years)	Percentile Range		
	<10-30	40-60	70-90
1 to 5	52%	30%	18%
6 to 10	43%	36%	21%
11 to 15	34%	30%	36%
16 to 20	29%	30%	41%
21 to 25	21%	28%	52%
26 to 30	18%	41%	41%

What Table 18 further indicates is a repeat of the peaking situation noted in other sections of this report, regarding age and rank, but this is the first indication of this occurring relative to tenure.

The findings of this study suggest the higher the education, the greater the career commitment ($F = 45.12, <.0001$). Of all the independent variables, the strength of the findings on education were second only to the findings on rank. These findings are consistent with those throughout the study that those employees with degrees have greater representation among the highest (70th through 90th percentiles) than those without.

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Table 19: Education and Career Commitment

Level of Higher Education	Percentile Range		
	<10-30	40-60	70-90
None	83%	00%	17%
<1 to 2 Yrs Undergraduate	47%	41%	13%
2 to 4 Yrs Undergraduate and/or Associate Degree	49%	29%	21%
Bachelor's Degree to 2 Yrs study beyond Bachelor	28%	32%	40%
Master's Degree to Ph.D.	20%	22%	59%

It is notable that 23 percent of the nonexecutive sample was represented among the highest levels of indicated career commitment potential (70th through 90th percentiles). This suggests that a substantial number of the nonexecutive population see their association with their respective agencies as career-oriented rather than transitory. They have indicated their willingness to invest the required levels of time and energy necessary to develop into executive management material.

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Competitive Drive

For substantive success, one must be hard-driving and competitive. Executive management in law enforcement is replete with challenge. There are significant numbers of people who desire to be in a position not only to face those challenges, but enjoy the reward of successfully meeting them. Persons aspiring to be effective managers must be competitive, and ready to test endurance limits to demonstrate they are willing and able to be the best.

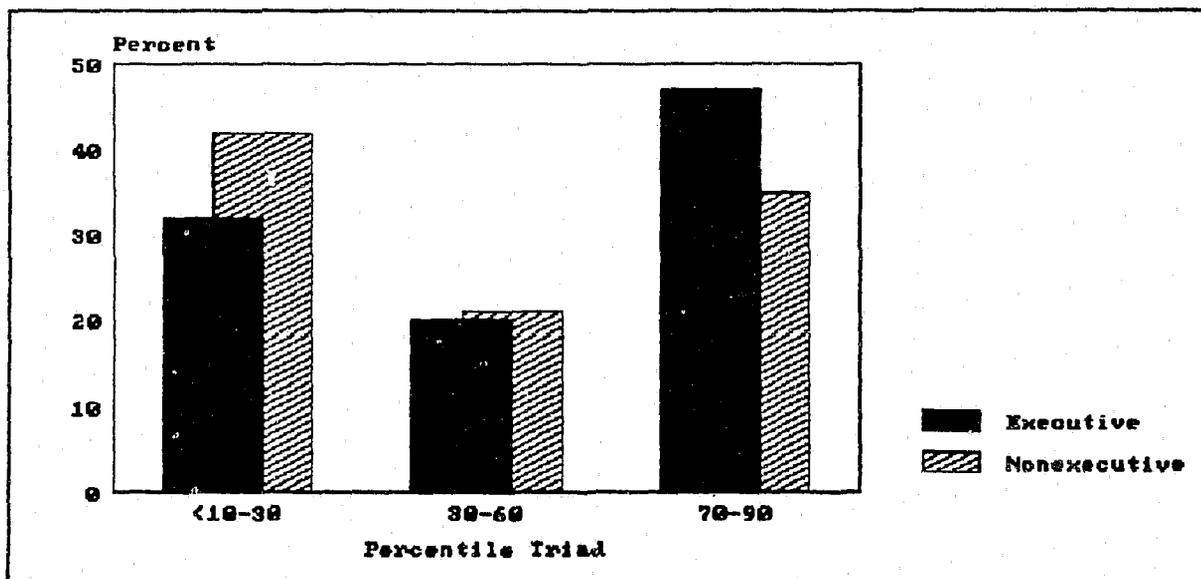


Figure 20: Competitive Drive

While there were no statistically significant differences between the means of both samples, more executives than nonexecutives demonstrated the highest levels of competitiveness and hard-driving potential. There were significant differences

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in the increase of competitive drive as it related to age and rank.

