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Increasing Support for Evidence-Based Policing: A Complexity Theory Perspective on Organizational Change

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Abstract

Confidence in Canadian policing is at a critical juncture as demonstrated by public calls for increased oversight and accountability, social movements demanding police reform, political considerations to defund the police, and citizen dissatisfaction with outdated and ineffective policing strategies. This Organizational Improvement Plan focuses on a specific problem of practice that is currently being faced by many Canadian police agencies: a lack of evidence-based policing practices with specific focus on the Bluetown Police Department. Moreover, the problem of practice has led to an overreliance on reactive policing interventions that have prevented the Bluetown Police Department from achieving prescribed internal performance measures or significantly improve Bluetown's Crime Severity Index score in more than a decade. These reactive interventions comprise the standard model of policing and involve three key activities: rapid response to calls, random patrols to deter crime, and reactive investigations. Over the past fifty years criminal justice scholars have been highly critical of this model as a stand-alone framework for reducing or preventing crime. In fact, the standard model has been described as a one-size-fits-all approach that applies generic crime reduction strategies across a community regardless of the degree of crime complexity. The current landscape of policing has become increasingly complex due to the economic and social factors impacting communities, advances in technological crimes, terrorism, organized crime, community expectations, political agendas, and most recently policing in a pandemic. These complex problems require evidence-based interventions that evaluate police policies and practices, integrate police experience, and use data and science to determine the effectiveness of crime reductions strategies.

Keywords: complex adaptive system, complexity leadership theory, evidence-based policing, organizational change, police culture, standard model of policing

Executive Summary

The complexity of social problems leading to crime combined with the inherent complexity of police organizations demands that police leaders foster innovation and experimentation by leveraging the thoughts, ideas, and experiences from a broad range of people within their organizations (Herrington & Colvin, 2015). While there will always be a need for rank-authority and the reactive interventions aligned with the standard model, modern policing demands that police leaders engage in participatory forms of leadership and expand their agencies inventory of strategies to effectively deal with this complexity. Evidence-based policing (EBP) is a philosophy that draws on several perspectives to determine what strategies work best to address crime, harm, and disorder. Cordner (2020) defines EBP as the "use of data, analysis, and research to complement experience and professional judgment, in order to provide the best possible police service to the public" (p. 55). While EBP has been described as an engine for driving organizational change (Innes, 2010), police agencies like the Bluetown Police Department (BPD, a pseudonym) continue to rely on the standard model despite data showing its ineffectiveness in preventing or reducing crime (Bayley, 1994; Crank & Langworthy, 1992). Consequently, the role of effective in leadership in building the infrastructure and a supportive organizational culture are key to the implementation and sustainability of the change plan.

Chapter one contextualizes the problem of practice (PoP) - a lack of EBP practices within the BPD - a large-sized Canadian municipal police agency. The PoP has fostered an overreliance on the standard model of policing that is underpinned by three reactive strategies known as the 3R's (rapid response to calls, random patrols to deter crime, and reactive investigations). The standard model has been the focus of criticism by criminal justice scholars as a stand-alone framework for preventing and reducing crime (Bayley, 1994; Goldstein, 1990; Visher & Weisburd, 1998). Described as a one-size-fits-all approach, the standard model is based on the assumption that these three generic strategies can be applied across a community

regardless of the degree of crime complexity. Furthermore, the standard model tends to base administrative, investigative, and operational decisions on experience, assumptions, convention, and tradition (Huey et al., 2017). External and internal performance metrics specific to the BPD have revealed that its lack of EBP practices and subsequent overreliance on the 3R's has not only been ineffective in addressing complex crime but has impeded the BPD's ability to realize its vision of making Bluetown the safest major city in Canada.

Two theoretical approaches frame the PoP: institutional theory posits that the BPD's current state is derived from three sources of isomorphic pressure. First, coercive isomorphism describes changes in the BPD resulting from legal, contractual, or legislative decisions. Second, imitative isomorphism has resulted in the BPD copying the structures and practices of other police agencies originating from the late nineteenth century. Third, normative isomorphism has resulted in the propagation of policing beliefs and standards developed throughout the mid-twentieth century. These isomorphic pressures have contributed to the homogenization of a shared cultural understanding about which structures (hierarchical) and practices (3R's) should be adopted by the BPD, despite evidence that refutes their effectiveness (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Conversely, complexity theory (CT) in the context of this OIP posits that the BPD is a self-organizing system where traditional hierarchical order during the change process is counterproductive. Accordingly, this chapter examines the functional and structural complexity of the BPD through Snowden and Boone's (2007) Cynefin Framework and complex adaptive systems (CAS) theory. These perspectives aim to develop strategies that move the BPD to a far-from-equilibrium state so that the self organization and change processes can occur (Dooley, 2004; Guastello, 2002). When a CAS is moved into a state of disequilibrium, it has the ability to adapt to its environment and achieve its envisioned future state (Jones, 2008).

Chapter two establishes the work of the change plan with the PoP being framed within Complexity Leadership Theory (CLT). CLT provides a leadership framework that "fosters CAS dynamics while enabling control structures for coordinating formal organizations and producing

outcomes appropriate to the vision and mission of the organization" (Uhl-Bien et al., 2007, p. 300). The second section of this chapter examines how change will occur within the BPD by applying Lewin's (1947) three-step change model to address the PoP by focusing on the complex forces for and against change in order to destabilize the status-quo. Nadler and Tushman's (1980) Congruence Model comprises the third section of this chapter and identified the gaps needing change to advance EBP. This analysis was key to identifying and comparing several proposed solutions to address the PoP as well a recommending an anticipatory, strategic approach to the change. Within each solution, specific consideration is given to the resource requirements that not only address the PoP but also foster changes to the BPD's culture and leadership practices. Chapter two concludes with a discussion and recommendation for the BPD to adopt Shapiro and Gross's (2013) multiple ethical paradigms as a framework for change in the context of equity, ethics, and social justice.

Chapter three outlines some of the most important frameworks that operationalize the chosen solution. Lewin's (1947) three-stage change model aims to leverage new organizational learning through a combination of formal EBP training and EBP experiential learning projects. This learning seeks to shift the BPD's policing practice from a purely reactive model towards a proactive, evidence-based model that informs decision making, prioritizes social justice, and improves public safety. Monitoring and evaluation of the change plan is achieved through an integrated model utilizing Deming's (1986) Plan-Do-Study-Act (PDSA) cycle and Kaplan and Norton's (1992) Balanced Scorecard (BSC). Guided by the principle of continuous improvement this framework provides a balanced picture of BPD performance. Understanding that successful change is dependent of effective communication (Ford & Ford, 1995) chapter three outlines a comprehensive four-phase communication plan, supported by Armenakis and Harris's (2002) three message conveying strategies and Klein's (1996) six principles of communication, that ensures the overall success of the change plan. Finally, this OIP concludes with several next steps in the change process and future considerations for the BPD in the context of the OIP.

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Acronyms

AL (Adaptive Leadership)

BPD (Bluetown Police Department)

BSC (Balanced Scorecard)

CACP-RF (Canadian Association of Chiefs of Police – Research Foundation)

CAD (Computer Aided Dispatch)

CAN-SEBP (Canadian Society of Evidence-based Policing)

CAS (Complex Adaptive System)

CCPMF (Canadian Police Performance Metrics Framework)

CLT (Complexity Leadership Theory)

CSI (Crime Severity Index)

CT (Complexity Theory)

DL (Directive Leadership)

EBP (Evidence-based Policing)

IACA (International Association of Crime Analysts)

IT (Institutional Theory)

JIBC (Justice Institute of British Columbia)

LMS (Learning Management System)

MEPF (Multiple Ethical Paradigms Framework)

OPC (Ontario Police College)

PA (Police Act)

PC (Police Commission)

PDSA (Plan, Do, Study, Act)

PSB (Professional Standards Branch)

PSC (Public Safety Canada)

RMS (Records Management System)

TL (Transactional Leadership)

TRC (Truth & Reconciliation Commission of Canada)

3R’s (rapid response, reactive investigations, random patrols)

3T’s (targeting, testing, tracking)

Chapter One: Introduction and Problem

Chapter one begins with an organizational overview of the Bluetown Police Department (BPD) by examining its history, context, structure, and leadership with the intent of providing rich insight into the organization. A thorough examination of the historical context of the BPD reveals that it is a highly institutionalized organization with a preference for status-quo practices such as the standard model of policing. Despite previous attempts at organizational change, the prevalence of a strong organizational culture, an entrenched model of directive leadership, and an absence of training in modern policing strategies contribute to the PoP. An analysis between the BPD's current state and envisioned future state identifies two key theories (institutional theory and complexity theory) that provide context to and help address the PoP. Chapter one concludes with the vision for change, change priorities, and a discussion of my positionality and leadership approach within the BPD.

Organizational Context

Established in the late 1800's, the BPD was formed as a result of a bylaw that afforded the municipality of Bluetown to appoint town constables to keep the peace and protect the lives and property of the citizens of Bluetown. The BPD is heavily influenced and emulates the colonial model of policing developed by Britain's Sir Robert Peel in 1829 (Loder, 2014). Since its inception over a century ago, the BPD is now considered a large-sized Canadian municipal police agency that has grown from two constables in its first decade to approximately 2000 uniform officers and 1000 civilian members (BPD, 2020b).

The BPD is responsible for the delivery of policing services to the citizens of Bluetown, a major Canadian city that is home to one of Canada's largest urban Indigenous communities. Bluetown also features a diverse collection of locally born residents, immigrant citizens and transplanted Canadians with a population poised to exceed one million residents in the coming few years (Bluetown, 2020a). Policing in Canada is complex both in structure and function and comprises the largest component of the Canadian criminal justice system. With its origins and

structure borrowed from the military, the BPD has historically been a conservative institution marked by a belief in the virtues of order, discipline and hierarchical organization with an emphasis on command and control (Myhill & Bradford, 2013; Silver et al., 2017).

While its functions and structures are overseen in part by the three levels of government the BPD is a municipal police service that is directly accountable to the Police Commission (PC). The PC is a non-political body appointed to represent the citizens of Bluetown and is accountable to municipal government. In collaboration with the Chief of Police, the PC seeks to create an essential balance between public accountability and police autonomy. Leadership and decision-making within the BPD are influenced by a multitude of external factors that include political parties representing the three levels of government, the PC, interest groups, and the citizens of Bluetown. The presence of such a political climate influences the decisions made by BPD leaders in relation to policing services and programs due to governmental control of funding and resources. Budget and expenditure reports are mandated to be reported to the PC in addition to any programs created or adopted by the BPD. Organizational priority setting is also influenced by both the political and social demands of the national, provincial and local landscape. The nature of these political and social influences increases the complexity of the BPD's policing responsibilities and challenges its leaders to adopt different perspectives in addressing crime, harm, and disorder.

Like many Canadian police agencies, the BPD adopted the *standard model* of policing in the mid-twentieth century. The standard model focuses on controlling crime through three key activities: random patrols, rapid response, and reactive investigations otherwise known as the 3R's (Berkow, 2011). By enforcing the law after crimes occur, the BPD has become reactive in nature despite research showing the standard model to be ineffective in preventing or reducing crime (Weisburd & Eck, 2004). Furthermore, the standard model is influenced by a colonial perspective on justice that has contributed to the marginalization of Indigenous peoples that has fostered a distrust of the police that continues to linger to this day (Cotter, 2022). A recent

internal organizational review revealed that the BPD has been focussing on the wrong performance targets - instead of measuring how fast they can respond to calls for service, they should be focusing on how to reduce crime, disorder, and needs for calls for service. The review also identified the need to realign the organization to help focus efforts in achieving more value and impact through innovative policing strategies and working collectively to improve its approach to policing (BPD, 2020a).

The BPD measures organizational effectiveness through multiple measures; however, for the purpose of this OIP two key measures will be the focus of discussion. First, the Crime Severity Index (CSI) has revealed that Bluetown's CSI score has been higher than the national average for the last two decades. The CSI is a national measurement tool utilized by Statistics Canada that tracks the severity of annual police-reported crime by examining both the volume and seriousness of crimes in Canadian municipalities. Second, internally collected data on investigative clearance rates, response times to calls for service, and dedicated proactive time when officers focus on resolving the underlying conditions that lead to crime, harm, and disorder have shown that the BPD has not achieved its prescribed targets in these areas in over a decade (BPD, 2019a). This lack of success can be attributed to several factors that include: an institutionalized vertical structure where decision-making remains largely centralized, is rule centric, and bound by power relationships (Sklansky, 2007); rushing to implement responses; relying on traditional policing solutions rather than being innovative and involving community partners; and a limited analysis of available data (Braga & Weisburd, 2006). These constraints inhibit the development of adaptive learning organizations capable of maximizing the potential of their employees, realizing organizational goals, and meeting public expectations (Alarid,1999) .

Organizational Vision, Mission, and Values

Central to this OIP is the BPD's vision statement which aims "to make Bluetown the safest major city in Canada" (BPD, 2019a). The BPD's Strategic Plan indicates a strong commitment to public safety while upholding its core values of accountability, community,

courage, innovation, integrity, and respect (BPD, 2020b). The strategic plan also provides the foundation for organizational and operational decisions that revolve around its four organizational goals: (1) working more effectively through collaboration and partnerships, (2) using evidence and data to determine the root causes to prevent crime, (3) encouraging a culture of innovation to use resources in an agile way, and (4) establishing an inclusive workforce and environment that leverages diversity and grows talent (BPD, 2020b). Despite these forward thinking goals the BPD continues to rely on a reactive policing model that does not reflect its values or goals.

Although continuously striving to uphold its vision, mission and values, Bluetown's CSI score and BPD internal performance metrics compel the organization to seek improvement. In serving Bluetown to the best of its abilities, the BPD must develop partnerships with the community, create spaces for innovation that encourage its officers to seek different solutions, leverage technology, and experiment with approaches that push the organization outside the traditional policing-through-enforcement mentality (BPD, 2020a). The combination of core values and goals provide the foundation for organizational change by advancing modern policing strategies that complement the standard policing model such as evidence-based policing (EBP) that have proven to be effective in addressing complex policing problems, enhancing organizational performance, and advancing social justice (Kalyal, 2020).

Organizational Structure and Leadership

The hierarchal structure of the BPD is paramilitary in nature with a centralized decision-making structure at the top of the BPD that is responsible for creating the vision, mission, goals, and values as mandated by the Police Act (PA). The BPD is overseen by the Chief of Police, the highest-ranking member of the BPD, who is appointed by the PC. BPD business practices are managed and controlled through three distinct but interrelated functions: operations, investigations, and administration, with each function being overseen by a senior executive holding the rank of Deputy Chief, Superintendent or Executive Director, most of whom are

centralized at police headquarters. Mintzberg (1979) would define the BPD as a machine bureaucracy, rooted in highly specialized and routine operating tasks, extensive rules and regulations, and formalized systems of command and communication. As a bureaucracy the BPD is defined by specified roles that are entrenched in cultural artifacts such as a rank structure, uniforms, and equipment that are reinforced by top-down command seeking both uniformity and conformity across the organization. This bureaucracy has led to the creation of silos across the organization that at times leads to duplication of work, a lack of communication, a lack of teamwork, and contribute to the PoP.

Policing initiatives in the BPD are often developed, implemented, and evaluated by the senior executive committee and operationalized by frontline officers, sometimes without consultation, guidance, or consideration of the impacts on different working areas of the BPD. As a result, there is an underlying sentiment from frontline officers that senior executives are out of touch with operations and the complex demands of modern policing. In terms of leadership, formal leaders in the BPD are described by Northouse (2019) as assigned leaders. Assigned leaders hold positional power due to formal rank from which their authority, and expectations of respect, are derived (Hart, 1996). Due to its para-military structure, decision-making within the BPD often reside with assigned leaders who hold the highest ranks in the organization. The leadership style most easily identified in the BPD is directive leadership (DL) which is derived from one of the four leadership behaviors in House's (1971) path-goal theory. DL sets and defines objectives, policies and procedures, relies on the positional power and formal authority of assigned leaders, and guides officer decisions and actions that support the organizational goals (Bell, 2014). Within the BPD, the practice of DL across the administrative, investigative, and operational functions has stifled innovation, creativity, and collaboration. Consequently, to stay relevant police leaders must become more adaptive (Walsh & Vito, 2018).

Personal Leadership Position

As a senior manager and assigned leader within Human Resources Division my primary responsibility is overseeing the professional development of the nearly three-thousand BPD employees. In my twenty-five years as a police officer, educator, and leader, I have developed critical knowledge and skills of research methodologies, BPD policies and procedures, and a comprehensive understanding of the most effective processes for fostering organizational support and approval for change initiatives. Deszca et al. (2020) suggest that this insight and experience provides an awareness of internal relationships and politics that can positively impact the effectiveness or acceptance of new initiatives. As an internal change agent, I can rely on my experience and established professional relationships within the BPD to foster and lead this change initiative.

According to Northouse (2019), there are two common types of leadership: *assigned* and *emergent*. Assigned leadership is based on holding a formal position in an organization. As a Staff Sergeant I hold a position of assigned leadership that involves the development of training, resources and supports for all BPD members. Conversely, emergent leaders are seen to be in a position of power due to the way team members respond to them (Kickul, 2000; Northouse, 2019). When organizational members see an individual as the most influential member of a group, regardless of the individual's position, rank, or title, the person is exhibiting emergent leadership (Northouse, 2019). Because BPD members will need training/education in EBP I can become an emergent leader by embodying and supporting group goals so that team members will be motivated to follow me through the change process (de Souza & Klein, 1995; Kickul, 2000). As a middle manager I am very cognizant of Oshry's (1990) *dilemma of middle powerlessness* where middle managers feel trapped between the top and bottom of their organization thus becoming ineffective as change facilitators. While I have experienced this dilemma with previous change initiatives my positionality provides me with a unique opportunity to transform the BPD by driving this strategic initiative and mobilizing the power the middles to

shift the organization in the direction needed. Deszca et al. (2020) identify four key roles in organizational change:

- *change initiators* are the employees that frame the vision for the change and/or provide resources and support for the change initiative such as the BPD's Chief of Police and the executive leadership team.
- *change implementers* are those that make the change happen such as the BPD employees assigned to change implementation team (CIT).
- *change facilitators* are the employees who will play a role in facilitating change. Within the BPD this will include the majority of the middle and line managers holding the rank of Staff Sergeant or Sergeant.
- *change recipients* are the employees that will be on the receiving end of change. This will include the majority of frontline BPD officers and personnel who support frontline operations and investigations.

My positionality in the BPD also provides me the opportunity to integrate assigned and emergent leadership by embracing multiple roles throughout the change process. First, based on my doctoral work and professional agency, I could potentially be in the critical role of change implementer. The assignment to the CIT and/or the EBP Committee extends my responsibility for ensuring the change happens, creating a path forward, developing support for the change, and minimizing resistance to the change plan. Second, my rank and position in the organization provide the opportunity to be a change facilitator responsible for assisting the change team and recipients through the change process. As a change facilitator my rank can be advantageous as I am well positioned to identify process and content issues, identify solutions to these issues, build support for the change, and minimize resistance. Regardless of my role(s) in the change process I will strive to provide informed knowledge and evidence-based research to advance this new initiative.

Lens Statement

The BPD's DL style can be attributed to an institutionalized vertical structure where decision-making remains largely centralized, is rule centric, and bound by power relationships (Sklansky, 2007). Institutionalized processes like DL and the standard model impose constraints on the development of adaptive learning, impede organizational goals, and risk meeting public expectations (Alarid, 1999). While my leadership approach has been strongly influenced by DL, I also acknowledge its limitations. Accordingly, my leadership practice has evolved into an ambidextrous approach reflecting both transactional and adaptive leadership behaviours.

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership (TL) is typically displayed in one of two forms: contingent reward (reward for appropriate behavior) or management by exception (intervention when performance does not meet expectation) with the latter being most prominent in police organizations (Densten, 2003). As a transactional leader I value order and structure and have found it to be extremely effective when leading major projects or responding to policing problems that require strict adherence to rules and regulations in order to complete objectives on schedule; especially those that do not often require new, creative, or innovative ways to accomplish the mission. TL tends to be universally applied across the administrative and operational systems of the BPD, regardless of its degree of effectiveness. Furthermore, the lack of EBP practices and overreliance on the 3R's tends to engrain TL practices and foster resistance to changes in the status quo. Notgrass (2014) notes that employees do not always perceive transactional leaders as those most capable of fostering trusting or establishing mutually beneficial leader-follower relationships. King (2009) suggests that to study policing, one must examine the foundation upon which it is built and how its structure is maintained. In examining the BPD's foundation and structure I have developed an awareness of the necessity to engage in more participatory forms of leadership in addressing complex problems.

Adaptive Leadership

In order to increase support for the adoption of EBP and its targeting, testing, and tracking (3T) framework I am cognizant that multiple forms of leadership will be required. Adaptive leadership provides opportunities for increased communication, employee engagement, collaboration, and interaction (Northouse, 2019). Adaptive leaders "tell people what they need to hear rather than what they want to hear" (Heifetz et al., 2009, p. 42). I believe that change is best achieved when employees are empowered to be innovative, when safe spaces are created for making mistakes, diverse views are respected, and recognize that organizational challenges cannot be resolved with a universal approach. In avoiding a one-size-fits-all approach to resolving organizational challenges, adaptive leaders make a clear distinction between technical and adaptive problems. Heifetz et al. (2009) describes *technical problems* as having solutions that exist within the current ways of operating where existing expertise is adequate; authoritative decision-making, policies and procedures are sufficient; and culturally accepted behaviors are not often challenged. Conversely, *adaptive problems* exist when solutions exist outside current practices, where the gap between the current and future envisioned states cannot be resolved with existing practices alone, and more participatory forms of leadership are required to resolve the issue (Heifetz, et al. 2009).

In the context of the PoP, it is evident that the BPD is approaching the majority of its policing problems as technical, hence its lack of EBP practices and overreliance on the standard model that grants of a degree of primacy towards TL. Northouse (2019) notes that "when people's beliefs, attitudes, and values are affected by a problem, leaders need to take an adaptive approach" (p. 263). To effectively address the PoP and disrupt the status-quo the BPD will require leaders who recognize, understand, and embrace complexity; are open to changing their leadership style depending on the type of challenge; promote experimentation in the pursuit of individual and organizational learning; share responsibility for solving problems with others; and are patience when confronting complexity (McCollum & Shea, 2018).

Leadership Problem of Practice

The PoP to be examined in this OIP is the BPD's lack of evidence-based practices. Moreover, the PoP has led to an overreliance on the standard model of policing. Despite the influence of multiple levels of government, extensive legislation, and oversight by a local PC, BPD executive leaders maintain considerable autonomy in the development of policy, practices, and the strategic direction of the organization. This section examines the current and future envisioned states of the BPD and concludes that in order to realize its vision, the BPD must supplement its 3R practices with more innovative, informed, and proactive policing strategies.

Current State

As previously discussed, Bluetown's CSI score has been higher than the national average for the last two decades with crime severity and the number of violent crimes reported in Bluetown having increased almost 20% in the last five years (Moreau et al., 2020). Moreover, internal data reveals that performance measures for investigative clearance rates, response times to calls for service, and proactive time (self-initiated and structured proactive activities based on divisional priorities such as offender management checks, searching for subjects with a warrant for arrest, or problem-solving projects) have not been met in over a decade (BPD, 2019a). Notably absent in the BPD's 3R policing approach is a lack of targeting specific patterns of crime, little or no testing of what methods have been most effective in preventing or solving crimes, and a lack of consistency in tracking the successes and failures of previous change initiatives designed to assist in achieving organizational goals. Weisburd and Eck (2004) conclude that as a stand-a-lone strategy, the standard model has been proven to be ineffective in reducing crime, harm, and disorder. Furthermore, Huey et al. (2017) note that the standard model has been influenced by a reliance "on notoriously unreliable gut feelings or years of experience", p. 546). Reinforcing the PoP are the BPD's institutionalized hierarchical structure, directive leadership style, and conservative culture that create barriers towards its officers' ability to adopt innovative policing strategies.

Envisioned Future State

Organizations that manage change efficiently will thrive, while those that fail to cope with change may struggle to survive (Weston et al., 2017). The BPD's Chief recently noted that "you can't build something for the future if you continue to look in the rear-view mirror." (BPD, 2020a, p. 43). Modern policing has grown increasingly complex due to competing demands for resources, competing internal and external priorities, changes in legislation, economic and social factors impacting communities, advances in technological crimes, terrorism, organized crime, community expectations, political agendas, and most recently policing in a pandemic. Consequently, the BPD must become more effective and efficient in its policing practices which will require innovative strategies and interventions to support the standard model in addressing crime, harm, and disorder (Honess, 2018).