Age does not appear to decrease competitive drive. Analysis of variance findings indicated significant increases ($F = 5.30$, $<.02$) in this area.

Table 20: Age and Competitive Drive

Age Range	Percentile Range		
	<10-30	40-60	70-90
21-25	78%	11%	11%
26-30	38%	18%	44%
31-35	44%	21%	35%
36-40	33%	28%	39%
41-45	41%	13%	46%
46-50	31%	25%	44%
51-55	42%	33%	25%
56-60	00%	50%	50%

Competitive drive increased significantly with rank ($F = 3.94$, $<.05$). The peaking phenomenon occurred again, and as in all past instances, occurring in the next-to-highest executive rank, with decline noted in the highest rank.

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Table 21: Rank and Competitive Drive

Rank	Percentile Range		
	<10-30	40-60	70-90
Line Staff	41%	24%	35%
1st Level Supervisor	43%	19%	38%
2nd Level Supervisor	44%	20%	35%
1st Level Executive	33%	18%	49%
2nd Level Executive	25%	25%	50%
3rd Level Executive	46%	15%	38%

While not statistically significant, increases in competitive drive consistent with increases in tenure and education were evident. There were three notable relationships which may have implications on identification and development of those who display unusual potential. There was a .4160 (<.01) correlation between competitive drive and self-esteem found among the executive sample. While a similar relationship existed among the nonexecutive population, it was not statistically significant. Another significant relationship found among the executive sample, (.3293, <.01), not significantly demonstrated among the nonexecutive sample, was a relationship between competitive drive and career commitment. One other relationship

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which was found to be statistically significant among both groups at the .01 level was that of competitive drive and vigor (energy devoted to the organization). The relationship found among the executive sample (.3458), was stronger than that found among the nonexecutive sample (.2254).

Thirty-five percent of the nonexecutive sample demonstrated potential levels equal to those manifested by the executive sample. This provides further reinforcement to the observation expressed throughout this report that a noteworthy level of homogeneity exists between the samples. Agencies are fortunate, because this homogeneity indicates a rich talent pool that can be utilized in the selection and development of people who display the potential for becoming effective managers.

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DISCUSSION

At the beginning of this report, several hypotheses were put forth.

- There are certain demographic, personality, cognitive and type 'A' variables which are significantly more represented among that population considered to be effective managers than are to be found in the nonexecutive population. These elements can be identified and utilized for management selection and development.

- There are significant relationships between variables that appear among the executive group which do not significantly occur among the nonexecutive group. The relationships between these variables significantly delineate the effective executive manager from the nonexecutive population.

- There are individuals among the nonexecutive group who display potential levels similar to those exhibited by the effective manager population. Also, significant relationships occur among both groups, but usually have stronger representation among the executive sample. This indicates while not all of the nonexecutive population can be effective leaders, there is a cadre among this group which display such potential.

The findings support the stated hypotheses. There is a paucity of literature on law enforcement and public safety regarding the stated hypotheses, but the literature on the private sector supports the findings of this study. This

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indicates the organizational construct of law enforcement is in many ways similar to that of private, corporate industry. As such, it demands thinking and action beyond that which is traditional to law enforcement. The criminal justice system has evolved into several sophisticated and complex industries. This evolution requires levels of thought and action capable of meeting the attendant challenge. While remaining unique in many ways, the growing similarity to corporate industry indicates that law enforcement must pursue similar strategies and developmental processes necessary for effective growth. A major strategy is enhancement of incumbent manager skills, and development of future managers. Houstein (1984), has cited the benefits of management education and organizational development, which include improved management skills.

The findings indicate there are identifiable constellations of skills, knowledge, abilities, personality traits and Type 'A' behaviors among law enforcement personnel which are consistent with effective performance on the executive management level. What is particularly striking is the systemic quality of the findings. Irrespective of geographic region or agency type, such factors as critical and original thinking ability, education, career commitment, tolerance thresholds, sociability, achievement drive and vigor were consistently manifest on similar levels. What is even more striking is that the variables which were found

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to be primary are not only necessary for effective management, but are those which can be acquired and developed.

There were three primary identifiers among all assessed variables which distinctly separated the executive from the nonexecutive samples. These variables, which could be utilized as selection criteria, were critical thinking ability, education, and career commitment.

The importance of critical thinking as a component of effective management cannot be overstated. This was the most significant of variables noted among demonstrably effective managers, and underscores its standing in the construct of the effective executive. Critical thinking is not a gift, but a skill which can be developed. This was indicated in the findings concerning rank and age, which demonstrated significant increases when compared to critical thinking ability. Keeley, et al. (1982), concludes that more direct teaching of critical thinking skills is needed, even before the assumption of management responsibility. Sherman and Taylor (1982), cite the relationship between critical thinking ability and skills competence. Norris (1988), states that critical thinking should not only be taught, but evaluated as to its generalizability.

Teaching and developing critical thinking skills should not wait until people assume the responsibilities of leadership. Allen, et al. (1988), argue this skill should even be taught to

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young children. The reality is that currently employed managers, as well as potential managers, have not been taught these skills in school prior to choosing law enforcement careers. This is not to say these skills cannot be developed through training and development on the job. Law enforcement agencies must recognize the need to develop skilled managers. Agencies must research and construct such programs to assist their incumbent and future managers in realizing their potential.

It is recognized in other essential fields (Regan-Smith, 1987), that benefits could be derived from critical thinking skills being taught before the assumption of certain duties and responsibilities. Ferguson (1986), argues that critical thinking skills should be systematically promoted, utilizing Bloom's (1956) taxonomy of educational objectives. Chenault (1987), suggests a long-term, integrated continuing education process that contemporary organizations are attempting to accomplish, i.e., the blending of organizational and personal goals, which emphasize excellence in critical thinking as well as other abilities.

Beyond critical thinking ability, higher education, and career commitment are variables which can contribute to the structure of effective management. As with critical thinking ability, education and career commitment can be acquired and developed. There were ten secondary identifiers in the quality

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indices (70th through 90th percentiles) which could be used in support of the primary identifiers:

- Original Thinking Ability
- Competitive Drive
- Speed and Impatience (Tolerance thresholds)
- Vigor (Energy devoted to the organization)
- Achievement Drive
- Ascendancy (Upward mobility)
- Emotional Stability
- Sociability (Identification with hierarchy)
- Self-Esteem
- Personal Relations (Ability to motivate personnel)

Finally, there were two areas where no differences were noted along the entire percentile continuum, and relatively high potential levels were demonstrated by both samples:

- Responsibility
- Cautiousness (Careful consideration in decision-making)

Two factors which further enhance the identification process are (1) there are significant relationships between the primary and secondary identifying variables that appear among the executive group which do not significantly occur among the nonexecutive group; and, (2) there are significant relationships which occur among both groups, but have stronger representation among the executive sample. Notable among these relationships

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are correlations between independent assessment modalities, which strengthen the viability of this process. The indicated strength of these relationships provide further evidence that the findings are not by chance. They portray identifiable traits which are part of the effective manager's structure.

A cadre of the subordinate population exhibited potential levels similar to those demonstrated by the executive sample at the highest levels (70th through 90th percentiles). This indicates there is a resource within the agency for management selection and development. Almost one-third of the subordinate ranks displayed potential levels similar to that of the highest executive group. A readily identifiable resource within the agencies is important for the following reasons.