Pagon (2003) notes that "not only has police work changed, so have the public and the communities into which it is separated, police leaders have to change themselves, their organizations and their people" (p. 167). Reinforcing this statement is the BPD's recent organizational review that identified evidence-based policing (EBP) as a key ingredient for change in addressing three organizational gaps: enhanced training and resources in EBP theory and practices, fostering partnerships with EBP experts and local academic institutions, and shifting the organizational culture to ensure the successful implementation of EBP (BPD, 2020a). Adopting an evidence-based approach promotes the process of *knowledge mobilization* where academic research is made "accessible to non-academic audiences and supports collaborations between academic researchers and non-academic partners such as community-based organizations" (Phipps et al., 2016, p. 31). Applied to police decision making this process can yield numerous benefits to the BPD such as implementing polices and practices that have proven to reduce crime, increasing legitimacy, reducing internal problems, increasing community trust, advancing social justice, and critically evaluating harmful or ineffective practices (Lum, 2009; National Research Council [NRC], 2004; Sherman & Eck, 2002).

Framing the Problem of Practice

The PoP will be framed by two theories that not only provide insight into the current and future envisioned states of the BPD but also provide insight into the historical context, the organizational stance, and the recent literature and media attention on the issue. Viewing the PoP through these contexts affords a deeper understanding of the complexity of the PoP. First, institutional theory (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Meyer & Rowan, 1977) provides an understanding of the historical and current states of the BPD, its lack of EBP practices, and its overreliance on the standard model. Second, complexity theory provides a different lens in which to examine the BPD, advance the change plan, and achieve the organizational vision.

Institutional Theory

The key concepts of institutional theory (IT) are that organizations operate in complex environments and are values based, their survival is influenced by their external stakeholders and the values they represent, and an organization's desired outcome is to achieve and maintain legitimacy with their external stakeholders (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). Due to the control of these external stakeholders over the financial, human, and physical resources necessary for its survival, the BPD often responds to the values and needs of these stakeholders, regardless if those needs impede its daily operations (Crank & Langworthy, 1992; Meyer & Rowan, 1977). For example, the PC assesses BPD performance mainly on the efficacious utilization of funds and readily available traditional quantitative metrics instead of the myriad of social factors affecting organizational performance (Perrin, 2011). Despite stakeholder demands on the BPD to improve policing outcomes the institutional expectations of these stakeholders continue to reinforce the practices of the standard model that underpin the PoP.

DiMaggio and Powell (1983) use the term institutional isomorphism to describe three forms of influence - coercive, imitative, and normative - by external stakeholders on police organizations to adopt and maintain certain structures and practices. *Coercive* pressures are created by various levels of government such as legislation or agendas that affect decisions

relating to funding, resources, or program grants. *Imitative* pressures result from BPD leaders mimicking behaviors, programs, policies, and practices of other police agencies such as the 3Rs or its para-military structure. *Normative* pressures represent stakeholder expectations that may result from lobbying efforts of influential actors for the adoption of policies and practices such as police reform or increased civilian oversight. Crank (2003) suggests that police agencies like the BPD are exemplars of institutionalized organizations due to their ability to survive in their environments by conforming to structures and policies that have been perceived as being effective despite their negative impact on overall organizational performance. EBP on the other hand, provides the BPD an opportunity to respond more appropriately and effectively to these isomorphic pressures by embracing the complexity of its current environment, determine what policing strategies actually work, and allow the BPD to grow and thrive in this complexity.

Complexity Theory

The underlying premise of this OIP is that EBP is a more effective approach to addressing complex policing problems and advancing social justice than the standard model. Kiel (1994) notes that complexity theory (CT) is useful for analyzing the police organizations, the problems they face, and for examining organizational change. CT is primarily concerned with the emergence of order in systems that in are in a constant state of change and where the rules of cause and effect are not always clear (Beeson & Davis, 2000; Haigh, 2002; Wheatley, 1992). Moreover, CT examines problems and environments that are dynamic, unpredictable, multi-faceted, and defined by interconnected components and relationships. These concepts accurately describe both the BPD's external environment (functional complexity) and its internal environment (structural complexity). As a theoretical framework CT provides BPD leaders a more accurate lens in which to better understand the organization and its work, how to approach organizational change, and how to respond more effectively to the institutional isomorphism that currently influences its structures and procedures.

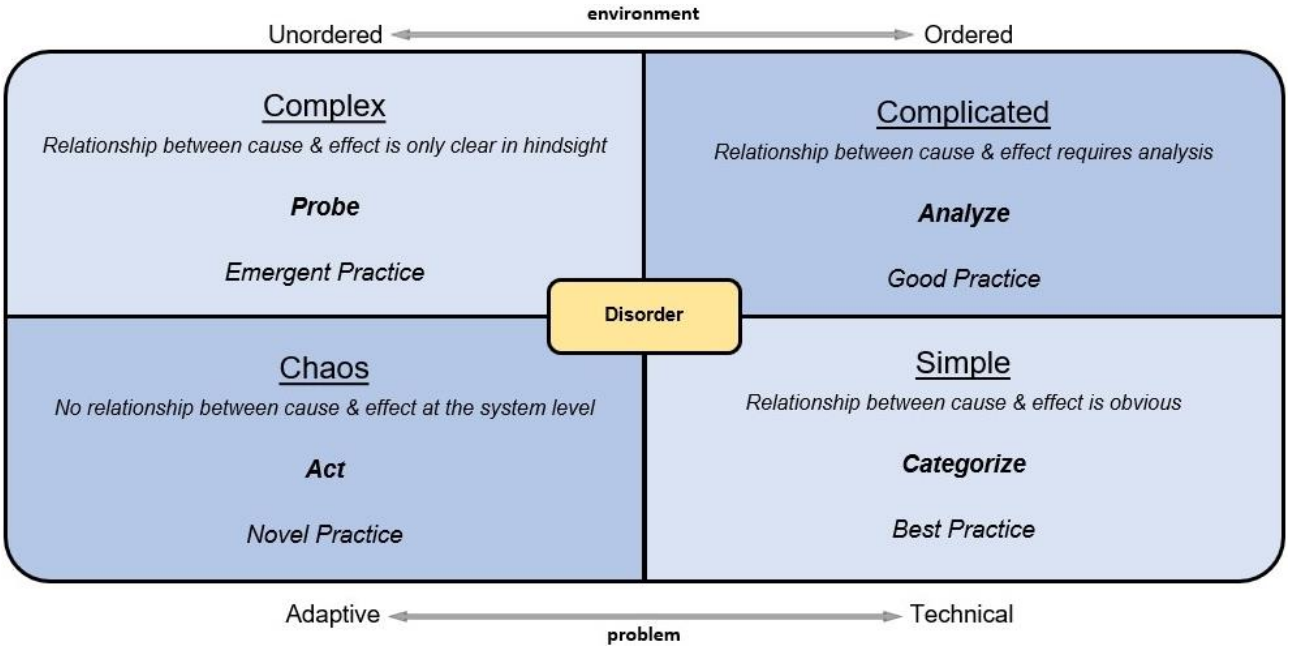
Functional Complexity

The functional complexity of an organization refers to the number of different tasks it is required to perform (McShea, 2000). The BPD is required to perform a multitude of functions that include the prevention and detection of crime, the maintenance of public order, the provision of assistance to the public as well as responsibilities that go beyond the conventional notions of police work (Nunes, 2012). In order to survive and thrive in the face of the perpetual interactions and changes in its environment the BPD must embrace complexity (Hayles, 2000; Lewis, 1994; Stacey, 2003; Stickland, 1998). A tool that can assist the BPD in understanding and responding to different levels of complexity is Snowden and Boone's (2007) Cynefin Framework. The Cynefin Framework recognizes that organizational problems rarely fit into one category or context and considers the multiple environmental and experiential factors that influence organizational responses to these problems.

Snowden and Boone (2007) suggest that problems exist in *ordered* or *unordered* environments where they are further situated in one of five progressively more challenging domains of complexity: simple, complicated, complex, chaos, or disorder. On one end of the spectrum, ordered environments contain technical problems that are categorized as simple or complicated where traditional forms of leadership like DL or TL are often appropriate and effective. Conversely, unordered environments contain adaptive problems that are categorized as complex or chaotic and require more participatory forms of leadership such as AL to effectively address the situation. Regardless of the type of environment or problem, the framework examines complexity through cause-and-effect relationships and proposes a sequence of actions that can assist BPD leaders and officers in responding to the varying degrees of complexity in its policing environment. Adapted for this OIP, the Cynefin Framework incorporates Heifetz et al. (2009) environmental and problem considerations to provide the BPD a robust model to examine and address its functional complexity (see Figure 1).

Figure 1

Snowden & Boone's Cynefin Framework



Note. Adapted from McCollum, B., & Shea, K. (2018). Adaptive Leadership: The Leader's Advantage. *InterAgency Journal, 9*(1), 101.

Simple problems have an obvious cause and effect and effect relationship. In this domain BPD officers know what needs to be done and how to do it (e.g., a routine traffic stop for speeding). Proposed actions for officers is to categorize the situation based upon previous experience, and respond with proven processes, procedures, actions, and decisions. *Complicated* problems are more difficult because the cause-and-effect relationship is less clear and officers may not posses the requisite knowledge or skills for decision-making. The course of action in this domain is considered good practice and would see officers analyzing the situation and respond by identifying an expert who can assist in resolving the problem (e.g., homicide investigation). In this domain officers recognize what needs to be done but a degree of uncertainty exists in how or who will address the challenge. *Complex* problems exist when the cause-and-effect relationship is only clear in hindsight, where there is little or no previous experience with this type of problem, there's a lack of organizational expert knowledge, and it is

unclear what type of information is needed to address the problem (McCollum & Shea, 2018). The course of action in this domain is to probe to gain more information, make sense of new information to build awareness and understanding, and develop emergent practices that are appropriate for the problem. Complex problems are reflective of Heifetz et al. (2009) adaptive challenges where collaboration, innovation, and experimentation becomes essential. *Chaotic* problems are so unique that there is no relationship between cause and effect at the system level and is impossible to determine because there is no previous experience with the problem (Snowden & Boone, 2007). Examples of chaotic problems may include police response to a riot or a natural disaster where the course of action is to sense where the gaps between stability and instability exist, immediately establish order, and respond with novel practices in an effort to reframe the problem into another category within the Cynefin Framework so that patterns can be identified to prevent future crises. The *disorder* domain refers to problems that do not readily fit into one of the other four domains. Snowden and Boone (2007) suggest that the best course of action is to gather more information until the problem can be classified within the framework.

Many of todays policing challenges have not only tested the limits of the BPD's resources and strategies but have increasingly moved much of the BPD's work into the complex domain. Snowden and Boone (2007) note that a reliance on command-and-control practices in advancing change in complex systems like the BPD actually endangers change. Consequently, this OIP examines the BPD's core function of providing public safety through the complex domain which will require novel and counterintuitive responses such as EBP that go beyond the scope of the standard model.

Structural Complexity

Structural complexity describes the number of levels of an organization, the division of labor within an organization, and the degree of specialization within it (Maguire, 2005). For the BPD this includes its administrative and hierarchical structure, the degree to which policies and procedures are formalized, and "the degree to which the decision-making capacity within an

organization is concentrated in a single individual or small select group" (Maguire, 2005, p. 17). Police leaders who embrace complexity and view their organizations as complex adaptive systems (CAS) have a better understanding how their organizations operate and how to successfully implement change (Jones, 2008). CAS examine patterns of relationships, how these relationships are sustained, and how they self-organize to generate new and emergent behaviors.

While consensus on the number of properties that comprise a CAS varies among complexity theorists, five have been identified in examining the PoP. First, a CAS is an *open system*, which describes its susceptibility to be influenced by its external environment (e.g., crime, politics). Second, it is s*elf-organizing* which describes the system's ability to spontaneously adapt, learn, and reorganize to re-establish order in the system in response to changes in the external environment and without direction from a central leader. Blomme (2012) notes that the process of self-organization is critical to the continuous evolution of a CAS and its capacity to produce new behaviors; however, as this new order is not planned or predictable it can also reinforce the status-quo. Consequently, careful consideration must be given to identify the most appropriate leadership approach to positively influence these self-organizing activities. Third, a CAS generates positive and negative *feedback loops* that direct the flow of information throughout the system (Merali, 2006). Positive feedback loops enable an organization to evolve into an alternate state (e.g., EBP) while negative feedback loops keep the system in its current state of behavior (e.g., standard model). Fourth, it fosters *emergence* which refers to the unpredictable bottom-up group changes in behavior that flow throughout the system over time (e.g., innovation, adaptation, collaboration, etc.). Resulting from self-organization and feedback, emergence promotes the organizational evolution from one state of behavior to another (Blomme, 2012). Fifth, CAS are *dynamic*, meaning that they are never static but always in a state of constant unpredictability. Jones (2008) warns that implementing linear change in a dynamic system like a police agency may result in resistance to the proposed change. For this

reason a CAS must be examined holistically, as the sum of the parts (e.g., officers) and their interactions.

As an open system the BPD is constantly dealing with external influences such as changes in crime patterns, legislation, and policies relating to their policing practices. Framing the BPD as a CAS (see Appendix A) challenges its leaders to understand that officers are operating at different levels of the system in a complex web of interactions where they continuously adapt their behaviors, engage in decision-making, and learn from experience as a result of the changing environmental conditions (Chapman, 2004; Plsek, 2001). As a result, the system naturally adapts and self-organizes to become better aligned with the needs of the environment (Rouse, 2008). This is contrary to the current institutional perspective of the BPD that reflects a closed system where officers work in silos towards defined goals as dictated from executive officers that reinforce a hierarchical, command and control-focused, and experience-biased bureaucracy that has failed to respond to the current environment (Herrington & Roberts, 2021). A crucial aspect of a CAS is that leadership is not viewed as "an either-or-situation and that traditional governance mechanisms should not be discarded. Rather, it is the balance of the two approaches, leveraging the strengths of each as appropriate, which can lead to the best overall system performance" (Edson & McGee, 2016, p. 433). In the context of this OIP this perspective cannot be overstated as multiple forms of leadership will be required to advance the change.

Stroh (2015) identifies four compelling reasons for organizations to adopt systems thinking: it motivates officers to change because they understand their role in problem solving, it fosters collaboration by collectively creating desired outcomes, it focuses on smaller coordinated changes over time to achieve systemwide sustainable outcomes, and it stimulates continuous learning. As a leader of change I must focus on how to motivate, mobilize, and engage officers to react positively to organizational change (Arthur-Mensah & Zimmerman, 2017). Connecting and supporting BPD leaders and officers to collectively experiment with

innovative thinking in devising solutions that advance the change plan will provide officers with a sense of empowerment and engagement in their policing practice while regulating the tension resulting from the unpredictability of change (Gill, 2002; Northouse, 2019).

Current Organizational View

Police agencies are among the most conservative institutions in Canada (Bikos, 2017). The BPD is rooted in a conservative, bureaucratic structure where the traditional model of policing is deeply embedded in many of its policies, procedures, and strategies. Weber (1968) notes that conservative, bureaucratic organizations are commonly characterized by strict professionalism, hierarchical rank-structuring, explicitly defined roles and responsibilities, and bounded authority and governed decision-making. The BPD has a long history of operating under conservative ideologies that value tradition and experiential knowledge thus making change to existing processes, practices and strategies very challenging (Marks, 2000). Accordingly, changes to conservative or traditional processes should be gradually introduced to ensure they are properly and fully integrated (Bolman & Deal, 2008).

Change can be difficult in police organizations and is often resisted due to entrenched traditions, histories, and hierarchically structures (Bikos, 2017; Griffiths et al., 2001). Change within the BPD continues to be slower than required in large part to its conservative culture, bureaucratic framework, and traditional values that are embedded throughout the system. For example, between 2017-2019 the organization conducted efficiency exercises that identified over $30 million in resource and time efficiencies that presented a number of opportunities to improve performance. However, initiatives resulting from these opportunities were never evaluated to determine their effectiveness or impact on organizational outcomes (BPD, 2020a). In fact, these efficiency exercises focused the reallocation of funding from one area of the organization to another, while continuing to focus on the same silos, and outputs. A key theme of the organizational review was to improve the understanding of policing practice, and how to measure the complexity of modern policing in terms of public value and meaningful outcomes

(BPD, 2020a). The review concluded that the inclusion of EBP in decision making and program design is critical to optimize value for the community and the BPD. A senior BPD executive noted that “some of the changes will be new to this organization, as they are designed to move us out of 20th century policing practices and into the 21st century” (BPD, 2020a, p. 44). While these comments provide the inspiration for a new way of doing business, isomorphic pressures continue to institutionalize the PoP, maintain the status-quo and other BPD processes and decision-making structures that must be addressed in the change plan.

Recent Literature and Media Attention

Herrington and Roberts (2021) note that recent events across the world have been a master class in complexity for the police agencies around the world. Factors contributing to and increasing this complexity include a global COVID-19 pandemic requiring the unprecedented need to enforce public health lockdowns, underlying social issues and civil unrest connected to themes of inequality, and distrust in authority. Furthermore, the global scale of cyber-crime, proliferation and adaptation of criminal enterprises, the shift of public opinion towards the police from protector to transgressor, and the accompanying public discontent with traditional policing practices also serve to increase complexity within policing. Increased levels of complexity not only impact police agencies but have citizens questioning if their tax dollars should be funding police agencies, or in some cases whether the police should exist at all (Kaba, 2020).

Herrington and Colvin (2015) acknowledge that despite the need for rank-authority in policing, the reality of complex social problems that lead to crime, and the complexity of police agencies require innovation, experimentation, and leveraging thoughts, ideas, and experiences from a wide range of people in their own organizations. Dubord and Griffiths (2019) note that despite the increased emphasis on best practices like EBP, changing organizational culture in police agencies remains elusive. Moreover, EBP has been described as an engine for driving organizational change (Innes, 2010) yet police agencies like the BPD continue to rely on 3R

strategies despite data suggesting that these interventions are ineffective in preventing or reducing crime (Bayley, 1994; Crank & Langworthy, 1992).

Jones (2008) observes that police agencies have typically been slow to change and that modern policing interventions like EBP present a multitude of challenges for police leaders. Furthermore, Jones (2008) argues that change initiatives within police agencies have been largely unsuccessful due to police executives failing to understand the complexity of their environments. Dekker (2010) suggests that "if we really want to understand failure in complex systems, we need to explore how things are related to each other and how they are connected to, configured in, and constrained by larger systems of pressures, constraints, and expectations" (p. 148). To effectively implement change within a CAS, police leaders must view officers from all ranks as having the capacity to act as change agents (Wood, et al., 2008). In advancing this change plan, BPD leaders must view officers at all levels of the organization as having "the potential to challenge the beliefs and meanings that inform their daily practices and are able to alter their routines when innovative practice and new ideas assist them in responding to new dilemmas" (Wood, et al., 2008, p. 72). Consequently, the empowerment of all BPD officers to act as change agents will develop the adaptive capacity of individual officers to embrace and shape organizational change (Marks, 2004).

Guiding Questions Emerging from the Problem of Practice

To effectively interrogate the PoP, it is important to identify a set of guiding questions to facilitate inquiry and develop a holistic understanding of the underlying issues prior to developing possible solutions and recommendations. The process of organizational change often leads to the intersection of barriers and opportunities for change providing change agents with multiple lines of inquiry. In developing this OIP the following three priorities for organizational change have been identified: leadership, education, and culture. To better understand the PoP, it is important to examine current conceptualizations and practices of police leadership and how they contribute to the BPD's lack of EBP practices resulting in an

overreliance on the standard model. Accordingly, the first guiding question seeks to determine *what leadership approaches are best suited to the BPD's current policing environment?* The command-and-control leadership model favours rank and seniority in most decision-making processes and is omnipresent in the BPD. The effectiveness of this model is under a high degree of public scrutiny with police executives being challenged to adopt more participatory leadership approaches (Engel, 2001; Herrington & Roberts, 2021). While DL maintains a degree of relevance in specific contexts of the structural and functional complexity of the BPD, its universal application across all levels of complexity has proven to be ineffective. Stevens (2000) notes that police leaders "can no longer take comfort in the traditional response of a punishment centered organizational bureaucracy accentuated through a reactive policy" (p. 198).

The second question emerging from the PoP asks *"does CT provide a more appropriate lens from which to better understand the function and structure of the BPD"?* As previously discussed, institutional theory explains the BPD's current reductionist approach to problem-solving that universally applies linear thinking to all degrees of complexity. This approach aims to break down the components of its system to establish clear cause and effect relationships by focusing on the homogeneity of the parts of the system, thus favouring the maintenance of status quo practices (Jones, 2008). Conversely, CT suggests that as the components in an organization interact with each other and their external environment they become more complex (Bui & Baruch, 2010). By focusing on the heterogenous interactions between officers, the various system components, and the external environment BPD leaders can develop more effective strategies to address complex problems (Amagoh, 2016). Organizational change initiatives in policing have historically been unsuccessful due to a lack of understanding by police leaders of the complexity of their environments and applying linear models of change that are ineffective in a CAS (Jones, 2008). EBP is a policing philosophy that embraces complexity, challenges conventional practices, provides officers with learning opportunities, and improves organizational performance.

The final question emerging from the PoP asks *"what impact does organizational culture have on implementing EBP?"* A key theme within organizational change literature reveals that while organizations experience moments of transition or instability, they are subject to strong inertial forces (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Police agencies have long felt the effects of cultural inertia which refers to a reluctance to adapt to shifting environmental conditions resulting in a resistance to change (Campeau, 2019; Carrillo & Gromb, 2007). Of particular relevance to the PoP is the paramilitary and conservative conventions of the BPD that have habitually been resistant to applying research evidence in the decision-making process (Lum, 2009; Taylor & Boba, 2011). Consequently, creating a change culture will be priority of change initiators in advancing EBP and improving the BPD's role in public safety (Dubord & Griffiths, 2019).

Leadership-Focused Vision for Change

The leadership-focused vision for change seeks to challenge the institutional factors that dominate the BPD's structure, policies, procedures, and practices that impede it from making Bluetown the safest major city in Canada. In the context of this OIP it is important to note that the term 'safest' in the BPD's vision statement must transcend the quantitative and reductionist lens of the CSI score and the BPD's internal performance measures in defining public safety. The concept of safety must also include the pursuit of social justice that aims to decolonize the traditional assumptions and behaviors reinforced by the standard model. The Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada (Truth and Reconciliation Commission [TRC], 2015) noted that the "continued failure of the justice system denies Indigenous people the safety and opportunities that most Canadians take for granted" (p. 164). In advancing social justice, the BPD must acknowledge and abandon some of its privilege with the goal of a more equitable society (Kincheloe, 2008). EBP can advance this goal by fostering critical thinking into the BPD practices that have contributed to the societal harm experienced by the members of Bluetown's Indigenous community and who continue to be criminalized by colonial institutions and laws (Chrismas, 2012). This complex task will require BPD leaders to foster a culture that critically

evaluates its policies and practices as well as acknowledging that the organization has a professional and ethical obligation to do things better. While the nature of crime will always necessitate reactive policing interventions for which the 3R's are appropriate, the leadership-focused vision for change proposes that adopting EBP can assist the BPD in not only challenging the status-quo but redefine the BPD's concept of the safest city in Canada.

Indigenous communities suffer high crime rates, low employment, and relatively poor economic prosperity in comparison to other communities (Hallett et al., 2006). Locally, Bluetown is home to one of Canada's largest urban Indigenous populations (BPD, 2020a) which presents an extremely complex challenge for the BPD due to the historical role of the police in colonization, specifically the participation in assimilation policies that have created a multi-generational mistrust in the institution of policing that exists to this day (Chrismas, 2012; Cotter, 2020). With its focus on evaluating policing strategies, EBP provides the BPD an opportunity to redress "the racist and colonial views that inspired the crime problems that plague too many Indigenous communities" (TRC, 2015, p. 164). Furthermore, EBP can aid the BPD in making significant progress towards social justice by empowering front-line officers to collaborate with community agencies and individual citizens in fostering positive organizational change (Chrismas, 2012) and in determining which police interventions actually work to reduce crime, harm, and disorder.

Prominent criminology scholar Lawrence Sherman (1998) developed the concept of EBP as a method of making decisions about what works in policing by employing three key activities (3T's): *targeting* scarce policing resources on predictable concentrations of crime and disorder; *testing* police strategies to determine the effectiveness in reducing crime and disorder in the targeted areas; and *tracking* the results of these interventions through internally generated data. EBP is philosophy that applies the science of research, evaluation, and analysis to inform decision-making on a broad range of policing matters that result in numerous benefits to both the EBP and the community (Lum & Koper, 2014). The most tangible gains from

implementing EBP are reduced crime, increased legitimacy, mitigating internal issues, resolving community problems, and reducing fear of crime (Lum, 2009; NRC, 2004; Sherman & Eck, 2002). Moreover, because EBP strategies are more ethically justifiable than subjective practices such as gut-feelings or hunches they can lead to “greater transparency, legitimacy, and accountability in practice, which could improve police-citizen relations and trust” (Lum & Koper, 2014, p. 1428).

While these external benefits of EBP are vital in realizing the BPD’s vision and gaining the support of external stakeholders, a significant internal benefit to the BPD is that EBP is intended to complement existing strategies (Sherman, 1998). Change initiators, implementers, and facilitators must emphasize this point when attempting to reduce the cultural inertia/barriers to change because officers will understand that EBP is not intended to replace the standard model but is to be employed alongside it (Eck, 2019; Lum & Koper, 2017). EBP “values the traditional drivers of police decision making such as previous professional experience and craft but seeks to raise awareness of scientific testing to help inform that experience and craft” (Honess, 2018, p. 21). Moreover, EBP can promote increased transparency, legitimacy, and accountability for police organizations (Lum & Koper, 2014).The combination of the Cynefin Framework (Snowden & Boone, 2007) and EBP provides BPD leaders with a comprehensive roadmap for navigating the complexities of their policing environment.

Priorities for Change

This section will discuss the three following priorities for organizational change: leadership, education, and culture, and their role in the change process. These priorities will be examined utilizing Bolman and Deal’s (2017) multi-frame analysis. Diagnosing the BPD through these four frames - structural, human resource, political, and symbolic - can assist its leaders in developing a deeper understanding of the complex environments in which it exists as well as determining the focus of organizational development and change.

Leadership

Allen and Kraft (1987) suggest that effective leadership is the ability to bring about sustained organizational change. As a change priority, leadership can be viewed from both the structural and political frames. Viewed through the structural frame the BPD is dominated by a reliance on rules, policies, and procedures that have been ineffective in addressing complex problems and stifles innovation (e.g., DL, 3R's). Christensen (1997) describes this as the *innovator's dilemma* which refers to an organizational reliance on past practices when confronted by complex situations that lead to uncertainty. This results in a belief that better organizational outcomes will be achieved by implementing status-quo practices more effectively instead of something new or unproven. In the context of the BPD, Bolman and Deal (2017) would argue that the "price of stability is a structure that grows increasingly misaligned with the environment" (p. 87). As BPD leaders are charged with the vital task of moving the organization forward, more agile and participatory leadership behaviors are required to effect real change (Marks & Fleming, 2004). Viewed through the political frame leadership is directly linked to those who hold power and can influence outcomes, and how that power influences relationships.

In the BPD, power is held by assigned leaders and is intimately connected to the structural frame. Bolman and Deal (2017) describe politics as a decision-making process that involves conflict and negotiation among competing stakeholder interests. Heffron (1989) notes that conflict "challenges the status quo and stimulates interest and curiosity. It is the root of personal and social change, creativity, and innovation. Internally, conflict encourages new ideas and approaches to problems, stimulating innovation" (p. 185). Externally, it means acknowledging the influence of the police in deeper social issues including power imbalances, socio-economic division, and citizen animosity (Chrismas, 2012). In advancing EBP police leaders must better predict, manage, and embrace conflict as an opportunity to drive change.

Education

The second condition that is key to the success of the change plan is the role of education and learning. Bolman and Deal (2017) suggest that an investment in change "calls for collateral investments in training and in development of active channels for employee input" (p. 370). Viewed through the human resource frame, education within the context of this OIP promotes new learning through two key activities: formal education in EBP concepts and theory, and experiential learning projects for frontline supervisors, officers, and analysts in collaboration with academic partners. Both of these activities aim to transfer EBP knowledge into the BPD's operational system. Innovative organizations empower and invest in the development of their employees (Bolman & Deal, 2017). The investment in employee development in the areas of leadership, research knowledge and skills, and EBP will be a vital element in the quest for organizational change. Engel and Whalen (2010) suggest that "if police were willing to open the door and extend a welcome, they would likely find multiple sources of well-trained and well-intentioned people who provide a valuable service toward common goals at little or no cost to the police agency" (p. 115). Furthermore, EBP can foster ancillary benefits such as fostering autonomy and participation, job re-design, promoting teamwork and providing officers meaningful work.

Culture

Viewed through the symbolic frame police culture has historically been resistance to organizational change (Miles-Johnson, 2016). The BPD's culture has been institutionalized through artifacts such as stories, rituals and symbols that have influenced its members attitudes, beliefs, and practices (Deszca et al., 2020). These include but are not limited to the BPD's distinctive uniform and badges, unique graduation ceremony for new recruits, and the oral storytelling across generations of officers that reinforce the protector mentality. Additionally, the lived experiences and beliefs of officers not only define the BPD culture but also influences the ability to accept new ways of thinking (Deszca et al., 2020; Hart, 1996). Bolman and Deal (2017)

suggest “a strong culture breeds people who share both values and habits of mind. A unifying culture reduces conflict and political strife - or at least makes them easier to manage” (p. 307). A goal of this OIP is to build a unifying culture that minimizes the cultural inertia resulting from previous change initiatives and encourages BPD leaders to view leadership and culture as “two sides of the same coin” (Schein, 2010, p. 3). Accordingly, a participatory leadership approach combined with a focused education program that reflect the needs of the community, social justice outcomes, BPD values and ethics, and a genuine concern for officers can create a unifying culture and maximize opportunities for successful organizational change.

External and Internal Factors

According to Lewin (1947), organizational change begins by mapping out the totality and complexity of active forces that create the organizations environment (Burnes, 2004b; Phillips, 2013). To assist leaders in mapping their environment Lewin (1946) developed the force field analysis that identifies two types of forces that influence change: driving forces that facilitate change and restraining forces that resist change. Externally, Duxbury et al. (2018) conducted a national study that examined the change readiness of Canadian police agencies. Utilizing the force field analysis (see Appendix B), they categorized qualitative data collected from 103 (*n* = 103) semi-structured interviews with police experts into two categories: forces for change and forces maintaining the status quo. Sixty-four experts (*n* = 64) were police officers including front line officers, Sergeants/Staff Sergeants, executive officers, and civilian members. The remaining thirty-nine experts (*n* = 39) were community members who work closely with the police including elected officials, healthcare workers, education providers, and members from the private sector. A thematic analysis of the results identified two key themes regarding change in Canadian police agencies: strong drivers of change are predominately external to policing and key barriers to change are largely internal with police culture identified as a particularly strong barrier to change (Duxbury et al., 2019).

Internally, the BPD's organizational review (2020a) was guided by key themes of leadership, organizational culture, and the environmental factors that impact change. Qualitative data from the review was collected through a variety of sources including surveys, focused interviews, and multiple focus groups resulting in the identification of 8 drivers/barriers to organizational change that were prevalent in the national study (see Table 1). While Table 1 provides the total number of respondents from the national study who identified the theme as well as the police and community samples, the table has been adapted to reflect the eight shared themes from the BPD's internal review. Consistent with the change priorities of this OIP, the most significant observation from the data is the high percentage of respondents from the policing sample who identified both leadership and culture as barriers to organizational change. Nonetheless, data from both reports not only signify a readiness for change across the profession but can also assist BPD leaders in increasing the drivers for change while reducing the barriers to change when developing the change plan.

Table 1

Drivers & Barriers to Change within Canadian Policing

	Total		Police		Community	
	n (103)	%	n (64)	%	n (39)	%
EXTERNAL DRIVERS OF CHANGE						
Changing community expectations	56	54	32	50	24	62
Changing nature of crime	35	34	23	36	12	31
INTERNAL DRIVERS OF CHANGE						
Police leadership	13	13	8	13	5	13
EXTERNAL BARRIERS TO CHANGE						
Community: competing interests	41	40	27	44	14	36
Political: lack of will	36	35	27	42	9	23
INTERNAL BARRIERS OF CHANGE						
Organizational culture/inertia	51	50	35	55	16	41
Police officers	37	36	26	41	11	28
Police leadership	34	33	24	38	10	25

*Note***.** Adapted from Duxbury et al. (2018). Change or be changed: Diagnosing the readiness to change in the Canadian police sector. *The Police Journal*, *91*(4), 323.

Organizational Change Readiness

The success of any organizational change initiative demands that both the BPD and its officers be motivated and prepared for the change. The increasing complexity of policing has tested the limits of the BPD's resources and strategies leaving many officers with a deep sense of frustration by a limited effect on long-term, deep-seated, complex problems (Herrington & Roberts, 2021). A shared frustration of organizational outcomes by the police and the public suggests a high readiness for change. Deszca et al. (2020) observe that the level of organizational dissatisfaction with the status-quo can also be very influential in determining the degree of engagement by employees in change initiatives. BPD change initiators and implementers must recognize that officers who are discontent with the status-quo may not hold the positions, power, or authority to initiate change. Furthermore, high levels of leadership support are vital to successful organizational change and verbal support alone will be insufficient to convince the organization that the change is needed. This will compel BPD leaders to demonstrate active support in critical moments throughout the change process (Deszca et al., 2020).

Armenakis et al. (2000) identified five criteria that indicate the readiness for organizational change: the need for change is demonstrated by the gap between the current and future states, the proposed change is the right change to make, organizational members are confident in their ability to implement the change, the support of key stakeholders, and answering the what's in it for me/us question. First, for an organization to be prepared to accept and implement change there must be a demonstrated *need for change*. For the BPD, this need was identified through two quantitative measures. First, Bluetown's CSI score has been significantly higher than the national average for last two decades (Statistics Canada, 2021). Second, the BPD has set specific performance indicators to evaluate the effectiveness of its 3R model that include the amount of proactive time/random patrols conducted by frontline officers, response times to high priority calls, and clearance rates for reactive investigations. To date the

BPD has yet to achieve or exceed the benchmarks it set as measures of success (BPC, 2019). As previously noted, the organizational review concluded that the BPD "might have been focussing on the wrong targets - instead of measuring how fast we can arrive at a crime scene, we should be focusing on how to reduce crime, disorder, and needs for calls for service" (BPD, 2019a, p.6).

Second, organizational members need to believe that the proposed change is the *right change to make* (Armenakis et al., 2000). As Bluetown's population and geographic footprint continues to grow, so too does the complexity of social issues that can contribute to an increase in the level of crime. BPD officers are acutely aware that the status-quo is ineffective and unsustainable which was evident from the survey feedback in the organizational review. Themes resulting from the focus groups include: a significant frustration regarding the calls that are being dispatched, an inefficient use of resources, improving decision making by empowering members in their work, and providing opportunities for members to use critical thinking skills, learning to make decisions, and problem solving (BPD, 2019a). These sentiments signal an opportunity to advance EBP and initiate a culture of innovation and change.

Third, enhancing the readiness for change requires that the *organizational membership has confidence* in their ability to implement change (Armenakis et al., 2000). Providing members with proper tools to implement the change will increase confidence in their capabilities (Police Executive Research Forum [PERF], 2018). Strategies to increase organizational confidence include developing a training strategy rooted in the tenets of EBP, CT, and social justice while providing the supports and resources for experiential learning projects.

Fourth, the *support of key individuals within the organization* can also enhance the change readiness of the BPD (Armenakis et al., 2000). Executive leaders can grow the organization's absorptive capacity, skills, and knowledge by identifying and implementing new initiatives (Greenhalgh et al., 2004; Grol et al., 2007). As previously mentioned, the impact of observable actions by leaders can greatly influence the support and success of the change.

Kalyal (2020) argues that it is the responsibility of executive police leaders to foster an organizational climate that is receptive to the adoption of EBP. Consequently, developing a strong statement of support for EBP, joining the Canadian Society of Evidence-based Policing (CAN-SEBP), actively engaging with the Canadian Association of Chief's of Police Research Foundation (CACP-RF), and developing formal police-academic partnerships with local universities are significant demonstrations of executive commitment to the change plan.

Fifth, in response to the last criteria, *what's in it for me/us* (Armenakis et al., 2000), is accurately summarized by Bartkowiak-Théron and Herrington (2015) who note that the "engagement of police officers with academia is a demonstration that early university-community engagement can be a catalyst for critical thought within the profession, changing professionals into reflexive, critical thinkers and positive agents" (p. 75). BPD leaders must reinforce that by embracing complexity and adopting policing interventions that extend beyond the standard model will improve organizational performance and its public perception (Mitchell & Huey, 2018).

Chapter One Summary

Chapter one examined the historical and social contexts underscoring the PoP. The BPD has been lulled in to maintaining the status-quo as reflected in its lack of EBP practices, as such the BPD "risks failing to develop the organization's capacity to adapt to the changing environment" (Deszca et al., 2020, p. 106). The BPD's institutionalized environment has entrenched internal expectations for how it operates despite data showing that its structures and functions have been ineffective in addressing complex problems. CT was introduced as the framework for achieving the BPD's future envisioned state which was supported with CAS theory and Snowden and Boone's (2007) Cynefin Framework to examine the functional and structural complexity of the BPD. These tools not only challenge the linear, closed system thinking that underpins the PoP but also assist in identifying an effective leadership model and the development of potential solutions to address the PoP that will be examined in chapter two.

Chapter Two: Planning and Development

Chapter two establishes the work of the change plan. In this chapter, the PoP - the BPD's lack of EBP practices - will be framed within a specific leadership approach and an organizational change model that will provide framework for the planning and implementation of the change plan in chapter three. The planning and development process expands on the leadership approaches discussed in chapter one and serves as the driver to move the OIP forward. The second component of this chapter will compare several change models for the purpose of considering how change will occur within the BPD and ultimately results in the selection of a framework for leading the change process that is most appropriate for this OIP. A critical organizational analysis comprises the third component of this chapter and identifies what needs to change within the BPD in order to achieve its future envisioned state of making Bluetown the safest major city in Canada. The fourth section compares several possible solutions to address the PoP with specific consideration to the educational and resource requirements needed to shift the BPD's leadership and cultural dynamics to advance the change plan. Lastly, chapter two concludes with a discussion on the type of change that will guide the overall plan and examines leadership in the context of equity, ethics, and social justice.

Leadership Approach to Change

Heifetz (1994) describes leadership as an activity that mobilizes people to adapt to complex situations. Throughout the implementation of this change plan BPD officers will be challenged to examine their beliefs about the role of EBP in public safety as well as their role as police officers in a complex, information-rich, and community-centred environment. From a CT lens, leadership focuses on identifying strategies and behaviors that foster organizational and group creativity, learning, and adaptability when CAS dynamics are enabled (Uhl-Bien, 2007). How BPD leaders mobilize and empower their officers will have a significant impact on their ability to successfully implement change. This will require a purposeful and thoughtful

leadership approach that meets the needs of the officers engaged in the change and aligns with the core values and goals of the BPD. As discussed in chapter one, my personal leadership philosophy reflects an ambidextrous approach as demonstrated through TL and AL behaviors. This ambidexterity refers to my ability as a leader to transition between complementary leadership approaches aimed at influencing officer behavior in order to meet the innovation needs of an assigned task. The behaviors are complementary because “each of them corresponds to innovation requirements that the other one is not able to meet with the ever-changing requirements of the innovation process” (Rosing et al., 2011, p. 957). While TL is most appropriate in addressing simple problems where solutions are clearly defined (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1990) and AL is effective in resolving complex problems, developing employees, and fostering innovation and creativity (Haber, 2011), the nature of the PoP requires a catalyst that can create the conditions for AL and adaptive behaviours to thrive and for organizational change to occur. This catalyst is found in complexity leadership theory (CLT).

CLT provides a leadership framework where the competing demands on the BPD provide its leaders the opportunity to harness the tension - a balance between the 3R’s & 3T’s - that is necessary for positive change to occur by creating adaptive spaces for officers to experiment with EBP strategies. A CLT approach would see BPD leaders fostering the conditions for bottom-up decision-making, letting officers and sub-units self-organize instead of inundating them with an abundance of orders and directives so that so that they can generate positive emergent outcomes (e.g., innovation and collaboration) by providing basic rules (e.g., vision and goals) to keep the organization focused.

Marion & Uhl-Bien (2001) suggest that organizational change and leadership success are not contingent on the charisma, strategic insight, or individual power of a single leader. Rather, it is attributable to the capacity of the organization to adapt, learn, and be productive in complex environments which is becoming more common for the BPD. Accordingly, CLT has been chosen as the leadership approach to address the PoP and the related challenges

presented throughout this OIP for two primary reasons. First, CLT encompasses my TL and AL approaches while expanding my leadership practice by incorporating a third complementary and integrative leadership approach. Second, CLT can assist BPD leaders in balancing the formal and informal organizational structures necessary to leverage characteristics of a CAS to foster adaptation, learning, and innovation (Bäcklander, 2019).

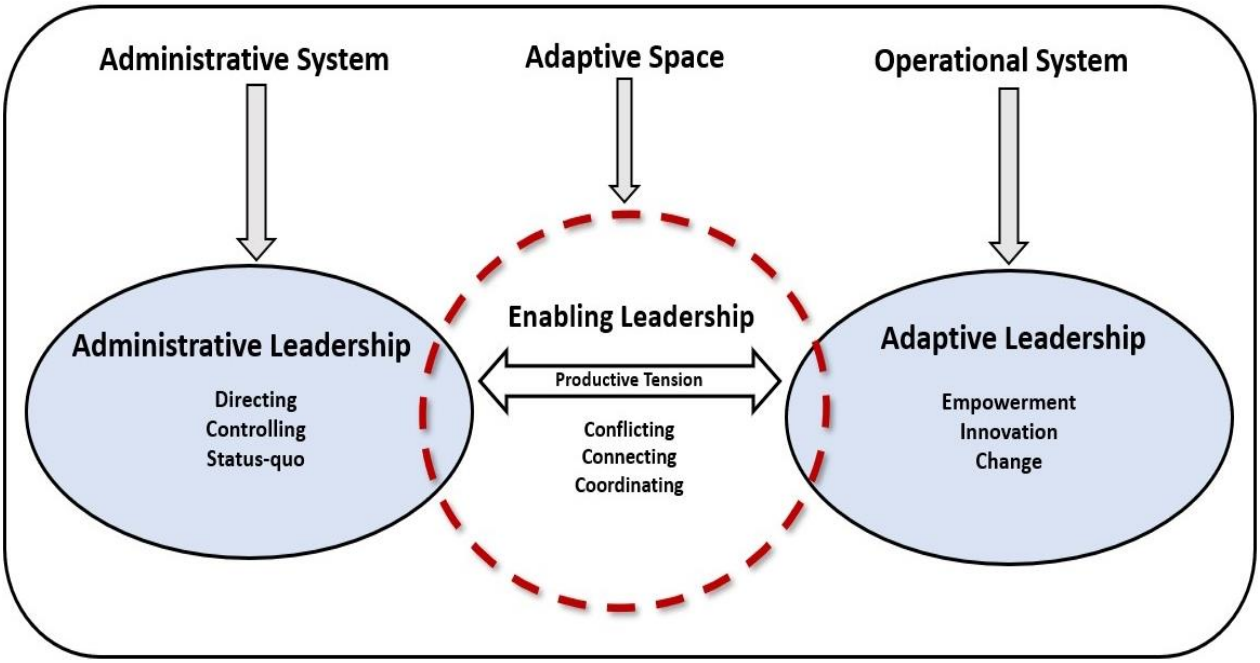
Complexity Leadership Theory

Developed by Marion and Uhl-Bien (2001) CLT applies CT to the study of organizational behaviors, processes, and leadership within a CAS. Framed as a CAS the BPD consists of officers and groups of officers who connect through shared common interests, shared world views, shared knowledge, and shared goals resulting from the history of their interactions within the organization. Lichtenstein et al. (2006) note that relationships in a CAS are not primarily defined by hierarchy, instead, they are defined by the interactions among its officers and across networks of officers. Within their CAS, BPD officers respond to internal and external pressures through a process of self-organization which describes the new patterns of collective behavior such as collaboration, adaptation, innovation, and learning in response to changes in the environment. Accordingly, BPD leaders must understand that DL or TL in a CAS is not appropriate for every situation or problem officers face.

CLT provides an integrative theoretical framework involving three leadership functions. The distinct but interrelated systems within the BPD and the corresponding leadership behaviors are outlined in Figure 2. *Administrative leadership* refers to the actions of those in formal managerial roles who plan and coordinate activities to achieve prescribed organizational outcomes in an efficient and effective manner. Consistent with the BPD's DL style, administrative leadership structures tasks, engages in planning, builds vision, allocates resources to achieve goals, manages conflict, and manages organizational strategy (Mumford et al., 2008; Yukl, 2005).

Figure 2

Complexity Leadership Framework



Note. Adapted from Uhl-Bien, M., & Arena, M. (2018). Leadership for organizational adaptability: A theoretical synthesis and integrative framework. *The Leadership Quarterly, 29*(1), 99.

Adaptive leadership is not defined by formal positions or rank within an organization and refers to the informal emergent behaviors of officers that allow the BPD to adjust and evolve to complex issues or changes in the environment through the processes of self-organization, feedback, adaptation, and learning (Uhl-Bien et al., 2007). *Enabling leadership* serves as the link between the administrative and operational systems by creating and supporting adaptive spaces while managing the tension between the administrative and operational systems of an organization (Marion & Uhl-Bien, 2007). The tension between these systems is viewed as both positive and creative, is omnipresent in adaptive spaces, and naturally exists in a CAS. Arena (2018) provides the following description:

> Adaptive Space, is quite simply, the freedom for ideas to flow into and throughout an organization. It operates as a sort of free-trade zone for ideas within large complex

> organizations. It is the relational, emotional, and sometimes physical space necessary for people to freely explore, exchange, and debate ideas. It involves opening up connections for people, ideas, information, and resources to come together and interact in ways that enhance organizational agility. Adaptive Space enables organizations to be positively disruptive so they can control their own destiny before someone else does (pp. 8-9)

While administrative and adaptive leadership play key roles in this OIP, it is the intentional practice of enabling leadership that will determine the overall success of the change plan. The key task of enabling leaders is to create and manage the productive tension in the adaptive space between the administrative and operational systems. This is achieved by the enabling leadership behaviors of *conflicting* and *connecting* that aim to disrupt the status-quo, promote knowledge mobilization, and foster support for the change plan. The dualism of enabling leadership behaviours is key to the success of the change plan and is examined further in chapter three.

Lichtenstein et al. (2006) note that traditional leadership approaches do not translate well to the current knowledge-based era since they were born from research on organizations in the Industrial era. Cilliers (2005) notes that traditional organizations have developed simple solutions (e.g., 3R's) to examine complex issues despite their ineffectiveness in managing complex problems. Drucker (2012) observes that organizations in the 21st century operate in environments that are far from a state of equilibrium, alternately referred to as the zone of complexity. In consideration of these scholarly conclusions the BPD must move away from the comfort of the status-quo and embrace the discomfort of its structural and functional complexity to trigger the emergence of "more creative, open-ended, imaginative, diverse, and rich ideas and practices" (Stacey et al., 2000, p. 146). For these reasons, CLT naturally provides the participatory and balanced leadership approach needed to advance the change plan.

Framework for Leading the Change Process

Deszca et al. (2020) contend that organizational leaders know what they need to achieve but don't always know how to get there. They suggest that the complexity of change can be somewhat simplified by understanding the two distinct aspects of organizational change. First, organizational leaders must decide on what to change. Thus far the focus of this OIP has examined this aspect, namely the BPD's lack of EBP practices and subsequent overreliance on the standard model. The second aspect for organizational leaders to understand is how they will lead organizational change. Selecting the appropriate change model is a major consideration for BPD leaders as it provides the framework that will guide the organization through anticipatory, strategic change. While there are fundamental similarities among the multitude of available change models, the success of this OIP is predicated on selecting the one that fits the BPD and the change plan. This section examines several change models and selects one that is most appropriate for this OIP.

In determining the appropriate change model for this OIP, it must be noted that the change path model (Deszca & Ingols, 2020), Kotter's eight-stage process (Kotter,1995), and Lewin's three-step model (Lewin,1946) are all relevant and appropriate frameworks for this OIP. Deszca et al. (2020) used the change path model to describe a four-step process of awakening, mobilization, acceleration, and institutionalization through which the change leader determines the need for change, identifies the gap between the current and desired future states, develops and implements a change plan and institutionalizes the new systems to create stability in the organization. Conversely, Kotter's (1995) eight-stage process places more emphasis on the people involved in the change process by creating a guiding coalition and empowering employees; moreover, it identifies the process of visioning, communicating the vision to inspire employees to change, and generating short-term wins as key elements to ensure the people are aligning with the changes.