The findings demonstrated there is a point where highest potential indications peak, then begin to decline. This was most prominently displayed when the variable of rank was assessed for its relation to ascendancy (upward mobility), vigor (organizational energy), critical thinking ability, original thinking ability, achievement drive, speed and impatience (tolerance thresholds), and competitive drive. In every instance, peaking occurred in the next-to-highest rank, and began to decline in the highest rank. While this is a consideration for further study, it can only be speculated at this point that such factors as no other rank to ascend to, thoughts of

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retirement, and possible burnout are all factors which could contribute to the declines noted in the highest ranks. It was further noted that ascendancy peaked during the age range of 51-55, and began to decline in the age range of 56-60. That is the age range whose most prominent occupants are those holding the highest rank.

There were two other instances where the variable of age demonstrated peak and decline. One was in critical thinking ability, and the other in career commitment. The peak occurred in the age range of 46-50, and demonstrated a decline through the age ranges of 51-55 and 56-60. While the noted peak and decline (as with rank) requires further study, it is suggested the phenomenon may be more a function of age than a function of rank. The reader is reminded that 46-50 is an age range which had considerable overlap between both samples. What might also be reflected in this peak and decline is the factor of the nonexecutive sample scoring significantly lower in critical thinking ability as well as career commitment. All the expressed possibilities may also be the case in the one instance where peak and decline occurred regarding tenure and its impact on career commitment. The peak occurred in the tenure range of 21-25 years, and declined in the 26-30 year tenure range.

Whatever the reasons, what is cogently clear is a decline in some of the primary variables begins to occur at the highest

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rank. These findings should not be perceived as indicating such decline is pervasive among the highest rank. What they do indicate is a need to identify and develop new managers in a regular and timely fashion to meet upper management demand and facilitate orderly transition. What is even more important is the who, when and how to develop managers for replacement. The findings of this study highlight some considerations in this regard.

Beyond the inescapable dilemma associated with aging of management groups are other problems, which are neither axiomatic nor inevitable. A sensitive issue plaguing many law enforcement agencies, which can be positively impacted by this study is that of equal opportunity. As there is no question that, in some instances, equity has been lacking in affording minorities opportunities afforded others, so is there no question about the inequity of such practices. Trying to correct these past errors can place agencies and their executives in the untenable position of trying to balance what is good for individuals with what is good for the agency. The LEEM profile can assist in the viable and objective process of employee identification for management selection and development.

Implicit in the pyramid agency structure common to law enforcement is, the higher the station in the organizational hierarchy the fewer the positions. What this means is there must

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be some selection process in practice to minimize the possibility of poor selection. Many of our current selection processes utilize performance as a major, if not the singular criterion for selection. What this process can also accomplish is the inequitable disqualification of people in some groups who, because of bias and disenfranchisement, have not had the opportunity to display adequate performance, due to the lack of exposure and training. Yet it is this same lack of training which can be the criterion which mitigates against advancement. While it is cogently clear that such practices are disadvantageous to some employees, what is not widely recognized is that these same practices are disadvantageous to public safety agencies and those who must manage them.

Systems lose because such practices constrict their potential manager pool. With increasing demands and reduced resources resulting from not fully tapping human resources, agencies can find it difficult, if not impossible to function at optimum efficiency. Incumbent managers are placed "between the rock and the hard place" also. Managers may recognize they have a moral as well as legal responsibility to have minority representation throughout the hierarchy. However, managers fear that, in their attempts to help minorities advance, they may contribute to their agency's decline. Because of the disenfranchisement noted earlier, agencies must meet equal

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employee requirements. They must do so by selecting new managers from those groups that, for whatever reason, have not been allowed to evolve into the skilled employees many of them could be. Agencies are fearful of placing into positions of responsibility people whose past practice has not indicated they can meet the demands of management, even though the lack of demonstrated performance is through little or no fault of their own.

Because executives are responsible for those they select for sensitive positions, executives are torn between what is right for individuals and what is right for the agency. A selection process such as that proposed in this report could positively impact both problems, as existing problems may rest with the criteria currently utilized. Potential should be considered along with practice. Past practice depends on many variables external to, and often beyond the control of individuals. Potential largely depends on the individual. It may very well be that, more important than what people gain from an agency in what they can demonstrate, is what they bring to an agency in terms of potential.