As with the change path model (Deszca & Ingols, 2020), the final stage acknowledges the need for stability; however, Kotter embeds the changes in culture and values by directing attention to the people of the organization as the primary recipients of change (Kotter,1995). Empowering BPD officers to engage in EBP is critical to addressing the PoP and shifting the focus from a reactive policing model to a more proactive model. From a learning perspective, this will shift current BPD education and training from 3R practices to toward the integration of 3T practices. This shift in learning reflects a commitment to using data and research in identifying the most effective strategies for resolving complex problems, challenging officer beliefs about their policing practices, and promoting innovation through experimentation. However, the change path model, with its macro-level focus on the organization is not the most appropriate framework for this change, nor is Kotter's eight-stage model due to its rigid and chronological approach making it incongruent with the complex environment of the BPD. For these reasons, Lewin's model has been selected as the change framework for this OIP. Management scholar Robert Levasseur (2001) once noted, "the most powerful tool in my toolbox is Kurt Lewin's three-step model" (p. 71).

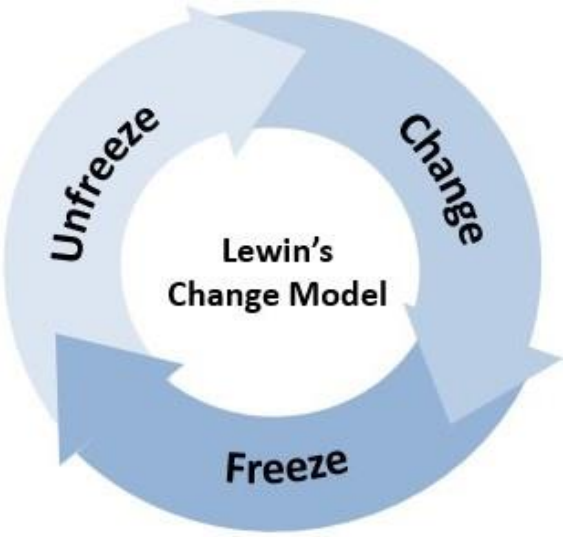
Lewin's Three-Step Model

According to Lewin (1951), organizational leaders need to understand the situation, the system, and the component parts that make up the system before change can occur. Not only do organizations need a compelling reason to change, but for planned change to succeed organizational leaders must also understand how to destabilize the system in order to increase readiness for change (Lewin,1947a, b,1951). A key theme in Lewin's work is the belief that "the group to which an individual belongs is the ground for their perceptions, feelings and actions" (Allport, 1948, p. vii). With this belief Lewin argued that change must be facilitated through learning that enables employees to understand and reframe their perceptions of their environment. In operationalizing his vision for change, Lewin developed a 3-step model of unfreeze-change- freeze to assist organizational leaders in facilitating change.

As Lewin was a social psychologist, his model championed an ethical and humanist approach to organizational change that emphasizes learning, empowerment, and collaboration (Burnes, 2004a) that align with the social justice lens of this OIP. While Lewin's model is discussed in the context of organizational change it is important to note that Lewin was a humanitarian whose work is rooted in a strong moral and ethical belief in resolving social conflict and problems of disadvantaged groups by promoting democratic values and institutions (Burnes, 2004a). Historically, Lewin's model has been visually presented in a linear framework; however, it has been adapted for this OIP to reflect the ongoing, evolving, and cumulative nature of change (see Figure 3).

Figure 3

Lewin's Three-Step Change Model



Note. Adapted from Cummings et al. (2016). Unfreezing change as three steps: Rethinking Kurt Lewin's legacy for change management. *Human Relations, 69*(1), 34.

Unfreeze

Lewin's model begins by recognizing that people need to have a reason to challenge the status quo. Schein (1996) suggests that people unfreeze from the status-quo when they experience disconfirmation that contradicts preconceived notions about the organization. In the

context of the BPD, disconfirmation rests in the belief that applying traditional 3R solutions to complex problems is becoming increasingly ineffective in reducing crime as well as reinforcing social injustice. Kritsonis (2004) notes that unfreezing happens in the tension between the forces that drive change such as a high CSI score or introducing EBP, and the restraining forces that impede change such as loss of identity, loss of power or position or group membership, or feelings of incompetence (Schein, 2010). Within the CLT framework, the enabling leadership behavior of *conflicting* is the mechanism that initiates the productive tension in this stage. Enabling leadership also manages this tension with *connecting* behaviors that nurture leader-follower relationships, mitigate the restraining forces that impede change by engaging everyone in the change process, and views all officers as stakeholders, compelling them to work towards positive change (Heifetz & Laurie, 2001). Because the unfreezing stage impacts groups norms, BPD leaders must create adaptive spaces for self-reflection and social interaction in order to successfully challenge the status-quo (Schein, 2010). Providing this safe environment for officers can lead to creative solutions that serve as a driver for change (Lichtenstein et al., 2006). Furthermore, enabling leadership supports the change goals by reducing conflict and formalizing networks to support officers in successfully overcoming their fears about the change process (Davis, 2017).

Change

Schein (1996, 2010) described the change stage as cognitive restructuring which requires an intense cognitive engagement in the process of learning new ideas or behaviors for change to be permanent. The preliminary work of cognitive restructuring began in the unfreeze stage; however, building on this momentum requires a leadership approach that is multi-faceted, applies systems thinking, enables network interactions, nurtures innovation, and fosters collaboration (Uhl-Bien & Arena, 2018). These functions are found in the adaptive and enabling behaviors of CLT and encourage officers to reframe their understanding of EBP and its importance to the organizational vision. As discussed in chapter one, the targeting-testing-

tracking of current BPD practices would represent the positive (facilitative) feedback or the disconfirmation required to move the CAS away from the status-quo and foster change.

Palmer (2004) notes that the failure of organizational change is typically the result of change initiators ignoring the common reactions of individuals to disturbances in their routine. The enabling leadership task of connecting is well suited to initiate and leverage this state of professional discomfort due to its focus on the affective aspect of change by nurturing relationships, understanding reasoning and emotions, and working together to do adaptive work (Arthur-Mensah & Zimmerman, 2017). The dualism of enabling leadership aims to foster the conditions that develop officer creativity by integrating EBP into their professional practice resulting in meaningful and sustained change. BPD leaders must be cognizant that the change stage will take time due to the varying rates that officers will change as well as the differences in how they manage their change processes.

Freeze

The freeze stage stabilizes the changes by reinforcing new norms and habits (Deszca et al., 2020). Freezing results from officers reaching identified goals and subsequently establishing new goals and strategies resulting in a change in culture based on their shared experiences (Schein, 2010). EBP would be a new norm that promotes increased collaboration among officers and academics, increased creativity in using EBP strategies, applying EBP for the purpose of achieving the complementary goals of organizational efficiency and professional competence with social justice, and increased risk-taking in learning and leadership. Hussain et al. (2018) highlighted the need for employee involvement in the change stage for freezing to be successful. Employees who are involved in devising solutions are more successful at freezing because they have ensured personal congruence with the changes (Schein, 1996, 2010).

Lewin's three-step change model has been selected as the change framework for the following reasons: first, Lewin advocates for greater democracy and power equalization in all aspects of organizational life, not just limited employee participation in change (Bechtold, 1997;

Jenner, 1998; Kiel, 1994). Second, organizational change should be ongoing, based on learning and self-organization at the team/group level (Broadbeck, 2002; Brown & Eisenhardt, 1997). Lastly, in achieving effective change, order-generating rules have the potential to overcome the limitations of rational, linear, top-down, strategy-driven approaches to change (MacIntosh & MacLean, 1999, 2001; Stacey, 2003; Styhre, 2002). While some scholars have been critical of Lewin's change model, describing it as too simplistic to advance organizational change (Child, 2005; Clegg et al., 2005; Kanter et al., 1992; Lewis, 2019) the position argued in this OIP is that the three steps should be viewed as broadly defined stages that allow change initiators the flexibility to determine how change will happen (Schein, 2010). Furthermore, it is important to emphasize that while the model serves as the framework for change, it is the leader who plans and guides the change.

Critical Organizational Analysis

A critical organizational analysis is a vital step in any organizational change process as the change leader must interrogate the core elements of the organization to define the gap between the current state and the envisioned future state. Nadler and Tushman's (1980) Congruence Model was selected due to its focus on determining the best fit/balance among the various components of the BPD. The challenge faced in this organizational analysis is that the PoP is rooted in institutional beliefs, practices, and structures rather than identifiable positive outcomes. Consequently, the analysis will focus on the elements that influence the BPD's beliefs of its current policing model and how these beliefs can be reframed to influence change.

Nadler & Tushman's Congruence Model

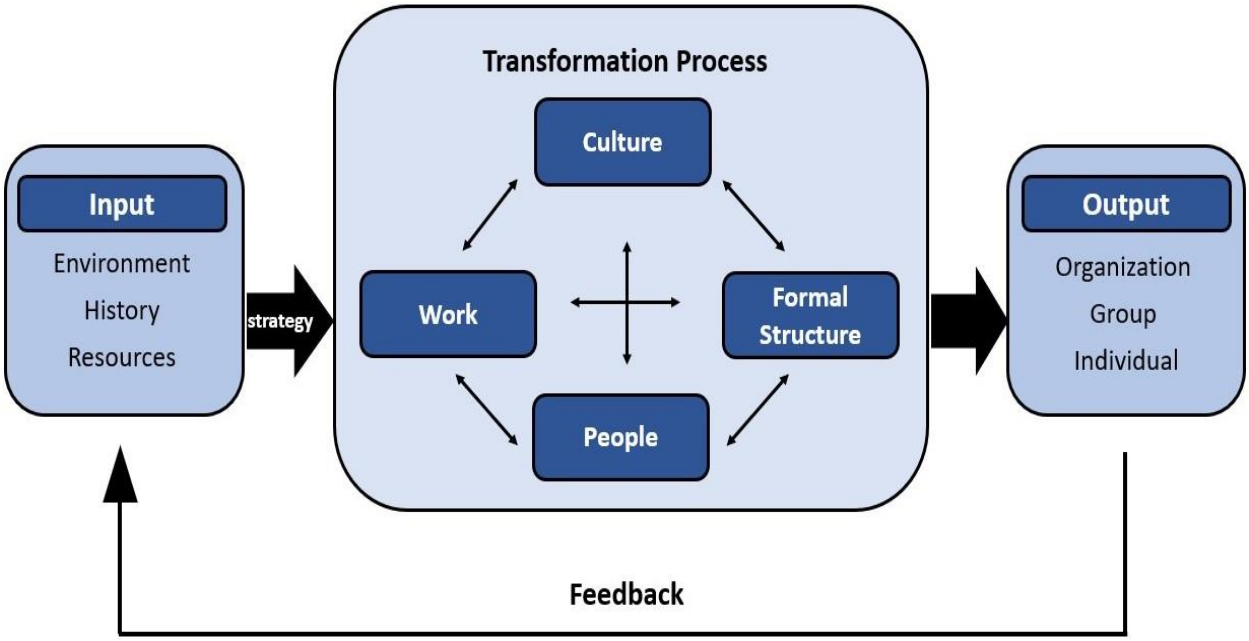
The Congruence Model (see Figure 4) examines four elements of an organization when considering organizational change: what is done, who does it, how its done, and who makes the decisions. The more congruence there is among the four components, the more successful the organization will be however, the goal is to achieve the best fit not perfect alignment, recognizing that the elements are not static but dynamic (Nadler & Tushman, 1980). In applying

the congruence model to the BPD, the components are defined as follows: the *work* is detecting and investigating crime, the *people* are the officers, the *formal structure* comprises the para-military hierarchy and policing practices that underpin the standard model, while the *culture* encompasses the informal organization and underlying cultural assumptions that can be seen in officer attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors (Schein, 2010).

According to Nadler and Tushman (1980), organizational change requires change initiators to focus on changing one element at a time, then realign the other elements to create the best fit. For example, when focusing on the work it will be necessary for officers to reflect on why the standard model remains their primary policing model despite it ineffectiveness in preventing or reducing crime. Once a system of reflection is implemented, other elements like the people or the culture will realign to create a better fit.

Figure 4

Nadler & Tushman's Congruence Model



Note. Adapted from Nadler, D. A., & Tushman, M. L. (1989). Organizational frame bending: Principles for managing reorientation. *Academy of Management Executive, III*(3), 195.

Input

Successful organizational change is dependent on what Nadler and Tushman (1980) refer to as inputs. Boone (2015) notes that "the interplay of these inputs will determine how the people within them will behave, including their affinity for or aversion to change" (p. 279). Consistent with CT, this interplay reflects an open systems perspective that acknowledges the complexity of organizations and the dynamic way they interact with their environments (Deszca et al., 2020).

The BPD's *history* is inseparable from its current state. It continues to have a significant influence on the PoP by entrenching current beliefs in reactive practices resulting from the imitative and normative pressures outlined in chapter one. Crank (2003) notes that police officers believe in the essential rightness of what they do but this belief can be an obstacle to the critical evaluation of organizational practices. Current BPD training and education, both formal and experiential, is dominated by the 3R practices of the standard model. Previous changes to the BPD's recruit training curriculum have been made to incorporate more proactive policing strategies yet they have not been sustained once officers are assigned to the frontline. The BPD's historical and institutional attachment to the standard model influences the PoP and widens the gap between the current and envisioned future state.

The adoption of EBP practices is negatively influenced by the siloed nature of the policing *environment*. The institutionalized context of the BPD has contributed to a culture of resistance as reflected in the maintenance of the status-quo. Carrillo and Gromb (2007) describe this as cultural inertia - the reluctance to adapt to shifting environmental conditions. Campeau (2017) explains that cultural inertia applies to three aspects organizational change in the policing: demographics (who they are), policy (what they are directed to do), and their practices (how they do it). Environmentally, officers are dispersed across a vast metropolitan area, performing different duties/roles in different geographic locations on varying shifts schedules while trying to navigate the varying needs of diverse communities and stakeholders.

These conditions make collaborative learning quite difficult and are exacerbated by the consistently high call volume resulting in fewer officers available to engage in EBP.

The BPD's *resources* (physical, financial, and human) are frequently stretched beyond capacity. With recent public pressure to defund the police and increased accountability to improve the CSI score, BPD leaders have an opportunity to foster a create a culture of innovation by using its finite resources in an agile manner through the application of EBP. In its strategic plan, the BPD commits to being innovative by advancing new policing practices (BPD, 2020b). Consequently, EBP can assist in determining the root causes of crime, inform decision making resulting in the effective deployment of existing resources in addressing complex problems while moving the organization closer to realizing its vision.

These three inputs - history, environment, and resources - collectively embody the BPD's conservative values (Loftus, 2010). While previous change initiatives have focused on adopting modern policing strategies, a strong traditionalism can be seen in the dominant ideology of the standard model. This traditionalism permeates the PoP but can be mitigated by increasing support for EBP.

Strategy

Deszca et al. (2020) note "when there is a gap between what leaders say their strategy is and what they do (e.g., the actual strategy in use), one needs to pay close attention to the strategy in use" (p. 73). The BPD's current strategic plan outlines four goals for the organization with three of these goals committing to the use data and evidence in identifying the root causes of crime with the goal of improving public safety (BPD, 2019a). Despite this commitment there remains a significant gap between the current strategy and actual practices of the BPD as highlighted by its lack of EBP practices and overreliance on the standard model. This gap can be narrowed by committing to the current strategy through invested leadership and providing the supports and resources needed to disrupt the status-quo. Snowden and Boone (2007) remind us that relying on command-and-control models in an effort to accelerate change in complex

systems actually endangers the change. Viewing EBP as an enabler of critical thinking provides change initiators, implementors, and facilitators the opportunity to empower officers to construct their own beliefs about effective policing practices. This emergent learning is a tenet of a CAS that can foster support for the change plan. A renewed focus on education involves creating and using research, experimentation, and developing academic partnerships in order to move the organization forward (Murray, 2013).

Transformation Process

The Congruence Model identifies the work, people, culture, and formal structure as the key elements of the transformation process (Deszca et al., 2020; Nadler & Tushman, 1980). Nadler and Tushman (1980) indicated that the *work* and the *people* are interconnected through the knowledge and skills possessed by the individuals that are required to do the work. As previously discussed, BPD officers are expected to engage in proactive problem-solving initiatives during their assigned shifts. Most officers want to learn new strategies that will increase officer engagement, reduce call volume, and address complex policing problems yet the only officers held accountable for engaging in proactive work are new recruits. While officers have the autonomy to decide for themselves if and when to integrate interventions beyond the 3R's, an increased emphasis and accountability on engaging in EBP during dedicated proactive policing time is necessary. Mitchell and Huey (2018) explain that the power of EBP lies in its emphasis on meaningful reciprocity - "a central tenet of EBP is that it is important to grow knowledge within, outside, and across organizations through the sharing of information, local knowledge, and skills" (p. xiv). Consequently, professional development opportunities (formal and experiential) in EBP, as well as the supporting structures and resources, need to be made available to officers in order to advance the change plan.

The informal organization or *culture* remains an influential factor in BPD. McLaughlin (2007) describes police culture as the "accepted practices, rules and principles of conduct that are situationally applied and generalized rationales and beliefs" (pp. 53-54). According to Reiner

(2000), police culture is the manifestation of a patterned set of understandings that help officers cope with and adjust to the environmental pressures confronting the police. Contributing to the organizational culture and cultural inertia are the successive generations of officers being socialized into the BPD through stories, rituals, jokes, and observing varying degrees of ethical and unethical behaviour by their peers and leaders. To effectively address cultural issues in the transformation process Dubord and Griffiths (2021) identify several key elements that are congruent with the adaptive and enabling behaviors of CLT: leaders must provide training to build the competencies required to implement the proposed changes, empower officers to operationalize the change recommendations, and create clear lines of communication across all levels of the organization.

The BPD's *formal structure* is represented by its hierarchical organizational chart and the decision-making flow (Deszca et al., 2020). Internally, the "paramilitary organizational structure is an enduring aspect of policing that is unlikely to change significantly because it provides control, discipline, uniformity, accountability, loyalty, and a certain amount of predictability in outcome" (Parson & Kremling, 2020, p. 6). Externally, the PA sets policing standards and governance structures while the PC oversees compliance with legislative requirements, fiscal accountability, and reporting on selected performance indicators (Kiedrowski et al., 2013). Consequently, decisions about new or mandated policing strategies do not always include frontline supervisors or officers. Despite these external influences executive leaders maintain considerable autonomy in the development of strategy, policy, and practices of the BPD. This autonomy compels BPD leaders to educate external stakeholders on the benefits of EBP.

Output

The measures of success within the Congruence Model are visible in the outputs spanning the organizational, group, and individual levels (Deszca et al., 2020; Nadler & Tushman, 1980). These outputs must be visible and measurable; consequently, this analysis focuses on what is currently visible (Deszca et al., 2020). Organizationally, the most visible

measures of the BPD's effectiveness have been Bluetown's CSI score and internal performance targets on case clearance rates, proactive time, and frontline response times to calls for service which have historically yielded negative outcomes (BPD, 2019a). While group and individual performance targets may be set in sub-unit business rules or officer performance reviews, there is no requirement to do so. Accordingly, the BPD has an opportunity to create a framework that aligns individual and group outputs with organizational outputs by developing an overarching EBP strategy that reinforces the importance of preventing crime (BPD, 2019b).

Possible Solutions to Address the Problem of Practice

Kalyal et al. (2018) acknowledge the truism in policing that officers are resistant to change yet they work in an environment of perpetual change. This OIP seeks to increase support for evidence-based policing (EBP) by challenging BPD leaders and officers to embrace the functional and structural complexity of their environment with the aim of making Bluetown the safest major city in Canada. The PoP being addressed is the BPD's lack of EBP practices. As previously mentioned, the PoP has created an overreliance on the standard model which has been ineffective in preventing and reducing crime (Weisburd & Eck, 2004). While the BPD is aware of the need for change it must also identify solutions and strategies that can lead to effective implementation of change (Self & Schraeder, 2009). This section examines three potential options for implementing EBP.

Solution 1: The Individual Approach

The BPD currently deploys its frontline officers according to geography, workload, and resources. The rationale for this model is that the allocation of officers to specific areas ensures a prompt police response to high priority incidents as well as providing a visible presence through proactive policing activities. As the population of Bluetown increases, so too does the complexity of social issues and increases in crime as demonstrated by the predictable increase in citizen calls for service over the last decade (BPD, 2020a). Consequently, responding to crime leaves little time for proactive prevention activities (self-initiated and structured activities

based on divisional priorities such as offender management checks, searching for subjects with a warrant for arrest, or problem-solving projects). The individual approach provides a micro-level option that would optimize the current deployment model by incorporating EBP strategies into the dedicated proactive time of frontline members. In promoting this option the BPD is providing individual officers with opportunities to engage in problem-solving interventions within their work environment, consequently creating new opportunities to foster learning and personal growth (Huey et al., 2021b).

The field of EBP has generated much interest and research since its inception in 1998, as such there is an array of resources available to officers who are interested in the complementary goals of professional development and improving organizational effectiveness. The development of individualized learning plans that combine officer experience with a scientific approach to policing practices are readily accessible to frontline officers. First, *books* and *articles* are an inexpensive and accessible means of developing a broad and in-depth understanding of EBP. The majority of the literature on EBP provides a description of EBP, its application to policing problems, and the challenges of implementation. Second, *podcasts* such as *How to EBP* by Can-SEBP examines topics on how to implement EBP while others like the *Reducing Crime* podcast (Ratcliffe, 2018) focuses on EBP projects being conducted by officers and academics. Third, *webinars* on topics such as randomized control trials (RCT) in criminal justice, policing models, body-worn cameras, and social network analysis provide empirically accurate data and are delivered by respected EBP researchers. Fourth, *classes* in EBP are offered online, in person, or in a hybrid formats. Dalhousie University offers a twelve-week course that explains how and why agencies should adopt EBP as well as how to target, test, and track EBP strategies. Lastly, *EBP Societies* are dedicated to the promotion, creation, and use of research in policing. Membership is open to and often free for officers. Nationally, Can-SEBP provides monthly newsletters, webinars, podcasts, research briefs, research tools and tutorials, and weekly blogs on policing research topics (Huey et al., 2021b).

Resource needs

As the individual option is voluntary it will be difficult to estimate the resource implications for this option. In supporting officers' individualized learning plans there are some key internal stakeholders that can play a role in advancing EBP. Information and Intelligence Section has the capability to conduct a statistical analysis to identify hotspots of crime and repeat offenders in which to focus EBP interventions. Human Resources Division can collaborate with frontline officers to review and amend job descriptions to include EBP as an expectation of officer proactive time. Training Section can update internal course content relating to proactive policing strategies as well as collaborate with individual members on external training opportunities and potential funding options such as Dalhousie's twelve-week EBP course at a cost of $1045.00. This type of professional development would be eligible for full reimbursement under the BPD's tuition reimbursement program for interested employees. Finally, Corporate Communications can promote ongoing EBP projects and inform the organization on outcomes.

Solution 2: The Team Approach

The team approach is a meso-level approach for EBP implementation and aligns with a recommendation from the organizational review that called for the creation of a Division of officers to address city-wide problems with the specific task of employing problem-solving strategies (BPD, 2020a). The team approach is consistent with Lewin's (1947b) concept of Group Dynamics that emphasizes group behavior, rather than individual behavior, as the main focus for change. Furthermore, Scott and Kirby (2012) suggest that getting officers to place the same value on data analysis to inform decision-making as they place on the collection of physical evidence to inform arrest decisions will greatly advance the practice of EBP. A team approach focuses on factors such as team norms, roles, interactions, learning and socialization processes. This can facilitate a paradigm shift from the overreliance on the standard model,

foster support for EBP practices, and provide the foundation for broader organizational change in the future (Schein, 1985).

The current deficit of organizational knowledge relating to the 3T's can be addressed through introductory EBP training. Initial training will be augmented with sustained education and training programs designed to develop specific skills among EBP division officers. As there will be an increased hierarchy and reporting structure in this option, training considerations must address the varying levels of roles and responsibilities within the EBP division. External courses and programs in EBP are offered nationally and internationally by a number of colleges and universities. In addition to Dalhousie, the University of Cambridge's Centre for Evidence-Based Policing (Cambridge), for example, offers EBP four-month online courses for supervisors and analysts, a blended year-long certificate in EBP for senior managers in partnership with the Ontario Police College (OPC), as well as a two-year master's degree for police executives. Additionally, prominent criminal justice scholar Dr. Jerry Ratcliffe offers a three-day Police Commanders Crime Reduction course focusing on the key elements of crime reduction strategies within the wider context of EBP.

Second, EBP division leaders could *invite experts* to conduct in-service training on EBP theory and strategies. Additionally, George Mason University's Center for Evidence-Based Crime Policy, Arizona State University's School of Criminology and Criminal Justice, the UK College of Policing, and the four EBP societies (UK, Canada, America, Australia & New Zealand) house some of the world's foremost EBP experts. Third, due to the limited funding available for training, EPB division leaders could develop *internal courses and training* in conjunction with local, national, or international experts in EBP. Conversely, as knowledge sharing is a central tenet of EBP, officers lacking the requisite background in EBP can access the abundance of publicly available information, resources, tools, and training modules to develop their own courses. Fourth, EBP education must include *experiential learning*. Huey et al. (2021b) note that "one of the biggest mistakes an agency can make is to dismiss the

importance of direct experience and knowledge of how research is created and can be used when it comes to evidence-based decision-making" (p. 130). EBP division officers should be empowered to initiate experiential learning projects. Research proposals could be developed internally by officers under the guidance of a criminal analyst or external expert who has the requisite knowledge and skills to supervise research (Huey et al., 2021b). Any one or combination of these options can advance a culture of learning, promote the implementation of EBP, and enhance the success of this new division.

Resource needs

The team option provides BPD leaders a meso-level approach that would see the reassignment of approximately twenty-five percent of front-line officers to EBP Division. Consequently, more administrative areas will be required to support the new division. Business Intelligence section would utilize existing performance management software to generate and analyze data to determine staffing solutions. Human Resources Division would need to develop job descriptions outlining roles, training, qualifications, and expectations for the reassigned officers. The most significant resource need and cost with this option is the professional development of leaders, officers, and analysts through external training. Tuition fees associated with programs offered by Cambridge, the OPC, and Dr. Ratcliffe range from $750 to $37 000 depending on the level and duration of the program. Given the limited training budget at the Divisional level and a projected external training budget near $100 000, Training Section will liaise with division leaders to determine the number of employees to be selected for external courses and the level of program that is appropriate for their new EBP responsibilities. Additionally, Training Section can collaborate with EBP subject matter experts to develop internal courses and identify EBP experiential learning projects. Finance Section can assist divisional leaders with projecting training costs, requests for increased funding, and anticipating costs for experiential learning projects. Piza and Feng (2017) suggest that crime analysts are one of the biggest assets to a police agency in EBP implementation. Accordingly, Crime

Analysis Division would reassign at least two analysts to the new division to facilitate collaboration with officers, develop an understanding and application of data, identify emerging crime and disorder problems, provide proper analysis of data to define problem types and root causes, assist with devising problem specific interventions, and conducting evaluations to determine the effectiveness of the EBP interventions during experiential learning projects.

Solution 3: The Organizational Approach

The organizational approach is a macro-level option that would result in the transformation of the BPD into an evidence-based police agency. Martin and Mazerolle (2016) warn of the challenges of leading an EBP agency but insist that police leaders need to take responsibility for training the next generation of officers to better understand the science of policing. Weisburd and Neyroud (2011) suggest that now is time for police to own their science and that EBP can provide a roadmap for navigating the complexities of policing. The organizational approach would challenge all members of the BPD to be innovative, adaptable, and informed. Being informed refers to the development of competency in understanding research methods, accepting, and applying research findings, being a partner in the creation of research, and employing the tenets of adaptive and enabling leadership to foster change. As discussed in chapter one, the success of this change plan is predicated on individual, group, and organizational learning. Consequently, education is the critical mechanism to influence leadership, culture, and effect change.

Huey et al. (2021b) suggest that relevant education and training should be provided to officers commensurate with their level of responsibility in implementing and leading EBP initiatives. Given the scope of this change, senior executives in the rank of Superintendent and Inspector will require advanced knowledge in order to fully understand the EBP capabilities of the organization. A cohort of 4-6 senior leaders will be sponsored to attend EBP specific master's degree level programs at Cambridge and/or the certificate in EBP for senior leaders offered in partnership with the OPC. Under the guidance of a supervisor, these programs teach

executives how to apply research to policing as well as designing high-level field research for their thesis that will be applied within the BPD. Second, Martin and Mazerolle (2016) highlight the influential role of middle managers and frontline supervisors in the implementation of EBP. In the BPD this would encompass officers in the rank of staff-sergeant and sergeant who can be highly influential in shaping officer attitudes, values, and beliefs. Cambridge's online EBP Leaders' Course and Dr. Ratcliffe's Police Commanders Crime Reduction course emphasize the development of the 3T's to improve public safety and advance social justice outcomes. Third, expanding on the role of analysts in option two, a core group of ten to twelve analysts could be enrolled in Cambridge's online EBP course for police analysts or the fifteen-month intelligence analyst apprenticeship. Additionally, the Canadian Police College (CPC) offers courses in tactical and strategic analysis while the Justice Institute of British Columbia (JIBC) offers graduate certificate programs in intelligence analysis with tuition fees ranging from $4500 to $10 000 between both institutions. This formal learning can be supplemented with membership in the International Association of Crime Analysts (IACA), that provides a certification program in addition to dedicated training courses. Lastly, formal training must include the remaining 2000+ members of the BPD. Given the size of this group it would be prudent to collaborate with an EBP expert(s) to develop a two-day customized training course focused on developing officers' knowledge in EBP. Specifically, course content would include how and why to adopt EBP, identifying and examining policing problems, the 3T framework, and how to plan project evaluations to determine the success of the intervention (College of Policing, 2019a).

Resource needs

Due to the macro-level scope of this option, resource considerations for the integration of EBP across the BPD must be examined from a broad perspective. Consequently, the Chief of Police must develop a strong statement for EBP support as the overarching philosophy of the BPD. This statement must be woven into the vision, mission, goals, and core values of the

organizational strategy and supported by a restructuring of the organization. In addition to the statement of support the BPD would create EBP research centre that would be responsible for developing research priorities, forging partnerships with local universities and researchers, collaborating with frontline officers and leaders in the identification of targets, implementation and oversight of experiential learning projects, and collaborating with Training Section on the development and delivery of EBP training. Huey et al. (2021b) suggest that organizational acceptance for EBP is contingent on cultural shift through education and communication. Accordingly, the formal learning plan must be expanded to meet the needs of the change plan with external training costs projected at $250 000. Using the existing learning management system (LMS) EBP training can be reinforced by the creation of an electronic resource library with access to the UK College of Policing's ATLAS problem-solving/decision-making model, George Mason University's EBP Matrix, and the Evidence-Based Policing App. Finally, Human Resources Division would develop a EBP recognition framework that clearly demonstrates how EBP aligns with organizational values and the strategic plan. To assist with changing the current culture, formal recognition of EBP initiatives and embedding EBP tenets in performance reviews and promotions would advance reform initiatives (Scott & Kirby, 2012) while embodying the BPD's core value of innovation.

Comparing Options

In comparing the proposed solutions for EBP implementation the following four criteria have been identified to determine the impact of the proposed change: change from the status-quo, resource implications, education and training, and changes in leadership and culture. The individual approach presents BPD leaders with a low-risk option that would result in micro-level impacts in each of the criteria. As this option is voluntary it is difficult to determine how many officers will be early adopters of EBP. Lewin (1947b) noted that it is futile to focus on changing individual behavior due to the influence of group pressures to conform to the status-quo, as such the pressure to maintain 3R practices will remain strong. There are no significant resource

implications in this option as the responsibility of education and training rests solely with individual officers. Changes in leadership approaches predominately rest with officers direct supervisors who can support officers by engaging in adaptive leadership to encourage innovation and officer development. Organizationally, this option does not emphasize or support learning, collaboration, innovation, and lacks the sufficient investment in EBP to change the organizational culture or prevailing directive leadership approach.

The team approach offers a moderate change option resulting in meso-level impacts to the organization. The creation of an EBP Division would see the reassignment of approximately twenty-five percent of frontline officers to the new division with the responsibility for managing and deploying a centralized problem-solving function in a city-wide approach to proactive policing strategies (BPD, 2020a). Changes in the status-quo will be noticeable as one quarter of frontline officers will be dedicated to EBP, ensuring a level of consistency in the utilization and deployment of resources as well as alleviating the extra burden of other officers to engage in EBP work. In addition to the human resource implications, dedicated funding for education and training to support the new division can be reallocated from exiting sub-unit budgets to support EPB projects. Divisional leadership must embed innovation as a key cultural value by acting as the initiators and implementors of change (Huey et al., 2021b). Officers will be empowered to engage in adaptive behaviors while supervisors will engage in enabling leadership to not only create adaptive spaces for innovation to occur but also manage the productive tension from officers outside EBP Division. Culturally, with twenty-five percent of frontline resources dedicated to applying 3T practices, the potential exists to create a meso to macro level paradigm shift away from the status-quo by increasing support for collaboration, innovation, and learning. However, Tillyer et al. (2012) observe that strategies reliant on a group or sub-unit of officers risk failure if those officers move to other roles within the organization.

The organizational approach would see EBP embedded throughout the entire organization, resulting in macro-level impacts to the status-quo, education, resources, and

leadership and culture. Deszca et al. (2020) note that organizational change must consider the role of formal and informal systems and structures in influencing “what gets done, how it gets done, the outcomes that are achieved, and the experiences of the people who come into contact with the organization” (p. 150). The funding required for EBP education programs for this solution can be reallocated for the duration of the change plan from existing divisional budgets and strategically planned through the BPD’s four-year funding formula. Despite significant investments in training, technology, and human resources, advancing EBP at the organizational level provides the best chance to shift the culture away from the overreliance on the standard model by redefining the organizational mindset about the core function of the BPD. The projected impacts of each solution are compared in Table 2.

Table 2

Comparison of Possible Solutions

Key Elements	Individual	Team	Organizational
Change from status quo	Micro	Meso	Macro
Resource needs	Micro	Meso	Macro
Education & training	Micro	Micro/Meso	Macro
Change in leadership	None/Micro	Meso	Macro
Change in culture	None/Micro	Meso	Macro

Note. Table provides a general comparison of the organizational impact of each solution.

Recommendation

Internal data shows that over 90% of the BPD’s calls to service are related to social issues (BPD, 2020b) such as responding to individuals suffering from homelessness, dealing with substance use and addictions issues, and/or mental health issues. Compounding this complexity is a multitude of factors that include competing demands for resources, competing internal and external priorities, changes in governmental policy, and the economic and social

factors impacting communities. Consequently, the individual and team options do not provide the level of change required to effectively address the PoP.

The organizational approach provides a holistic approach to change by applying scientific research to inform decision-making regarding the operational, investigative, and administrative issues confronting the BPD. Mitchell and Huey (2018) explain that “the overarching goal of EBP is to understand what works in order to produce policies, practices, and programs that not only help policing to become more effective and efficient, but moreover increase community safety and well-being” (p. xiv). Furthermore, it is important to note that EBP is not intended to replace or be an alternative to the standard model, in fact experts recommend that it should be employed along side it (Eck, 2019; Lum & Koper, 2017). Accordingly, the organizational approach has been selected as the best solution to address the PoP and assist the BPD in making Bluetown the safest major city in Canada.

Anticipatory, Strategic Change

Honess (2018) suggests that police agencies like the BPD must be more efficient and effective in the delivery of their services. While there will always be a need for the BPD to engage in reactive practices, this OIP suggests that change within the BPD does not have be reactive as well. Supported by a commitment to change (BPD, 2020a), advances in the field of predictive analytics, and adopting EBP, the BPD can realize its vision of making Bluetown the safest major city in Canada by being more proactive in predicting where crime will occur rather than always responding after the fact. Adopting EBP is not a revolution, instead it should be viewed as “the evolution of the police as a profession” (Pepper et al., 2020, p. 91). Accordingly, the type of change outlined in this plan will be anticipatory and strategic. Nadler and Tushman (1990) suggest that organizational change can be viewed through the following two dimensions:

- *Strategic or Incremental*: The first dimension deals with the scope of the change and is either incremental which refers to change at the individual or group level while strategic change describes change at the organizational level.

- *Anticipatory or Reactive*: The second dimension examines change in relation to key external events. Changes in response to an event are called reactive while changes in anticipation of an event are called anticipatory.

Nadler and Tushman (1990) breakdown these two dimensions into four different categories: tuning, adaptation, reorientation, and re-creation. Within Nadler and Tushman's (1990) framework the reorientation approach is associated with anticipatory, strategic change. The process of reorientation will involve the BPD making proactive changes based on predictions of major changes in its environment (e.g., increased functional complexity) while positioning the entire organization to face its new reality (e.g., increased accountability, advancing social justice). Because reorientation focuses on the entire organization it will require BPD senior management to create sense of urgency and motivate officers to embrace and drive the change (Deszca et al., 2020). Moreover, reorientations are associated with more successful change initiatives because organizations having sufficient time to "shape change, build coalitions, and empower individuals to be effective in the new organization" (Nadler & Tushman, 1990, p. 80). These concepts also align with tenets of CT, CLT, and Lewin's approach to change. For these reasons, the anticipatory, strategic approach to change is the most appropriate for this OIP.

Change in the Context of Equity, Ethics, and Social Justice

When Sir Robert Peel founded the UK's Metropolitan Police in 1892, he also created nine principles to guide officer attitudes and behaviors (Lentz & Chaires, 2007). Peel's second principle states that "the ability of the police to perform their duties is dependent upon public approval of police existence, actions, behavior and the ability of the police to secure and maintain public respect" (Loder, 2016, p. 429). The spirit of this principle has been eroded due to the influence of colonialism that has embedded systemic racism in our laws, policies, procedures, and an ideology resulting in a professional implicit bias that is reinforced by the standard model. The TRC (2015) concluded that "Indigenous overrepresentation in prison reflects a systemic bias in the Canadian justice system" (p. 170). In 2019 Indigenous adults

accounted for 60% of admissions to Canadian provincial jails and federal prisons while only representing approximately 4.5% of the Canadian adult population (Malakieh, 2020). The BPD's role in contributing to this overrepresentation is difficult to refute as they are often the first point of contact for Indigenous people into the criminal justice system which is compounded by the fact that Bluetown is home to one of the largest urban Indigenous populations in Canada (BPD, 2020a). This section provides a framework for supporting EBP in the context of equity, ethics, and social justice so that the BPD's core values, and code of conduct become the lifeblood of the organization, not the aspirational artifacts that they currently represent.

Multiple Ethical Paradigm Framework

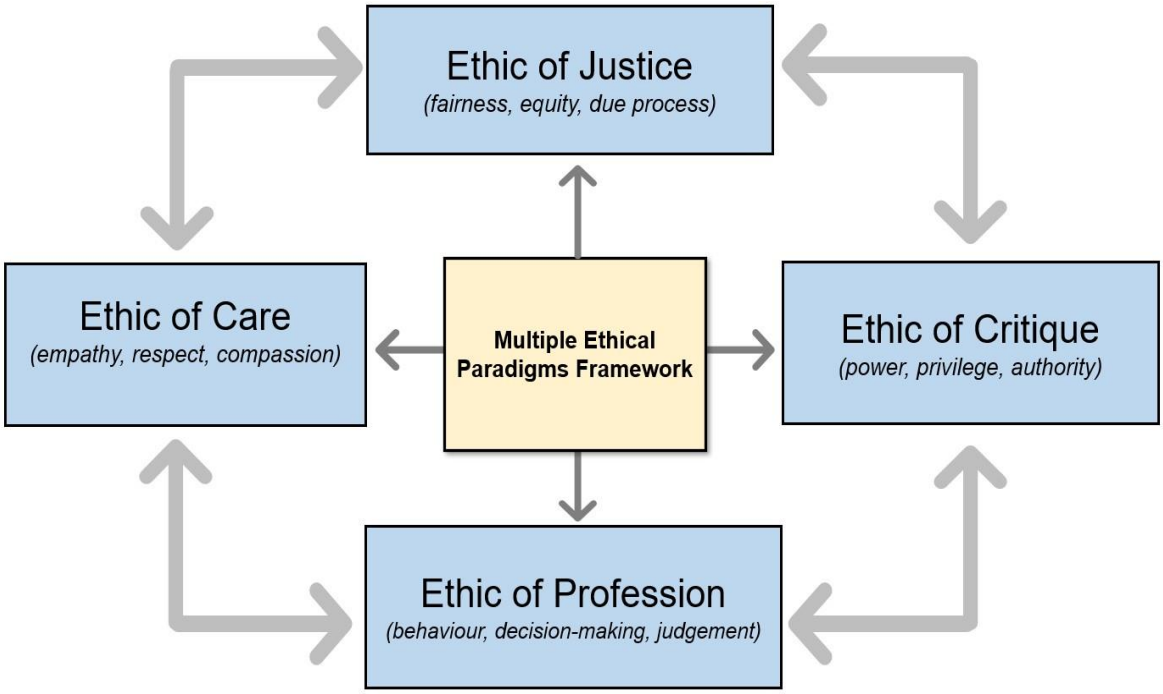
The profession of policing is currently experiencing a public crisis of confidence that can only be reversed through substantive change (Police Foundation, 2022). Calls to defund or abolish police organizations are rooted in themes of inequity and social injustice and magnify the public's discontent with traditional policing practices. While the BPD has developed a set of core values to supplement the officers Code of Conduct to foster ethical decision making, little has been done in the development of a comprehensive education in ethics, equity, or social justice. In seeking ways to decolonize Canadian policing, the Expert Panel on Policing in Indigenous Communities recommended the advancement of EBP practices that prioritize community safety and well-being through problem solving and conflict resolution (CCA, 2019), signaling a significant shift from the arrest and incarceration focus of the standard model.

Originally developed for the field of education, Shapiro and Gross's (2013) *Multiple Ethical Paradigms Framework* (MEPF) can unquestionably be integrated into the change plan. Comprised of four themes the MEPF (see Figure 5) provides a holistic and reciprocal framework for understanding the complex dilemmas of policework and the ethical choices that BPD officers make in the course of their daily duties (Rai, 2012). These congeneric themes can support officers and leaders in formulating, examining, and reframing their professional codes of ethics

to ensure that the needs of the community are the focal point of the ethical decision-making process and to advance the ethical merits of EBP (Abrahamson, 2021).

Figure 5

Multiple Ethical Paradigms Framework



Note. Adapted from Shapiro, J.P., & Gross, S. J. (2013). The multiple ethical paradigms: Developing the model. *Ethical educational leadership in turbulent times*. Routledge.

Ethic of Justice

The ideals of equity and fairness underpin the principle of justice and serve as the foundation for our laws and the Charter of Rights and Freedoms. For the BPD the ethic of justice must support the concept of due process, protecting the human rights of all individuals and treating others to a standard of justice applied to all (Strike et al., 2005). EBP can enhance public perceptions relating to the fairness of the processes through which officers make decisions and exercise authority (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003). Furthermore, it can provide the foundation for ethical and procedurally just practices in which all community members are treated fairly and equitably in consideration of their individual contexts and circumstances.

Ethic of Care

The ethic of care emerges out of the ethic of justice but shifts the focus from the law and individual rights to empathy and compassion for others (Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2016). According to Furman (2004), the ethic of care seeks to balance the ethics of justice and critique by focusing less on fairness and more on caring for individuals as distinct persons. Thurber (2015) notes that there is a "collective pain, heartbreak, and outrage over persistent dehumanization and racial inequality perpetuated by the criminal justice system" (p. 43). Through the application of EBP strategies, officers can interrogate the intentional or unintentional harm caused by current practices to create a benefit for those involved (McCord, 2003). Furthermore, it is unethical to apply policing interventions to a community without evaluating their impact (Mitchell & Lewis, 2017). An ethic of care implies that by not adopting EBP officers will lack a process of reflection and will remain uninformed about the consequences of their decisions and actions.

Ethic of Critique

The ethic of critique examines the barriers to achieving fairness by examining social class and inequality. Some critical theorists argue that "the police are employed against the down-trodden" (Saint-Just, 2014, p. 91). EBP fosters an ethic of critique by allowing officers to continually evaluate the justness and fairness of its policies and the law while creating opportunities for the BPD to advance inclusion, reconciliation, remove barriers, and realign institutional practices (Shapiro & Gross, 2013). Furthermore, an ethic of critique encourages BPD officers to rethink, redefine, and reframe concepts such as privilege, power, culture, and social injustice (Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2016). Because EBP welcomes fair critique when it lands (Fenn et al., 2020), its adoption would support officers in interrogating the institutions and laws that continue to criminalize members of the community and contribute to societal harm.

Ethic of Profession

According to Shapiro and Stefkovich (2016) the ethic of the profession expects officers to examine and develop their own professional codes of ethics regardless of their personal

codes of ethics or the institutional ethics embedded within the profession of policing. Corbo Crehan (2019) warns that an individual's sense of ethics prior to becoming a police officer may not adequately prepared them for the ethical dimensions of policing. Underpinned by ethical decision-making, EBP promotes critical inquiry by challenging officers to ask questions within the other three paradigms in order to determine what is in the best interests of the community. Mitchell (2019) concludes that "the importance of EBP lies in the premise that police should have an ethical duty to employ the best evidence-based practices that reduce crime and calls for service while doing the least amount of harm to the community" (p. 12). The ethic of profession challenges institutionalized practices such as intuition, anecdotes, or personal preferences that underpin the standard model.

Chapter Two Summary

Chapter two has examined the planning and development phases of the change plan. In challenging officer beliefs about the effectiveness of the standard model this chapter applied CLT to support and enable officers through the change process by focusing on new learning to develop new patterns of behavior to resolve complex problems (Heifetz & Laurie, 2001). Lewin's (1947a) three step change model provided the change framework due to its focus on group change and goal of enabling officers to better understand and reframe their perceptions of their environment (Burnes, 2004a). Nadler and Tushman's (1980) congruence model provided the critical organizational analysis needed to examine the gaps within the BPD and assist with developing three options for change. Building on Nadler and Tushman's (1990) work, the type of change identified for this OIP is anticipatory, strategic. Within this dimension the change approach is described as reorienting which will see the BPD engage in a major, strategic change resulting from planned EBP programs and policies that will provide officers with new perspectives on their policing practice. Finally, the MEPF was introduced for the purpose of providing BPD officers and leaders guidance throughout the change plan in the context of equity, ethics, and social justice.

Chapter Three: Implementation, Evaluation, and Communication

Chapter three outlines some of the most important frameworks in this OIP. The success of this change plan is contingent on the balanced application of the three leadership behaviors in the CLT framework. Central to implementation of EBP is the creation and support of adaptive spaces aimed at shifting the BPD's overreliance on a purely reactive policing model towards a proactive evidence-based model that informs decision making, prioritizes social justice, and improves public safety. To illustrate how police problem-solving, decision-making, feedback, evaluation, research, information, and knowledge sharing work together to inform EBP policies practices the UK College of Policing developed the ATLAS model (College of Policing, 2019) is introduced to develop the professional capacity of officers and leaders to understand what policing practices actually work through a cycle of Ask, Test, Learn, Adapt, and Sharing. The second part of this chapter outlines a combined evaluation framework consisting of Deming's (1986) PDSA cycle to monitor and evaluate experiential EBP learning projects in stage two of the change plan while Kaplan and Norton's (1992) BSC will monitor and evaluate the overall success of three-year change plan. Understanding that effective communication is a condition of successful change, the final section of this chapter presents an integrated and comprehensive communication plan that applies Klein's (1996) principles of communication and Armenakis and Harris's (2002) message conveying strategies to provide a thorough communication strategy for each stage of the change plan.

Change Implementation Plan

Failures of change implementation can have negative and long-term impacts on police organizations as they are not easily forgotten and become entrenched in organizational memory (Kalyal et al., 2018). Whether they are experienced directly or indirectly, these experiences can foster a cynicism and inertia towards organizational change. Fleming and Wingrove (2017) cite institutional factors such as a conservative culture and general skepticism towards change as potential barriers to embedding research in police agencies. Police culture rewards reactive

practices based on immediate results and devalues research-based ideas (Green, 2000; Lum et al., 2012; Taylor & Boba, 2011; Telep & Lum, 2014). The underlying assumption of this OIP is that there is a lack of understanding of the capacity of EBP to improve organizational outcomes (Telep & Winegar, 2015). To effectively address the PoP BPD leaders must avoid the mistakes of previous change initiatives by shifting officer beliefs regarding their role in public safety, valuing the science of policing, and evolving their policing practice. The development of short-, mid-, and long-term goals throughout the change plan seek to foster this paradigm shift and are outlined in Table 3. These goals not only represent the key benchmarks in each year of the change plan but also identify the required changes in the BPD's behavior for sustained change.

Table 3

Change Plan Goals

Short-term Year 1	**Mid-term Year 2**	**Long-term Year 3**
• Message the need for change • Executive statement of support for EBP • Review CSI/Metrics • Implement EBP Survey • Introduce ATLAS model • Establish CIT • Foster external support for EBP	• Establish EBP Committee • Initiate formal EBP learning/training • Establish police-academic partnerships • Join Can-SEBP • Initiate EBP experiential learning projects • Integrate EBP into current policing practices	• Embed EBP into the vision, mission & goals • Create permanent research centre • Embed EBP into policies & procedures • Establish permanent EBP funding • Embed EBP skills into performance reviews & promotion process

Note. Table provides an overview of the key goals in each year of the change plan.