While selective processes are a fact of life, unfair selection processes do not have to be. It was noted earlier that this study found no significant differences in the display of potential regarding gender or ethnicity. The process devised by

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this study could allow for the identification of potential, and development of prospective managers based on potential displayed, rather than on how some people have been allowed to perform. The findings indicated almost one-third of the nonexecutive sample displayed potential levels similar to the highest levels indicated by demonstrably effective managers. This denotes a viable source of candidates from which to select and develop future managers. Such a selection process is more equitable because it employs as its criteria variables found to be common to the employee pool, irrespective of race, sex or age. As people are selected and developed based on their potential, then, as the findings suggest, the problem of inequitable disqualification, if not eliminated, could be significantly reduced. This could also diminish the onus of management selection, thereby making agency executives less reluctant to engage in the process.

The implications are several.

Selection

The process is considered a viable tool to assist in the promotional processes among the executive management ranks. It allows for a more thorough understanding of the capacities of individuals as they specifically relate to those qualities found among the executive managers who have demonstrated their ability to make agencies run effectively.

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Some of the selection processes currently utilized do not fully serve the purpose for which they are intended. This is due in large part to their existential nature providing only for the "here and now," with little if any thought as to how those selected by these processes will either implement or cope with change. If the multiple-choice or essay type of examination is used, it is usually composed from data and procedures which deal with past or current practices. These examinations are usually developed by people who are somewhat removed from the instant environments and situations for which they are developing such examinations. If the examination process is oral, what is often employed is an "in-basket" exercise, which again addresses current situations, with no focus on how the candidate might deal with change. Then too, the person being interviewed might just have been fortunate enough to be familiar with the particular problem or question being posed at the interview. As a result, the impression given the interviewer or interviewing committee of candidate abilities may be quite different from what they actually are.

These examinations do have their place in assessing levels of acquired skills, knowledge and abilities. What is implicit (and limiting) in the exclusive use of these examinations is the belief that what is good for, or needed now is all that is good for or needed in the future. This is simply not true, and the

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exclusive reliance on these modalities serve to reinforce the "technocratic cocoon" public safety agencies have constructed, without developing or even looking beyond technocratic capability. While technocratic skill is valuable to effective management, it is not the sum of what is required for effective management.

Currently utilized processes do not give sufficient indication of the growth or adaptive potential of manager-candidates. It is not only what they know, but what they can be taught and their capacity to learn, which must also be determined. By assessing the potential for new skills acquisition and development, as well as assessing what has already been acquired, agencies can minimize the risk associated with current selection processes.

Training

The process allows for identification of personality, as well as skill, knowledge and ability variables which contribute to the effective management of the organization. Training programs could be developed to enhance these areas among incumbent executives as well as executive-designates. This could provide a direct-benefit approach to training, based on identifiable variables which contribute to effective management. A cogent example of this is in the area of critical thinking ability. As articulated in the findings, cognitive ability is a

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paramount component of the effective manager's composition. Critical thinking is an ability which can be enhanced through training. This study highlighted other variables capable of enhancement, e.g., original thinking ability, personal relations, cautiousness, vigor and competitive drive. These are personality traits common to effective management which can be improved through training.

Development

Development can be addressed on two levels--programs and people. Regarding organization, this profile has identified certain variables that facilitate people developing into effective managers. A primary example is the variable of career commitment. If agencies recognize that certain levels of commitment contribute to people putting forth the effort to improve to benefit themselves and their agencies, then agencies should also recognize that programs must be implemented which allow for the development of an organizational environment that promotes career commitment. Human resource development, employee assistance and incentive programs are examples of management tools which help promote employee interest and commitment. Use of these tools benefits the organization.

The process allows for the early identification of employees who possess high potential. It further allows for all employees within specific, or all ranks to display their

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potential. This provides agencies the opportunity to learn the potential of large groups within their agency, rather than depending on fate allowing a few people to be recognized. It minimizes the risk of poor selection or the inability to increase the management selection pool. Those identified could be provided appropriate agency exposure and training. Findings could provide agency focus on how to allow appropriate exposure to groups of employees, thereby enhancing the potential of skills acquisition by a greater number of personnel. Also, the peaking phenomenon referred to earlier indicates a need to identify and develop new managers on a regular basis to meet agency demand and facilitate orderly transition.