Sustained changes in behavior result from changes to an organization's *working model* (Wolfe, 1998). Working models refer to the cognitive organizational mechanisms that order peoples experiences, contribute positively or negatively to organizational culture, and can provide a sense of stability or disconfirmation (Kingshott et al., 2004). The BPD's lack of EBP practices and overreliance on the standard model are exemplars of a working model that has been created and sustained by its experience. Because working models are created through

experience, they can also be changed by destabilizing experiences in the status-quo that create new and productive working models (Wolfe, 1998). Adopting EBP can serve as the destabilizing experience that fosters critical thinking, innovation, and collaboration to provide the foundation for a new BPD working model.

Leadership Focus: Creating Adaptive Spaces

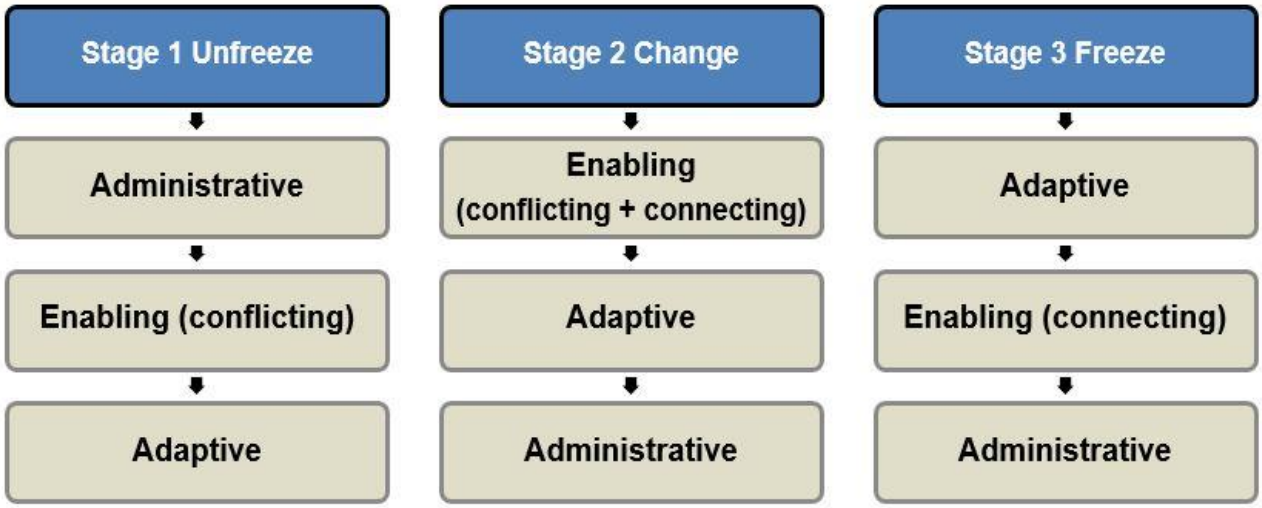
The intended outcome of this OIP is to shift the BPD's focus from its current reactive model towards a more balanced approach that incorporates a proactive, evidence-based model by developing the organizational capacity to understand the benefits of EBP. As discussed in chapter two, the CLT framework of administrative, enabling and adaptive practices work together to balance the administrative and operational systems of the BPD. While the three leadership behaviors of CLT will be applied to varying degrees in each stage of the change plan it is the practice of enabling leadership that will ultimately determine the success of the change plan. Acting as the stabilizing force between the BPD's administrative and operational systems, enabling leaders manage the productive tension between these systems by "increasing the context-sensitivity of others, supporting other leaders, establishing and reinforcing simple principles, observing group dynamics, surfacing conflict, and facilitating and encouraging constructive dialogue" (Bäcklander, 2018, p. 42). These enabling behaviors are key to effective leadership in creating and operating within the adaptive spaces required to advance change.

Arena (2018) notes that "adaptive spaces enable organizations to be positively disruptive so they can control their own destiny before someone else does" (pp. 8-9). As an enabling leader within the CIT I must consciously work to create spaces for meaningful conflict to occur. This will involve initiating productive tension (e.g., introducing EBP) between the administrative and operational systems in order to challenge the status-quo, trigger the emergence of innovation, and initiate organizational change. My other key task as an enabling leader will be *connecting* officers and teams within adaptive spaces to facilitate the exchange new ideas, foster collaboration, effectively assess and respond to complexity, and scale

innovation across the operational system (Schulze & Pinkow, 2020). Figure 6 outlines the three approaches within CLT that will be required in each stage of the change plan. Each approach is prioritized according to the anticipated leadership needs within that stage.

Figure 6

Change Plan Leadership Approaches



Note: Complexity leadership behaviors in each stage of the change plan.

As discussed in chapter one, a CAS is focused on examining patterns of relationships, how these relationships are sustained, how they self-organize, and how outcomes emerge in the face of conflict/tension. The dualism of enabling leadership is well suited to leverage the CAS dynamics of feedback, self-organization, and emergence to further minimize resistance to EBP and move this OIP forward. This section outlines a three-year change plan that aims to identify the actions, impacts, and challenges of addressing the PoP through the application of Lewin's (1947a) change model.

Stage One/Year One: Unfreeze

Lewin's (1947a) three-Stage change model begins with unfreezing. In the context of this OIP, unfreezing is intended to challenge BPD's lack of BPD practices, its overreliance on the standard model of policing, and examine why the BPD continues to rely on this model despite

its ineffectiveness in reducing crime (Weisburd & Eck, 2004). The goals in year one are to promote critical reflection about the BPD's current policing practice, disrupt the status-quo, identify potential barriers to change, and introduce EBP as a complementary policing strategy to the standard model. Lewin (1947a) believed that learning was critical in minimizing resistance as it enables individuals to understand and reframe their perceptions of their current environment. A key enabling leadership behavior necessary to initiate the unfreezing process is managing productive tension in adaptive spaces. Introducing EBP is an example of a conflict initiating activity designed to facilitate the unfreezing process by promoting a culture of learning and innovation through critical reflection both organizationally and individually (Knutsson & Tompson, 2017).

Administrative leadership is the dominant practice in the early stages of stage one. The first step in this stage is the development of a strong statement of support for EBP as the overarching philosophy of the organization by the BPD's Chief. BPD leaders must act as change champions to ensure the success of the change plan (Kalyal, 2020a; Oreg & Berson, 2011). The strong statement of support for EBP not only signals a commitment to change but serves as a demonstration of executive support for the change plan. The impact of this statement on the unfreezing process cannot be overstated; however, leadership commitment to the change plan must also include the resource and structural supports to ensure that EBP initiatives in stages two and three succeed. The next action item will see the formation of a CIT representing a cross-section of ranks and working areas to oversee the change plan that is a complementary and support structure that not only accelerates the unfreezing process but further demonstrates a serious organizational commitment to EBP.

The second step in this stage will involve the CIT engaging in enabling leadership behaviors to initiate a degree of productive tension to advance the unfreezing process by disseminating information from the following three reports: "*Measuring Crime in Canada: Introducing the Crime Severity Index and Improvements to the Uniform Crime Reporting*

Survey" (Babyak et al., 2009), "*Fairness and Effectiveness in Policing"* (NRC, 2004), and the **"***Strategic Review of Policing in England and Wales"* (Police Foundation, 2022). These reports provide BPD officers with data and information about how crime in Canada is measured, the limitations of the standard model in the complex policing environment, and the changes that police agencies need to make in order to meet the complex challenges of the 21st century. These reports are intended to promote critical reflection about the BPD's current policing practice, further destabilize the status-quo, and create adaptive spaces where EBP can be examined in the context of the BPD's future envisioned state.

Third, the unfreezing process will be accelerated by the productive tension initiated through new EBP learning and its role in the envisioned future state. As part of the CIT, I can use my positionality within the training section to propose that one of the five mandatory training days be dedicated to introducing the ATLAS model. Developed by the UK College of Policing, this five-step cyclic model can guide EBP experiential learning projects by: *asking* challenging questions, reflection, and hypothesis development; *testing* new thinking or approaches that assists in creating new evidence; *learning* from mistakes and successes, understand how and why the approaches worked, and assess if it works in the real-world context; *adapting* through the application of new learning and tracking the effect and impact of the results; and *sharing* project outcomes across the BPD (College of Policing, 2019). ATLAS also accelerates the unfreezing process by illustrating how problem-solving, decision-making, feedback, evaluation, research, and knowledge sharing combine to create the best evidence available to inform for police policy and practices (see Appendix C). In addition to ATLAS, all BPD members will participate in the EBP receptivity survey (Lum & Telep, n.d.). Consisting of five sections, the survey is designed to assist police agencies in assessing officer, supervisor and executive leader knowledge and support of EBP, identify drivers and barriers to EBP implementation, and allows for comparisons of knowledge-integration innovations within the BPD (see Appendix D).

Finally, the last step in the unfreezing stage involves developing external support for EBP and the change plan. Weisburd and Neyroud (2013) believe that promoting EBP is essential in fostering public support and increasing the legitimacy of police agencies. As a public entity accountable to the citizens of Bluetown, the change plan requires the support of the community, PC, and various levels of government. The integrated communication plan outlined later in this chapter will provide BPD leaders multiple opportunities to educate external stakeholders in the science of policing and how EBP can contribute to better resource allocation, judicious spending decisions, improved public safety, and social justice outcomes.

The destabilization created through new learning is designed to foster a deeper appreciation of the gap between the BPD's current and envisioned future states. For example, integrating all crimes in a weighted index is more effective approach for resource allocation and crime prevention which can encourage police agencies to put greater emphasis on adopting EBP (Sherman et al., 2016). The inherent value of the CSI is that it does not count all crimes as equal which can positively influence officer perceptions about their policing practice. Once officers understand that the CSI not only assists in identifying and predicting crime patterns but also serves as a national measure of organizational performance and comparison, they can deduce that the standard model is not appropriate for all crime types. The introduction of the ATLAS model in this stage is designed to accelerate unfreezing while in stage two it serves as the framework for EBP experiential learning projects. The implementation of the EBP receptivity survey seeks to further destabilize the status-quo by fostering critical reflection and increase receptivity for EBP. Finally, the formation of the CIT provides stability and leadership for the change plan as well as creating the adaptive spaces necessary to foster and manage the productive tension initiated by introducing EBP.

The primary challenge in this stage is moving the current culture away from the status-quo. Previous changes initiatives in the BPD such as intelligence-led policing (ILP), problem-oriented policing (POP), community-oriented policing (COP), were never fully implemented nor

the benefits realized due to a lack of investment in training, time, and incentives to conduct such projects (BPD, 2019b) thus contributing to the PoP. Northouse (2019) notes that “the challenge for a leader is to help others recognize the need for change but not become overwhelmed by the need for the change itself” (p. 265). Consequently, the CIT must emphasize that “EBP is not the latest hyphenated strategy of policing” (Cordner, 2020, p.8). Rather, EBP is a philosophy that aims to identify which policing strategy is the most appropriate for the current problem and how effective that strategy is. As an adaptive leader and member of the CIT I must actively regulate officer distress in response to the change and protect the voices from across the BPD who support the change.

Stage Two/Year Two: Change

Lewin’s (1947a) change model identifies the second phase as the change stage or cognitive restructuring as described by Schein (1996, 2010). Encompassing year two of the change plan, this stage will see officers applying the formal learning from the unfreeze stage to move beyond the reflection of their current policing practice by engaging in experiential learning. The dualism of conflict and connection within enabling leadership will promote the cognitive restructuring required to advance the change plan. The positive conflict that was injected in the adaptive spaces in stage one will continue; however, enabling leaders must also engage in connecting behaviors to ensure support for the change. The goal is to foster a proactive and evidenced-based approach in addressing complex policing issues by developing competency in understanding research methods, accepting and applying research findings, and being a partner in the creation of research with academic partners and Can-SEBP. Cognitive restructuring aims to develop the organizational capacity to assess the effectiveness and efficiency of BPD operations, develop complexity leadership behaviors, evolve the current culture, and in so doing, facilitate the change plan (Dubord & Griffiths, 2021).

First, a key administrative leadership task will see the formation of an EBP Committee to work with officers and analysts to identify research priorities, coordinate EBP learning and

projects, and forge partnerships with local universities and Can-SEBP. Bolman and Deal (2017) believe that innovative organizations not only “empower their employees but also invests in their development” (p. 144). Adopting EBP at the organizational level requires a significant investment in education and training to support the development of the adaptive behaviors required of officers in EBP contexts. In preparing the officers to engage in experiential learning projects I can leverage my positionality within training section to accept a key leadership role on the EBP Committee. As part of the Committee I will be responsible for the development of an EBP education program that will involve the following tasks: assessing current knowledge via the EBP receptivity survey, researching available education and training programs, determining training objectives that align with the chosen solution and change plan, recommending the training approach (e.g., adult learning) and format (e.g., e-learning vs classroom, experiential learning), scheduling and leading training, and ensuring that the established learning goals are tracked within the LMS. As discussed in chapter two, formal EBP learning will range from short in-service courses to external graduate degrees. In determining the levels of knowledge, skills, and training required to support implementation the EBP committee will develop criteria to establish the requisite educational training for officers that reflects their level of EBP responsibility within the change plan. To support EBP learning, the projected training budget of $250 000 will be secured from existing training budgets and the four-year funding formula.

Second, all officers will be introduced to the EBP Matrix (Lum et al., 2011) which is a research-to-practice translation tool that visually organizes over 140 moderate to very rigorous evaluations of police strategies that show how place-based, focused, and proactive interventions are more effective in reducing crime (Telep & Summers, 2019). The EBP Matrix will allow the BPD to apply generalizations on effective police strategies by translating the science of police research into digestible forms that can be used to alter current training and strategies (Lum et al., 2011). The introduction of the EBP Matrix (see Appendix E) serves an initiator of productive tension where enabling leaders can create a paradigm shift in the

perception of frontline officers being engaged as change agents. Senior executives and frontline officers may initially resist this concept; however, it is incumbent on enabling leaders such as myself to connect these parties. Connecting these groups aims to foster systems thinking and depart from the traditional hierarchical thinking where the opinions and experiences of frontline officers are often disregarded or devalued.

Third, to truly appreciate research the BPD must ascribe to the philosophy of "experience is the best teacher'' (Huey et al., 2021b, p. 105). Experiential learning opportunities afford officers many benefits such as directly developing and applying research knowledge, enhancing research skills through trial and error, and confirming or disconfirming existing or new practices. Furthermore, experiential learning projects provide enabling leaders with opportunities to create adaptive spaces and focus the productive tension to advance the change plan. Tompson et al. (2017) suggest that not only can officer involvement in research increase the practical relevance of the findings, but it is through experiential learning that receptivity to EBP can be embraced. A significant and positive impact from formal and experiential learning is the development of adaptive behaviors required in EBP projects and the long-term success and sustainability of the change plan. These adaptive behaviors include but are not limited to the identification and application of innovative solutions by officers who understand the organizational context, the development of officer skills to empower agency by valuing their expertise within police-academic partnerships (Pepper et al., 2020), reinforcing organizational goals and values, fostering autonomy and participation, promoting systems thinking and collaboration, and providing officers with meaningful work.

Lastly, Toch (2008) suggests that organizational change initiatives can gain considerable credibility if officers are involved in the design and implementation of change. The engagement of officers in EBP projects with internal partners (e.g., analysts, senior leaders), external researchers, and academic partners can reduce opposition to change and leverage officer experience to foster reform. This aligns with Lewin's (1946) concept of action research which

suggests that effective change occurs at the group level, is a participative and collaborative process, and involves everyone impacted by the change (Allport, 1948; Bargal et al., 1992; French & Bell, 1984; Lewin, 1947b).

McKenna (2018) suggests that “any serious discussion of Canadian policing research must include a consideration of police practitioner and academic collaboration” (p. 135). The most significant challenge of this stage is how the BPD can assist in ending the *dialogue of the deaf*. Stemming from two divergent approaches to police research, critical vs. policy, this dialogue refers to the mutual misunderstanding about the intentions and roles of both parties that has negatively impacted police-academic partnerships (Bradley & Nixon, 2009). The critical research approach is defined by a detachment from police typically resulting in finding fault with police strategies and mandated changes impacting police organizations which was described in chapter one as coercive pressure. Conversely, the policy research approach seeks to provide theories, ideas, and evidence to improve policing (Bradley & Nixon, 2009), as such academics tend to engage more closely with the police. Given this history the initial steps may involve activities that generate productive tension for these partnerships to thrive. While creating adaptive spaces for officers and academics to work is a first step, it is equally important that change initiators focus on connecting these parties as to foster close and continuous collaborative relationships (Bradley & Nixon, 2009). The role of enabling leadership in this stage provides an opportunity to create a new research approach that extends beyond a physical environment by nurturing a mutual respect and understanding of the capacity and reciprocal benefits of police-academic partnerships.

Stage Three/Year Three: Freeze

The goal of stage three is to freeze (Lewin,1947a) new policing strategies into the operational, investigative, and administrative structures and culture of the BPD. Changes in policing practices that were initiated through formal and experiential learning in stage two will be institutionalized as BPD officers and leaders freeze their new learning and prioritize adaptive

behaviors to sustain the change. Embracing complexity and institutionalizing EBP will be the paradigm shift that provides an adaptive policing approach aimed at improving organizational and public safety outcomes while advancing social justice. The foundation for institutionalizing EBP was set in stages one and two through communication, collaboration, education, and experiential learning. While these mechanisms allow BPD officers to reframe their perceptions, knowledge, and behaviors about their policing practice, it is incumbent on the BPD executive team to ensure the structures and supports are in place to sustain the change. Accordingly, the following three administrative leadership tasks will be implemented. First, weaving the tenets of EBP into the vision, mission, goals, and values of the organization (Mitchell & Huey, 2018) to complement the standard model. Second, the creation of a permanent EBP research centre to build on the work of the EBP committee. Finally, freezing EBP knowledge, skills, and behaviors into performance reviews, promotional resources, and the annual promotion processes (Cordner, 2017) will ensure the long-term sustainability of the change plan.

The impact of a properly planned, implemented, and funded research centre cannot be overstated. The Centre will serve as the cornerstone for advancing EBP, fostering collaborative relationships both internally and externally, act as the hub for data collection and dissemination of research findings, and assist in applying research findings to the BPD's policies and practices (Griffiths, 2014). In addition to securing permanent EBP funding from the four-year funding formula, the Centre's role in increasing collaboration and reducing the siloed natured of the BPD can increase organizational effectiveness and improve overall performance. Members of the Centre will create and support adaptive spaces with frequency. Consequently, their role as enabling leaders and is critical to the sustainability of the change plan. In addition to reflecting the BPD's core values of innovation and accountability, embedding EBP into promotional processes and annual performance reviews sets expectations and standards for organizational behaviour while holding officers, leaders, and stakeholders accountable for using the best available evidence to inform decision-making.

Three significant challenges that exist in this final stage were also omnipresent throughout the change plan. First, having the courage to embrace complexity and commit to the change plan must be initiated and modeled by the executive leaders of the BPD (Roberts, 2006). Leadership support can serve as a 'countervailing force' to minimize threats to professional identities, thus fostering a receptivity towards EBP (Rousseau & Gunia, 2016). Second, as the change plan will take several years to adopt the implementation process must also be adaptive (Rogers, 1995). Consequently, this plan proposes to implement change gradually by adopting strategies that improve organizational culture (Aarons et al., 2011) such as education, fostering two-way communication both internally and externally, and prioritizing the development and practices of enabling and adaptive leadership.

While the roles of BPD officers and executives have been the focus of discussion the third challenge is highlighted by the capacity of BPD supervisors (Sergeants and Staff Sergeants) to influence the success or failure of the plan (Herold et al., 2008). In keeping with the tenets of CT and CLT, data suggests that successful change is a ground-up process requiring the full commitment of police supervisors (Kyle & White, 2017; Todak & Gaub, 2019). Strategies that have shown to be effective in flattening the curve of the most complex change initiatives include the direct engagement of police supervisors with front-line officers, providing leadership support, and modeling leadership commitment to the change plan (Hail, 2019; Viaene et al., 2009).

Change Process Monitoring and Evaluation

Monitoring and evaluating are distinct but related activities that are integral to the success of this change plan. According to Hobson et al. (2013), monitoring is defined as the collection and analysis of information throughout the change plan while evaluation is described as the periodic assessment of the plan. In complementary ways, both activities provide multiple benefits during the implementation stage to disrupt the status-quo and measure the impact of the change. By providing measures, metrics, and initiating feedback loops, monitoring and

evaluation provides multiple positive outcomes that include assessing organizational effectiveness in achieving its goals, improving internal learning and group functioning, enhancing motivation and empowerment, increased accountability, fostering change, and creating opportunities to share learning (Hobson et al., 2013). These benefits not only align with the tenets of Lewin's change model and the CLT framework but also underpin the 3T principles of EBP that are embedded in the ATLAS model. As multiple frameworks and models will be presented throughout the change plan, it must be understood that the ATLAS model is unique to EBP but will be a correlative tool in the combined evaluation framework discussed later in the section.

Chapter one identified organizational culture as driving force against change, underpinned by the implicit trust of police officers in the value of and preference to rely on experience in setting priorities for their proactive work, and at times in contradiction to orders from their leaders or the results of data analysis (Sutherland et al., 2019). To illustrate this point, a UK study (Sutherland et al., 2019) tasked police officers with identifying the top ten streets and offenders for volume and harm of crimes committed in their assigned districts. The results were compared with the top ten lists generated by comprehensive and systematic analysis of reported crimes and found that the officers lists were highly inaccurate compared to the lists produced by analysts. Specifically, officers were 91% inaccurate in naming the most prolific offenders in their areas, 95% inaccurate in naming the most harmful offenders, and 77% inaccurate in correctly identifying the streets with the highest frequency of crimes (Sutherland et al., 2019). These data highlight the importance of monitoring and evaluation in determining where proactive and preventive police strategies can be implemented with the greatest benefit to the community.

Maslov (2014) notes "there is no single measure that will be even remotely close to measuring the performance of everything the police does" (p. 2). In addition to the traditional policing tasks of investigating, arresting, and charging offenders, engaging in preventive crime

strategies, and routine matters such as traffic enforcement, the BPD is also expected to mediate community conflicts, resolve social disorder issues, and build positive community relationships. As the complexity of police work broadens, so too does its evaluation, extending beyond the narrow scope of the number of arrests, response times, and clearance rates which makes measuring the BPD's performance an even greater challenge. Despite these challenges, this section provides a monitoring and evaluation framework that ensures the experiential learning outcomes, change plan goals, and organizational objectives are achieved.

Combined Evaluation Framework

Evaluating police performance is an elaborate task that has multiple and sometimes competing dimensions (Coleman, 2012; Maguire, 2005; Moore & Braga, 2003). To effectively manage these dimensions the anticipatory, strategic approach to change discussed in chapter two is the most appropriate for the chosen solution as it fosters emergence and self-organizing so that change can be an evolving and cumulative process (Weick & Quinn, 1999). Accordingly, the combined evaluation framework for this change plan will rely on two distinct but complementary tools. First, Deming's (1986) PDSA cycle has been chosen to monitor and evaluate experiential learning projects as it aligns with the targeting, testing, and tracking concepts of EBP. Comparably, the PDSA cycle will apply a four-step cyclic process of testing small changes in short time frames, collecting and translating relevant pre-post comparison data into information useful for evaluating effectiveness of the changes, and gradually implementing these changes across the BPD (Berwick, 1998; Cleary, 2015; Wisdom et al., 2006).

The second evaluation tool in the framework is Kaplan and Norton's (1992) BSC which will evaluate the overall change plan. The benefit of the BSC is that it challenges the traditional, single-focused approach to measuring BPD performance reflected in quantitative metrics such as the number of arrests, investigative clearance rates, and response times that underpin the standard model. Consequently, data gathered during the PDSA cycles will be integrated into the BSC to provide a balanced evaluation framework that considers both quantitative and qualitative

measures. The combined evaluation framework is designed to support the organizational approach in adopting EBP and evaluate the overall change plan.

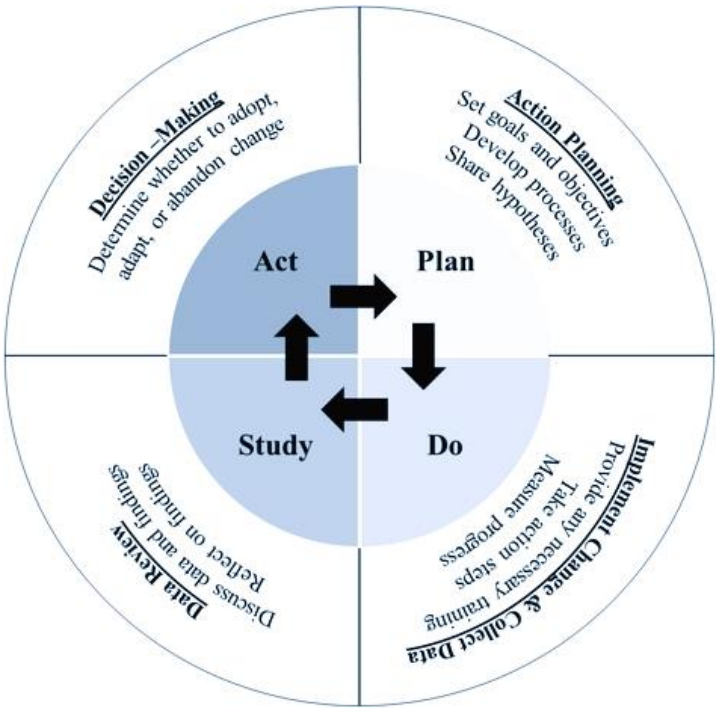
PDSA Cycle

Deming's (1986) PDSA cycle will be used by the CIT to monitor and evaluate the experiential learning activities in stage two of the change plan. Through a cyclical process of testing changes on a small scale, the PDSA cycles will collect and translate relevant data to assist the CIT and BPD leaders on how to implement change at the organization level (Berwick, 1998; Cleary, 2015; Wisdom et al., 2006). The PDSA cycle and ATLAS model share an innovative approach to organizational change that emphasizes data collection and data-based decision making in each phase of the cycle to validate the change (Cleary, 2015). While the ATLAS model is unique to EBP and will serve as the framework to guide experiential learning projects, the PDSA cycle will be used to monitor and evaluate EBP projects during the test stage in the ATLAS model.

Berwick (2009) notes that the PDSA cycle "can guide teams, support reflection, and provide an outline for oversight and review; it is thoroughly portable, applying usefully in myriad contexts" (p. xiii). In addition to the primary tasks of monitoring and evaluation, the PDSA cycle provides the following two benefits: (1) fostering enabling and adaptive leadership behaviors by supporting BPD leaders in ceding control and providing coaching opportunities (Powell et al., 2009). This will improve and build relationships while promoting the gradual transition of accountability for problem solving to the frontline (Spence & Cappleman, 2011); and (2) it supports the recommendation to frame the BPD as a CAS due to a shared approach to change that is non-linear, ongoing, and encourages competing ideas/solutions to complex problems through officer interactions and collaboration. These dynamics foster communication and value diversity while providing a simple set rules to guide officers (Jones, 2008). For these reasons, the PDSA cycle (see Figure 7) is a natural fit to support and advance the chosen solution.

Figure 7

PDSA Cycle



Note. Adapted from Fisher et al. (2018). Using goal achievement training in juvenile justice settings to improve substance use services for youth on community supervision. *Health & Justice*, *6*(1), 10.

As noted in chapter one, EBP can be applied across the three pillars (investigations, administration, or operations) of the BPD; however, the focus of this OIP is on integrating EBP into BPD operations to prevent and/or reduce crime. Correlatively, the depth and breadth of complex policing problems facing the BPD in their operational environment that could warrant consideration for experiential learning projects is beyond the scope of this OIP. Notwithstanding, this section will illustrate how Deming's (1986) PDSA cycle can be used to monitor and evaluate a singular EBP strategy within the context of an experiential learning project. *Hotspot policing* is an evidence-based strategy that concentrates police presence in small geographic areas that show higher-than-average numbers of crime or disorder events, or where victimization rates are higher-than-average (Eck et al., 2005). Depending on the type of problem to be addressed,

other strategies that could be applied within a hotspot include increased traffic enforcement, directed patrols, focused arrest policies for specific crimes, or zero tolerance approaches (Braga, 2001). Regardless of the strategy that is selected, the inclusion of the PDSA cycle into all experiential learning projects is designed to advance the chosen solution by demonstrating how EBP develops officer and organizational competency in understanding research methods, applies research findings to improve policies and practices, fosters internal and external collaboration, and discontinues ineffective or harmful policing practices.

Plan

Donnelly and Kirk (2015) describe the 'plan' phase as focusing on setting objectives based on organizational and community needs. In challenging the status-quo, the processes of self-reflection and critical thinking begin the planning phase by asking the following three questions: *What is the problem*? *How do we know it is a problem*? *What are we trying to achieve*? Once these questions are answered the next step is to develop potential solutions with corresponding short-, mid-, and long-term goals to advance the change plan. Lastly, the planning phase will identify the roles and responsibilities of the CIT, change facilitators, and change recipients, as well as establishing the criteria for success for the project that are aligned with the objectives of the change plan (Donnelly & Kirk, 2015). Accordingly, five overarching measures of success have been developed to support the organizational approach for EBP implementation and guide the change plan (see Appendix F). A comprehensive list of evaluation metrics are outlined in the BSC.

The 'plan' phase for the hotspot policing project involves three key tasks. First, the hotspot intervention should be guided by a research question such as *do more frequent but shorter patrol visits to selected hotspots reduce daily crime and disorder numbers more effectively than less frequent but longer patrols, if the daily total police presence time is relatively constant*? Second, a directed patrol strategy known as the Koper Principle (Koper, 1995) will be implemented to make better use of officer time in the hotspots. The underlying

premise of the Koper Principle is that by increasing visibility and positive community engagement within hotspots, police agencies can reduce crime and disorder while increasing community trust, legitimacy, and improve satisfaction. Third, the CIT must determine what data will be collected, how it will be collected for effective evaluation in the PDSA cycle and linking the data to both the change plan and BPD strategic goals as outlined in the BSC. The type and scope of these tasks will require a degree of agility among the three CLT behaviors in order to balance the project goals with the learning needs of the involved officers.

Do

The 'do' phase involves the initial steps of operationalizing the plan. Kaplan and Norton (1996) explain that "putting a plan into day-to-day practice is based on three pillars: communicating and educating about strategy, goal setting, and linking incentives to strategic performance measures" (p. 155). Communication and education regarding the hotspot strategy was initiated at the in stage two of the change plan with self-directed learning modules in the ATLAS model, hotspot policing, and the PDSA cycle uploaded into officers' individual learning profiles in LMS. This was supplemented with an in-person learning day aimed at developing an understanding of data collection and evaluation, and officer duties within the hotspots by working through a case study and group project. Given that the project involves both formal and experiential learning, the goals for each type of learning will have different evaluation methods that will be identified in the study phase.

The cornerstone of the 'do' phase is the application of EBP learning in an operational setting. Accordingly, all experiential learning projects, regardless of the type of intervention, will use the ATLAS framework to develop officer skills in the EBP tenets of targeting, testing, and tracking. The hotspot intervention will be applied to address a persistent and complex problem impacting four high crime areas in Bluetown. The Police Foundation (n.d.) notes that simply telling officers to patrol hotspots to increase arrests for minor offences or to remain stationary in those areas for prolonged periods of time is costly, impractical and does little to actually reduce

crime. Accordingly, officers will be assigned responsibilities (e.g., increased visibility, foot patrols, community interactions, etc.) with the understanding that directed patrols are not meant to act as a means for officers to proactively stop, question, or arrest citizens. The four crime hotspots will be randomly assigned to officers each shift with a corresponding short or long duration patrol visit for a period of 100 days. The total daily patrol time in each hotspot is 45 minutes with the short duration model having 9 x 5-minute visits and the long duration model having 3 x 15 minutes visits. As there are four hotspots identified for the project, four concurrent PDSA cycles will be initiated within the test stage of the ATLAS model to monitor and evaluate the effectiveness of each Koper intervention. To ensure that each PDSA cycle is implemented effectively a detailed worksheet has been developed to guide officers through each phase of the PDSA cycle (see Appendix G).

Study

Roberts (2019) suggests that to be effective, change must involve officers at all levels of the organization who are actively involved and invested in the performance measurement process. The ‘study’ phase focuses on evaluating the data and observations collected during the ‘do’ phase. Fleming and Rhodes (2018) note that there are limitations to officers’ experience, hence, the inclusion of formal EBP learning is central to weaving the knowledge of science and practice together. This integration is an important element in not only addressing the crime issues within the four hotspots but equally important in applying the chosen solution to address the PoP. Formal EBP learning can be evaluated with a variety of tools including surveys, formative and/or summative testing, case studies, or group projects with all evaluations will be implemented and tracked within the BPD’s LMS.

The evaluation of the hotspot intervention will rely on GPS data from officers’ radios, phones, and vehicles that track the time each officer spent within the four identified geo-fenced hotspots totaling the number of individual officer and patrol-minutes (with one or more officers present simultaneously) per shift per hotspot, as well as number of visits and minutes per visit.

Computer aided dispatch (CAD) and record management system (RMS) reports will be used to identify the number of officers simultaneously present during a patrol visit, generating the key independent variables of number and length of patrol visits in which single or multiple officers were present. The dependent variable is the total number of reports of crime and disorder within the hotspot boundaries each day of the test. Fleming (2010) notes that communicating the real-world application of the research findings provides an opportunity to continue the unfreezing process while building organizational support for EBP. This is an important consideration within a CAS as it creates adaptive spaces for officers and subunits to engage in experimentation and foster emergent change. Moreover, the purposeful messaging of PDSA data collected in the study phase can inform decision making and encourage collaborative work (Dickens, 2012).

Act

Popescu and Popescu (2015) suggest that the 'act' phase provides final confirmation of the impact of the proposed change and if the chosen solution will be adopted. The iterative nature of the PDSA cycle is designed to review processes and decision-making points, use data at each stage to determine whether to proceed to the next stage or return to previous stages, and ultimately inform the BSC to advance changes to BPD policies and procedures. Fisher et al. (2018) emphasize that the knowledge gained from data analysis and a review of the challenges experienced can assist both the officer leading the EBP project and the CIT in determining whether or not the change resulted in a significant reduction of crime and disorder, can be useful in the future, and is viable for system wide adoption. Data collected from the four PDSA cycles in the hotspot policing project may reveal that each Koper intervention did or did not meet the goals outlined in the 'plan' phase and how effectively the ATLAS model was adhered to. Once evaluations of the formal and experiential learning have been conducted, the BPD must decide whether to adopt, adapt, or abandon the hotspot policing strategy (Taylor et al., 2017). If the BPD adopts or adapts the strategy, they must provide the appropriate structures and supports to ensure sustainability of the change (Donnelly & Kirk, 2015). Should the hotspot

strategy be abandoned, the CIT must view this as an opportunity to review the effectiveness of hotspot policing in these high crime areas with consideration of an alternative strategy. The same process will occur in relation to the evaluation of the overall change plan. PDSA data collected from multiple experiential learning projects, utilizing an array of EBP strategies, will be integrated into the BSC to assist the CIT and BPD leaders on whether to adopt, adapt, or abandon EBP.

What to Measure?

Deszca et al. (2020) note that "change leaders need to select key measures that will track the change process" (p. 75). In 2014, Statistics Canada in collaboration with Public Safety Canada (PSC) and the Canadian Association of Chiefs of Police (CACP) conducted a review of current performance measures being used by police agencies across Canada. The intent of the review was to determine if there should be national standardized measures and to determine the types of data that could support police executives in decision-making and management (Mazowita & Rotenberg, 2019). The review concluded that Canadian police agencies were overly reliant on traditional performance metrics that did not capture the scope or complexity of their current policing responsibilities and recommended the development of a standard police performance metrics framework (Mazowita & Rotenberg, 2019). The relevance of this finding to the PoP is significant in that the BPD's lack of EBP practices may be influenced by the current institutionalized performance measures across the profession.

Maslov (2015) notes that the narrow scope and inconsistent measurement of police performance "runs the risk of poorly evaluating the performance or police and policing policies and practices, leading to inefficient and ineffective policing and ultimately compromising public safety" (p. 3). The BPD's lack of EBP practices and subsequent overreliance on the 3R's has also led to an attachment to traditional metrics when what is required is a more balanced evaluation methodology of its performance. Consequently, the national review provided a recommendation for the Canadian Police Performance Metrics Framework (CPPMF). Organized

around four pillars – crime and victimization, police activities and deployment, police resources, and trust and confidence in the police – the framework encompasses fourteen quantitative and qualitative dimensions to be measured. Accordingly, the goals outlined in the three-year change plan will be guided by the broader CPPMF framework to increase support for the chosen solution and alignment with the BPD's strategic plan.

Balanced Scorecard

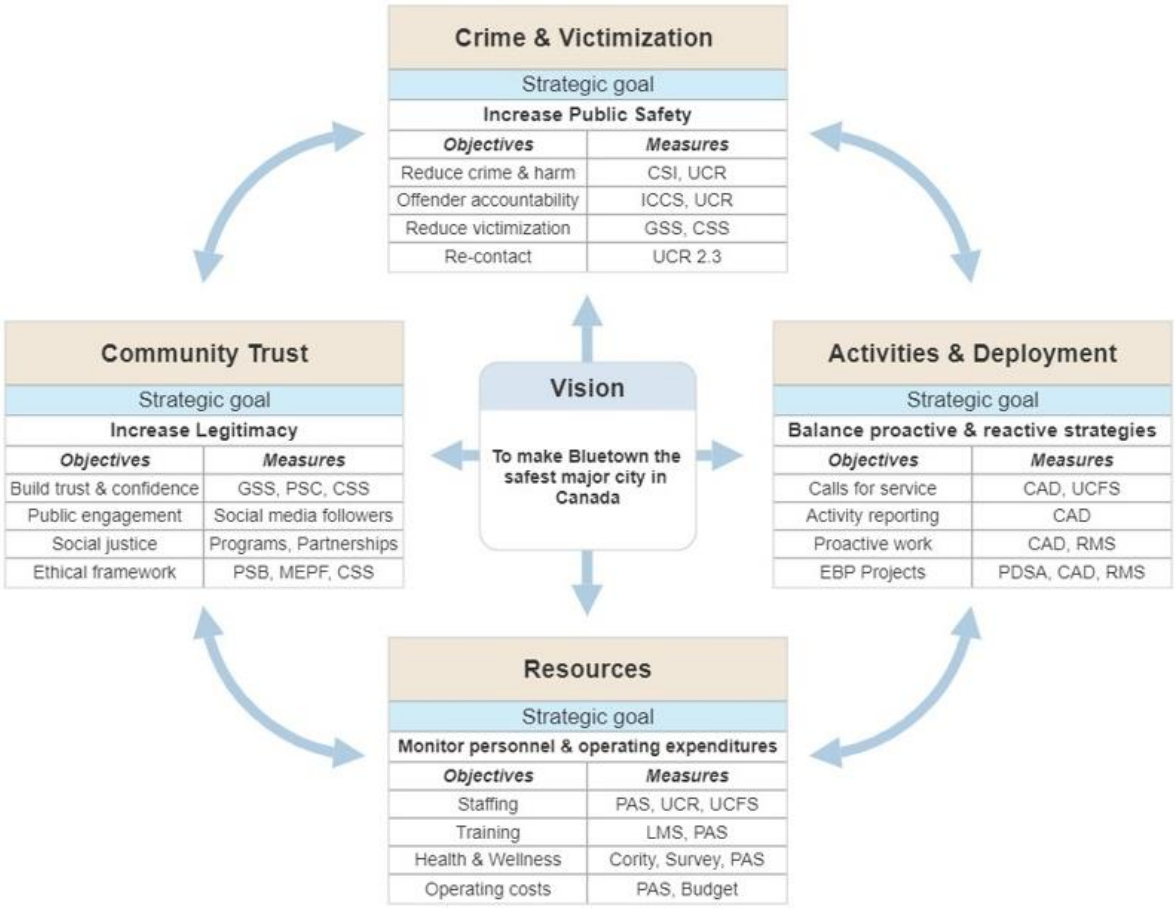
While the PDSA cycle provides the framework for evaluating EBP experiential learning projects and advancing the chosen solution, it does not provide specific performance metrics for the overall change plan or the BPD's three-year strategic plan. Kaplan and Norton's (1992) BSC is a performance measurement tool that tracks and measures performance over time to determine if the organizational mission and goals are being met. Consisting of four components - vision, perspectives, objectives, and measures - the BSC illustrates how these components work together to provide balanced performance measurement. In the original iteration of the BSC, Kaplan and Norton (1992) recommended four general perspectives for implementation: financial, customer, internal processes, and learning and growth. While these perspective were established for and relevant to private industry, Kaplan and Norton (1996) have since noted that the BSC can be adjusted to an organizations context. Specifically, "the four perspectives should be considered a template, not a strait jacket" (p. 34). Consequently, to better reflect the unique and complex policing landscape the BSC for this change plan has been adjusted to incorporate the following four pillars of the CPPMF: c*rime and victimization, activities and deployment, resources, and community trust*.

Maslov (2016) suggests that quantitative and qualitative measures need to be accounted for when measuring police performance. Historically, the BPD has relied on traditional, single-focused metrics such as crime rates, response times, and/or the CSI to measure performance. By adapting the BSC (see Figure 8) to reflect the four pillars of the CPPMF the performance measures outlined in this change plan align with the recommendations of the BPD's

organizational review, the goals of the BPD's strategic plan, and an organizational commitment to a set of national performance standards that more accurately reflect the complexity of policing. The BSC not only provides an agreed upon set of national metrics but also provides the BPD a roadmap of data to be developed in order accurately capture what they do (Montgomery & Griffiths, 2017).

Figure 8

BPD Balanced Scorecard



Note. Adapted from Kaplan, R.S., & Norton, D.P. (1992). The Balanced Scorecard - Measures that drive performance. *Harvard Business Review, 70*, 72.

Evaluation is a vital component of EBP that allows police leaders and officers to create, examine and apply the best available evidence to inform and challenge decisions, policies, and practices. The integration of PDSA cycle data into the BSC ensures this change plan will

challenge less formal evaluation practices by providing accuracy and rigor in a comprehensive process that will result in informed decision-making (Ward et al., 2007). A comprehensive set of data and metrics encompassing seven of the fourteen dimensions of the CPPMF are included for reference (see Appendix H).

Plan to Communicate the Need for Change and Change Process

The importance of communication in advancing EBP has been discussed throughout this OIP. Vital to the success of the change plan is the development of a shared understanding within the BPD of the need for change, change steps, and roles and responsibilities within the change process. This section provides a comprehensive four-phase communication strategy that integrates Klein's (1996) six principles of communication and Armenakis and Harris's (2002) three message conveying strategies. This framework examines individual and collective goals by establishing the need for change, empowering officers and the community to understand how they will be impacted by the change, conveying structural and job changes that alter how the BPD performs its core function, and keeping internal and external stakeholders informed about the progress of the proposed change (Deszca et al., 2020).

Building Awareness of the Need for Change

According to Klein (1996), the majority of employees have a vague awareness of the changes that may be occurring within their organization. This vagueness can fuel negative feedback loops and contribute to organizational rumours, officer stress, and create resistance to the change. Abrahamson (2021) notes that police officers must "vacillate between the real or perceived roles of guardian, warrior, social worker, crime analyst, and practitioner-academic depending on which policing model is adopted by the police organization at any given time" (p. 412). Consequently, the importance of communicating the need for of change internally and externally can not be overstated. A key component of the communication plan is to ensure that all BPD officers are provided with sufficient information regarding chosen solution and the change plan in order to reduce resistance and embrace the need for change. For these

reasons, the need for effective vertical and horizontal communication throughout the organization to address any misconceptions regarding EBP is vital (Goodman & Truss, 2004; Kalyal, 2020b; Van der Voet, 2016).

The communication plan developed for this OIP applies Armenakis and Harris's (2002) three message conveying strategies of active participation, persuasive communication, and management of information, that provide for clear and effective messaging. Additionally, Klein's (1996) six principles of communication - message redundancy and use multiple media platforms, communicate in person, involve the chain of command, engage immediate supervisors in messaging the change, engage organizational influencers/informal leaders, and use personally relevant information - will be used to gain the support of key stakeholders and those impacted by the change. For the purpose of this OIP the BPD's executive officers, BPD frontline supervisors and officers, and specific external stakeholders have been identified as the key stakeholders necessary and influential in advancing the change plan.

Executive Officer Awareness

The BPD's strategic plan and organizational review will be the key communication tools used to emphasize the need for change. Distribution of the most recent versions of both documents to the chain of command will assist these key decision makers in understanding the gap between the current and future envisioned states, assist in framing the PoP, and increasing support for EBP. While the intent of these reports was to realign the BPD in a unified direction by moving the organization towards an outcomes versus an outputs focus (BPD, 2020), they can also serve as a driver of change by increasing support for EBP as a means to achieve the organizational vision. Armenakis and Harris (2002) describe this communication approach as the *management of information* which involves the use of internal and external sources to provide information regarding the change.

In addition to the distribution of these reports the presentation of this OIP to executive officers can further increase awareness of the need for change, provide solutions to address the

current gap, and increase the likelihood of approval for the change plan. Framing the PoP from a risk mitigation perspective with an emphasis the legal, ethical, and reputational risks associated with not adopting EBP will serve to increase the need for change. Lum (2009) notes that policing practices based on credible research are likely to be more justifiable and effective in reducing crime. As a policing philosophy that applies the best evidence from proactive strategies such as problem-oriented policing, intelligence-led policing, and hotspot policing, EBP has been found to be more effective than the random and reactive approaches of the standard model (Kalyal, 2020a).

Herrington and Colvin (2015) note that current leadership approaches in policing tend to misdiagnose complex problems, often treating them as simple or complicated. Consequently, the ineffectiveness of the standard model is now being scrutinized by an unprecedented level of public inquiry that is being messaged through social media and social movements demanding police reform. This scrutiny has resulted in calls for greater accountably that will inevitably influence BPD leaders in examining this change plan due the financial and resource implications, duration, and responsibilities of leaders in the change process. The presentation of a well-developed plan can garner the influential and necessary support for the change plan.

Frontline Supervisor and Officer Awareness

The dissemination of internal and external reports outlined above targets a very small and specific audience that may not hold the same relevance for the remainder of the BPD. Huey et al. (2021a) note that the lack of internal communication regarding the need for EBP is a major barrier to its implementation, thus it is incumbent on the change team to create open, two-way communication so officers can understand the impact of EBP on their roles and relevance to the organizational vision. Given the demands and responsibilities placed on frontline supervisors and officers it cannot be assumed that they will have the time or interest to read these reports. Nevertheless, the influence of frontline supervisors in messaging the change cannot be underestimated, thus, their buy-in is critical to the to the success of the change plan. Armenakis

and Harris (2009) support the empowerment of frontline supervisors in communicating the change message and organizational gaps. Doing so increases their sense of *discrepancy* (the change is needed) and their *valence* (the change benefits them). Frontline awareness for the need to change began in stage one with *principal support* for EBP. This came in the form of a strong statement by the BPD executive leadership that the organization is committed to investing the required resources, time, and effort to institutionalize the change (Armenakis & Harris, 2002). To reinforce principal and supervisor support, message redundancy through multiple media platforms such as the BPD's internal website, e-mail system, LMS, and Corporate Communications will seek to increase awareness and support for EBP.

As the change plan progresses into its second and third years it is important to ensure that data, updates, and general information continued to be strategically coordinated and messaged by Corporate Communications through the internal website, e-mails, directives, and BPD social media platforms. According to Klein (1996), "face-to-face communication in a group context can be a powerful force in the service of a successful change" (p. 35). The dissemination of survey feedback, pilot projects, and change plan milestones be conducted through face-to-face communications with supervisors and officers during assigned parade times and/or dedicated training days. Additionally, the integration of EBP competencies into annual performance reviews and promotional processes provides supervisors the opportunity to improve two-way communication with frontline officers, reinforce the reciprocal benefits of EBP to the organization and officer career progression, engage in the productive tension that generates innovation, and sustain support for the change.

External Stakeholder Awareness

Building awareness for the need for change is not limited to internal BPD stakeholders. In seeking external support, executive officers need to be confident that the need for change is clearly articulated and that change plan can be effectively monitored and evaluated. Within the context of this OIP three key external stakeholders have been necessary to increase awareness

and build support for the change plan. First, as public entity the BPD is accountable to the PC to provide ongoing reports to reflect a transparency of its operations and financial spending. Martin and Mazerolle (2016) note that police budgets have not historically been linked to policing practices that have proven to be effective. With the current pressures to defund the police and the diversion of BPD funding to other government sectors, the impetus to communicate the need and value of EPB has never been more important.

Second, the citizens of Bluetown can be very influential in building support for the change plan. Martin and Mazerolle (2016) suggest that police leaders "need to foster a sophisticated public that demands evidence-based practice" (p. 7). As the primary consumer and funder of BPD services community support for the change plan can be very influential with the municipal government and PC in advancing EBP. Research has shown that EBP can improve organizational effectiveness, thus if the community perceives the BPD as effective, they are more likely to perceive the BPD as legitimate (Sargeant et al., 2014; Tyler, 2004). Armenakis and Harris (2002) suggest that *persuasive communication*, where change agents directly communicate the change message, would be an effective communication strategy with this group. Accordingly, BPD leaders and the CIT will conduct public consultations, surveys, and community engagement sessions to increase public awareness and support for the change plan. Third, as police-academic partnerships are key to the success of this change plan, face to face meetings and collaboration to develop of formal working agreements with local universities, researchers, and CAN-SEBP will also increase awareness for the need for change.