There are several advantages to this process. As mentioned, it allows an agency or department a greater opportunity to assess the entire talent pool (specific groups or ranks) in an expeditious fashion. It is done so based on indications of desired factors rather than simply selecting someone based on certain opinions or due to specific exposure. There will be less dependence on good fortune or fiat, and more on attempts at objective assessment and selection. This would make the management selections of various agencies more successful and less subject to challenge. It can afford an agency the opportunity to ascertain who in that agency indicates having management potential based on intrinsic and extrinsic traits

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demonstrated to be prevalent among effective managers.

The variables assessed are not limited to any one segment of law enforcement. They have application to the positive aspects of management, irrespective of task or function. The process can achieve a more global perspective of candidate potential beyond what can be ascertained from "in-basket" or other type interviews. It can provide more information on potential regarding performance and personality traits as well as skills, knowledge and abilities, resulting from the assessment of 21 different variables for differences, relationships and hierarchies. Individuals who score within the 70th through 90th percentile range display what are considered quality potential levels. The greater the quantitative representation, the greater the overall potential displayed. Employees within the subordinate population can be individually identified by their indicated potential, the level of overall potential, or levels of potential in specific areas.

The proposed assessment modality can provide a greater amount of viable assessment information at less cost in dollars and employee time, as large groups can be assessed simultaneously, on site. The process maximizes the ability to know the potential of an entire group or rank. Agencies can assess an entire rank or subpopulation (rather than a select few) in a relatively short period. There is the benefit of minimizing

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the risk of unintentional disenfranchisement or exclusion of minorities or other groups because the assessment process allows all qualified departmental members to participate. Agencies can establish data bases on potential characteristics which can serve as standards for performance criteria development. They can establish quantified, measurable standards for selection, and create pragmatic indices for talent development. The more the assessment is used, the larger the acquired data base. This contributes to greater accuracy in identifying not only the potential displayed by individuals within the agency, but the potential desired by the agency in establishing agency-specific data. There are significant development and training implications in that such a data base could provide the opportunity for assessment of traits, skills, knowledge and ability potential toward the development of training programs. These training programs could focus on agency-specific rather than general, and sometimes nonapplicable data.

The universal application of this concept holds promise for improved management throughout public safety. It contributes to a more effective system, which benefits us all. While no one test could or should be the single determinant, the proposed modality could contribute to the total selection process. This modality, along with other factors, could be considered the medium through which selection capability is enhanced.

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PROFILE

The following is a comprehensive profile of the executive in the various fields of law enforcement and public safety who is considered effective. This profile is based on the findings of a national assessment. The profile is predicated on statistically significant differences as well as the demonstration of quality potential, i.e., potential displayed in the 70th through 90th percentiles. These findings typify the demonstrably effective executive manager, irrespective of gender or ethnicity.

Demographic Variables:

The demonstrably effective executive manager is a person whose average age is 45, with an age range of 34 to 60. This manager is basically well educated, averaging a bachelor's degree with additional formal education. There is a range of acquired formal higher education from less than one year's undergraduate study to obtaining a Ph.D. The manager has had significant exposure to the parent agency, averaging 11 to 15 different assignments, and an average tenure of 20 years, with a tenure range of seven to 30 years.

Personality Variables:

The demonstrably effective manager is an assertive, inquisitive individual with high achievement drive. This is a person who demonstrates the ability to handle confrontation, and conveys the impression of confidence and competence. This

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individual is prominent in terms of personal motivation, demonstrates persistence, is goal-directed, and enjoys a distinct sense of personal satisfaction upon successful task completion. The manager demonstrates a high level of responsibility without being overly authoritarian or rigidly compliant; is emotionally well adjusted, with a low level of free-floating anxiety.

This manager expects good performance from self as well as others. The manager displays moderate tolerance for those who attempt to carry out directions, but is basically intolerant of failure or inaction by subordinates. Frustration can be experienced if those traits are displayed by superordinates. While it would be nice to have the best of both worlds, the manager would prefer to be productive rather than popular.

The manager has a relatively elevated self-esteem with balanced self-perspective. The manager is one who considers matters carefully before deciding, who thinks before acting, but who also is not reluctant to engage in prudent risk-taking if the occasion demands. The manager is seldom satisfied with existing conditions. There is an acute measure of energy involved in the work effort, particularly on the cognitive level. Personal satisfaction is gained from doing better than average or more than expected.

Cognitive Variables:

The effective manager is a critical thinker, significantly

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more so than the nonexecutive, subordinate population. This manager displays an above average ability to be intellectually discriminating, particularly regarding the ability to make appropriate inferences, to recognize unstated assumptions, hidden agenda, or presuppositions in what is being stated. The manager has the capacity to draw appropriate conclusions from evidence which is presented, as well as the ability to distinguish between those arguments which have relevance to an issue and those which do not. The manager also displays a notable degree of original thinking ability.

Type 'A' Behavior Variables

The effective manager is an above average achiever, and to varying degrees could be considered a 'workaholic,' but a person whose 'workaholism' is goal-oriented. The manager displays a degree of speed and impatience, and will try to encourage or demand good results in the least amount of time. The manager reacts to internal and external stress reasonably well, has a high degree of job involvement and career commitment, is hard-driving and competitive.

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What this study emphasizes is that managers are not born, they are developed. The findings imply the extent to which managers can be developed is based on their demonstrated potential to be effective leaders. Law enforcement is a growth industry, and when the forecasts on violent and other felony crime are considered, many believe the industry of crime is growing too fast. This growth dictates significant changes and improvements in how the criminal justice system attempts to deal with the problems. A major element in successfully addressing the problems is to have effective management of the criminal justice system. An effective criminal justice system is predicated on how effective the organizations' managers are. What people bring to the organizational setting (in terms of potential) not only contributes to improvement, but impacts how soon that contribution is made. Higher levels of potential could possibly allow for faster development, and law enforcement agencies are beginning to appreciate a need which private industry has already recognized, i.e., the fast-tracking of manager candidates. The growth of crime has diminished the capacity of public safety personnel to develop slowly. The LEEM profile can facilitate a viable fast-track process.

The primary objectives of this study have been met. One objective was to provide a comprehensive indication of the potential of an individual to be an effective manager based on

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agency-specific, concrete indications of the personality characteristics, skills, knowledge, and abilities of executive managers who have demonstrated their effectiveness within that agency. The findings indicate this is achievable. Another objective was to develop the capacity to provide the agencies with an executive management profile of the agency in general, as well as profiles on individuals for management selection and development, and to highlight specific areas which clearly and significantly identify the individual who displays executive management potential, irrespective of race, sex, age or rank.

A final objective was to provide the agencies with a cost-effective means of determining the potential of large or small groups. This could be accomplished through on-site assessments which gives the agency a global picture of the employee's capacity not available through other examination processes.

Regarding further research, there should be a study of civilian managers to see if differences exist, and look at modalities to minimize these differences by developing the positives found in both groups so they apply to either. The findings and implications articulated in this study are more a point of exposition than conclusion, as it relates to effective management. The study has highlighted variables which apparently are major identifiable components of the effective executive's make-up. They also indicate these components are not gifts, but

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skills which, once identified, can be developed, given the appropriate training and exposure. There is an identifiable cadre, comprising almost one-third of the nonexecutive population, which indicates potential levels similar to the highest levels displayed by the demonstrably effective executive. This is substantial resource for future selection and development. The articulated implications for training are noteworthy, as they demonstrate how such a modality as this could assist in the preparation and design of model, as well as agency-specific management training programs.

The findings and conclusions of this study clearly indicate the need for further research and development, not only of the variables and processes noted, but others as well, so ultimately, the reasons which led to this study will no longer prove problematic.

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