Communication Plan

Schafer and Verano (2017) suggest that in addition to training, a clear communication plan and continuous consultation is critical to both effective change implementation and increasing officer support and commitment for new organizational initiatives. Kalyal (2020a) cited a lack of organizational communication as a major contributing factor in officer resistance towards EBP. They noted that the dissemination of information relating to EBP rarely reached

frontline officers resulting in a diminished awareness of the positive impacts of such strategies. Consequently, the success of this change plan is contingent on a focused communication strategy that meets the needs of all the stakeholders impacted by the change. According to Deszca et al. (2020) an effective communication plan has four phases: pre-change approval, developing the need for change, midstream change, and confirming the change. Table 4 outlines the communication needs of the internal and external stakeholders throughout the change plan.

Table 4

Communication Needs of the Change Plan

Pre-change Phase	Developing the Need for Change Phase (Stage/Year 1)	Midstream Change Phase (Stage/Year 2)	Confirming the Change Phase (Stage/Year 3)
• How was the change identified, why change is required, & who is responsible? • Link change plan to the Strategic Plan, Org. Review • Link change plan to CPPMF • Present change plan to PC & Executive officers • Forecast need for CIT • Forecast external support needs for EBP	• Describe the need & rationale for change • Solicit principal support for EBP • Introduce EBP Committee • CIT to facilitate surveys, focus groups, feedback sessions & message results • Initiate preliminary EBP learning • Corporate Comms to provide change plan progress & changes	• Message EBP learning goals & plan • CIT seeks feedback on attitudes & barriers to change • CIT clarifies roles & responsibilities within the plan • EBP Committee reviews feedback from training plan • Continuously inform officers of change progress • Message project milestones & EBP project successes	• Inform stakeholders of the change plan progress • Publish new EBP procedures, policies, systems & structures • EBP research centre coordinates all EBP initiatives • Link EBP into performance reviews & promotion process • Introduce rewards & recognition program for EBP initiatives • Release the results of the change plan evaluation

Note. Adapted from Klein's Communication Stages (1996), Table 9.8, Deszca et al. (2020), 321.

The communication plan will require the CIT to target individuals with influence and/or authority to approve the change plan. Consequently, the implementation of EBP will require approval from the both the PC and executive officers of the BPD. Receiving their approval and support initiates the unfreezing stage (Lewin, 1947a). Communication prior to implementation of

the change plan will be initiated through internal e-mails to the strategic business development section, and information and intelligence sections to collect local, provincial, and national data relating to crime performance metrics including the CSI. Supplemental data will include results from the latest community engagement survey, BPD strategic plan, and BPD organizational review recommendations. These data acknowledge and commit the organization to adopt EBP while meeting an increased public demand for improved social justice outcomes. This will first be presented in a memorandum drafted by myself and presented in person to Chief's Committee. Once approved, the Chief will present the proposal to the PC. Martin and Mazerolle (2016) suggest that once influential stakeholders acknowledge the complex and ever-changing environment of policing, they will prioritize EBP practices to ensure an accurate evaluation BPD performance.

The second step of the change plan will involve the implementation of formal EBP learning for all BPD officers as well as experiential learning projects to reinforce the desired change. Schein (1996) notes that unfreezing current practices and behaviors is not an end in itself but does create the motivation to learn. Learning, which is at the core of this change plan, also underpins the concepts of adaption, self-organization, and emergence within a CAS. Armenakis and Harris (2002) suggest that the communication strategy of *active participation*, where officers engage in activities designed to have them learn directly, would be an effective in this stage. Accordingly, a blended learning model utilizing classroom instruction and online learning modules on pre-assigned training days aim to reinforce EBP principles and practices.

EBP projects will provide experiential learning opportunities to apply classroom training in operational settings. Experiential learning and active participation are complementary concepts that reinforce complexity thinking by empowering officers to experiment in their policing practice and increase collaboration that can reduce barriers to change. Additionally, the communication of personally relevant experiences during EBP collaborations between officers, supervisors, academic partners, and analysts can advance the change plan. The CIT will also

utilize persuasive communication tools (website, social media, e-mail, videos, spotlight articles) to message change plan progress. The focused and continuous communication initiated in this stage aims to increase organizational confidence in the change plan and inspire officers to become actively engaged in the change. An overview of the integrated communication strategy is provided in Table 5.

Table 5

Integrated Communication Strategy

Communication Phase	Armenakis & Harris's Strategies	Klein's Principles
Pre-change	persuasive communication & management of information	in person, line authority, multiple media
Developing the need for change	active participation, persuasive communication, & management of information	in person, message redundancy, multiple platforms, line authority, immediate supervisors, informal leaders
Mid-stream change	active participation, persuasive communication & management of information	in person, message redundancy, multiple platforms, immediate supervisors, informal leaders, personally relevant information
Confirming the change	active participation & management of information	in person, message redundancy, multiple platforms, line authority

Note. Table outlines the integrated communication strategies and principles in each phase of the change plan.

The final step of the change plan seeks to freeze the new learning and behaviors at a new quasi-stationary equilibrium. Cummings and Worley (2001) note that freezing requires changes to an organizations culture, norms, policies and practices while Lewin (1947a) believed that change without reinforcement is temporary. The development of a recognition program for EBP projects will see executive officers conducting in-person presentations of awards for officers embracing EBP work. In addition to formal awards, communicating the progress of the

change plan milestones such as the creation of a permanent research centre, and new EBP competency-based performance review and promotion processes provide ample opportunities to reinforce new learning and desired behaviors outlined in the change plan. The use of active and persuasive communication strategies in this stage will include internal e-mail, dedicated training days, intranet articles, feedback sessions, and presentations at monthly divisional team meetings. Internally, the Chief can task media relations to produce short videos to keep the organization updated on the impacts of the change plan in relation to BPD's vision and goals. Externally, the Chief will conduct face-to-face presentations to city council, the PC, and community groups to celebrate the success of the change plan. Effective stakeholder communication aims to increase trust, transparency, and legitimacy while institutionalizing EBP as an organizational and community expectation.

Planned change can be a complex process, particularly when the majority of employees are content with the current organizational context. Communication in the BPD is often a one-way channel for providing valuable information; however, internal and external stakeholder engagement provides opportunities for two-way feedback throughout the change plan. The relationship between communication and engagement is significant, because ongoing, effective communication is the vital step in creating support for the change plan. Klein (1996) suggests that a well-planned communications process can be extremely influential in reducing barriers and minimizing resistance to pave the way to a more effective process. Through improved communication BPD leaders can increase commitment for the change plan (Schafer, 2003).

Chapter Three Summary

Chapter three outlined the action plan to increase support for EBP in an effort to address the BPD's lack of EBP practices. The first section of the chapter provided a detailed education plan that leveraged new learning through a combination of formal EBP training programs and EBP experiential learning projects aimed at the BPD's professional policing practice from a purely reactive model towards a proactive, evidence-based model. The intended outcomes of

leveraging this new organizational learning were to inform decision making, prioritize social justice, and improve public safety. The second part of the chapter described how the change plan would be monitored and evaluated by utilizing the PDSA cycle and the BSC. Guided by the principle of continuous improvement, these tools provide a comprehensive framework that not only monitored the cyclic nature of the change plan but provided a balanced picture of BPD performance through quantitative and qualitative measures. Finally, an integrated communication plan utilizing Klein's (1996) six principles of communication and Armenakis and Harris's (2002) three communication strategies was designed to increase internal and external awareness for the change, increase motivation to adopt and institutionalize EBP, and coordinate the three stages of the change plan.

Next Steps and Future Considerations

In concluding this OIP there are a number of next steps and future considerations to be discussed. It is also important to note that the fundamental purpose of this change is to influence BPD leaders and officers to challenge their current thinking and behaviors about their current policing practice and strive for change. The rationale for choosing EBP rests in its four core tenants: scientific research has a role to play in developing effective policing programs; police research must meet standards of methodological rigor and be useful to the profession; research results should be easily translatable into everyday police practice and policy; and research should be the outcome of a blending of police experience with academic research skills (Lum et al., 2011; Lum, Koper, Telep, & Grieco, 2012; Sherman, 2015; Telep & Lum, 2014). Moreover, in advancing social justice EBP supports the TRC's thirtieth call to action item that challenges "federal, provincial, and territorial governments to commit to eliminating the overrepresentation of Indigenous people in custody over the next decade, and to issue detailed annual reports that monitor and evaluate progress in doing so" (p. 172). While the BPD has signaled a commitment to change by demonstrating support for EBP in its strategic plan and organizational review, I can use my position and platform to hold senior leaders, supervisors,

and officers accountable to action this commitment, so the needs of the community are best served.

Recognizing and embracing complexity is central to the success of this OIP. Bayley (2016) notes that due to a preoccupation with internal administrative tasks for the majority of their careers, police executive officers have not kept pace with the increased complexity of their changing environments. In my current position I oversee the development, delivery, and evaluation of leadership training across the organization. As such, I can introduce Snowden and Boone's (2007) Cynefin Framework into current leadership training as an initial but influential change to assist BPD leaders and officers in understanding the functional complexity of our policing environment and use EBP to inform decision-making. Also, by advancing the concept that the BPD is a CAS where solutions are not always obvious, I can reinforce that our structural complexity requires experimentation, learning, and a willingness to modify our strategies in order to be more effective in achieving our vision.

A goal of this OIP is to create a culture of learning within the BPD. Nikolou-Walker and Meaklim (2007) suggest that police agencies must ensure that their leaders and officers are sufficiently trained to fulfill a more complex role in public safety. Within the BPD this is considered professional development and is essential for organizational effectiveness (Birzer, 2003; Donavant, 2009). My positionality within training section affords me the opportunity to create adaptive spaces for leaders, officers, and analysts to refine current BPD proactive strategies with basic EBP training and practice. A key tenet of adaptive leadership is promoting learning through trial and error so officers can apply EBP training in their operational environments. Borrowing from proposed solution number one, I can work with frontline supervisors to identify officers and analysts with demonstrated problem-solving skills to participate in EBP training and pilot projects. My work area would assume responsibility for the development of foundational EBP content that would be delivered to this select cohort of officers to work on small but complex crime and disorder issues. Not only does this align with the

current operational expectation to engage in proactive work but also embodies the BPD's core value of innovation and serves to dispel the myths and stereotypes engrained in the standard model.

Lastly, police-academic partnerships are a key focus of this OIP and present a rich and reciprocal opportunity to drive innovation and improve the BPD's policing practice (Fenn et al., 2019). Currently, the BPD has working agreements with two universities in Bluetown that provide foundational business, leadership, and policing programs for officers as well as a number of teaching opportunities. In advancing the process of knowledge mobilization I can initiate preliminary discussions with these institutions to examine the possibility of growing these partnerships into mutually beneficial research collaborations. My positionality in the BPD allows me the opportunity to promote the benefits of police-academic partnerships such as increased objectivity and validity to policing projects, increasing research capabilities, access to external funding, changing BPD policies and procedures based on partnership results, and improved organizational legitimacy to name a few (Hansen et al., 2014). From an education/learning perspective I can also investigate the feasibility of working with faculty from these institutions to build EBP content into existing criminology/policing courses or potentially develop an EBP course. Expanding partnership roles in current working agreements and developing EBP content with external institutions not only provides mutually beneficial collaborations and learning opportunities but can also serve to develop external support for the change plan.

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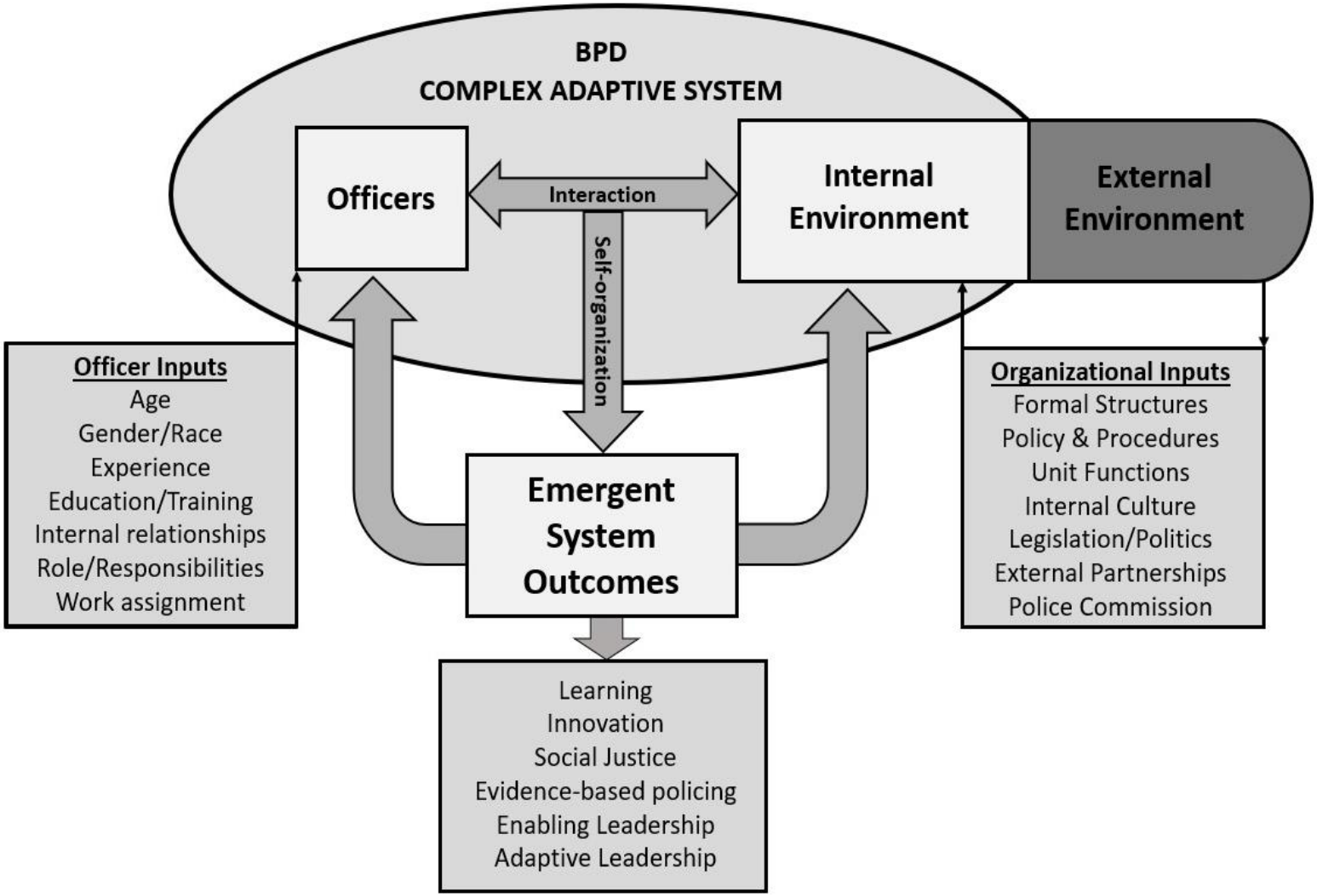
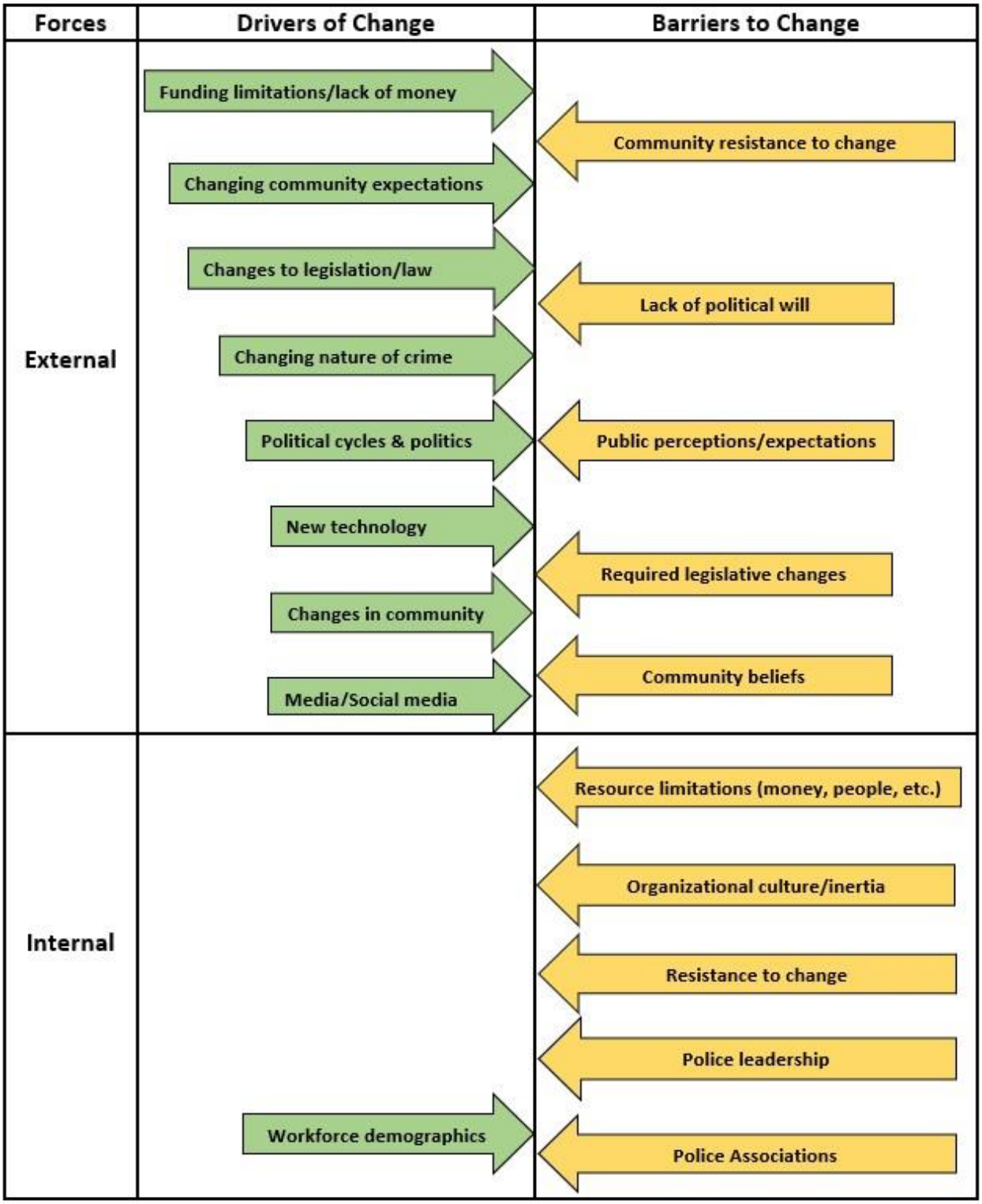
Appendix A: Complex Adaptive System Framework



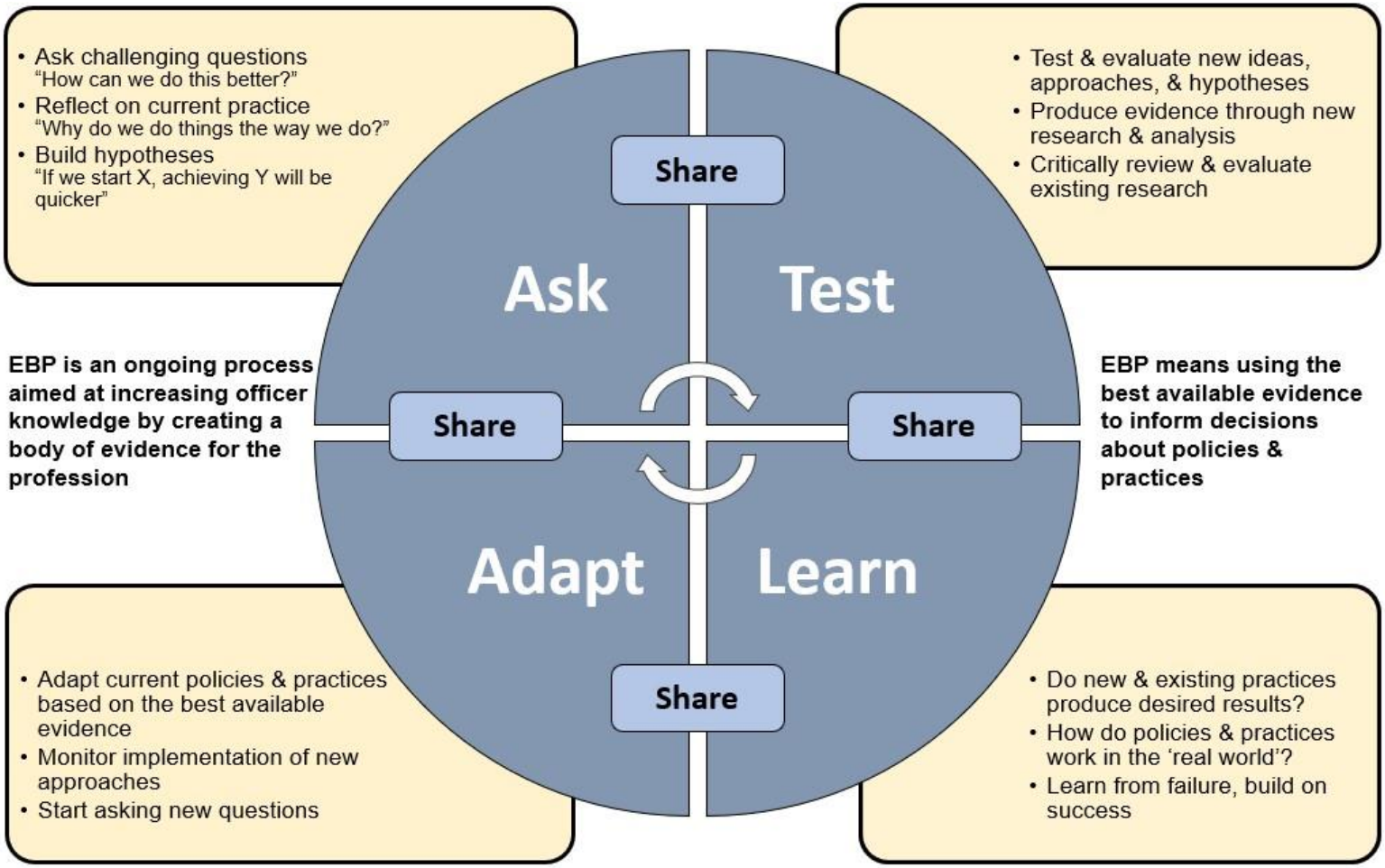
Note. Adapted from Nair, A., & Reed-Tsochas, F. (2019). Revisiting the complex adaptive systems paradigm: Leading perspectives for researching operations and supply chain management issues. *Journal of Operations Management*, *65*(2), 21.

Appendix B: Force Field Analysis



Note. Adapted from Duxbury et al. (2018). Change or be changed: Diagnosing the readiness to change in the Canadian police sector. *The Police Journal*, *91*(4), 333.

Appendix C: ATLAS Model



Note: Adapted from College of Policing (2016). *What is EBP? Introducing "ATLAS"*. College of Policing.

Appendix D: EBP Receptivity Survey

1. Indicate your level of agreement to the following statements:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
a. I am willing to try new tactics or strategies, even if they are different from what I am currently doing				
b. Collaboration with researchers is necessary for a police agency to improve its ability to reduce crime				
c. When a new idea is presented from executive leaders it is usually a fad, and things will eventually return to normal				

2. How willing would you be to take the following actions to test whether a particular tactic the police are currently using was effective?

	Very Willing	Quite Willing	Somewhat Willing	Not Willing
a. Stop the tactic to see if the problem gets worse				
b. Stop the tactic in one small area and compare what happens in another area where you didn't stop the tactic				
c. Find the top 20 areas where this problem exists and toss a coin to assign 10 areas to have the tactic and 10 areas not to receive the tactic and compare				
d. Use data before the police implemented the tactic and compare it to data from after the tactic was up and running				
e. Approach a researcher from a university or research organization to help you evaluate your tactic				
f. Seek assistance from within the BPD to create an acceptable evaluation method				
g. Undertake online research to try and find out what others have done				
h. Stop a tactic on the basis that a researcher told you there was research showing it ineffective				

3. In day-to-day decision making, what do you think the balance should be between the use of scientific research/knowledge (e.g., from universities or research organizations) and professional experience? (Choose one answer)

	a. Experience should be most important (90%) and scientific knowledge should make little contribution (10%)
	b. Experience should be more important (75%) but scientific knowledge should make some contribution (25%)
	c. Experience (50%) and scientific knowledge (50%) should both make an equal contribution
	d. Scientific knowledge should be more important (75%), but experience should make some contribution (25%)
	e. Scientific knowledge should be most important (90%), and experience should make little contribution (10%)

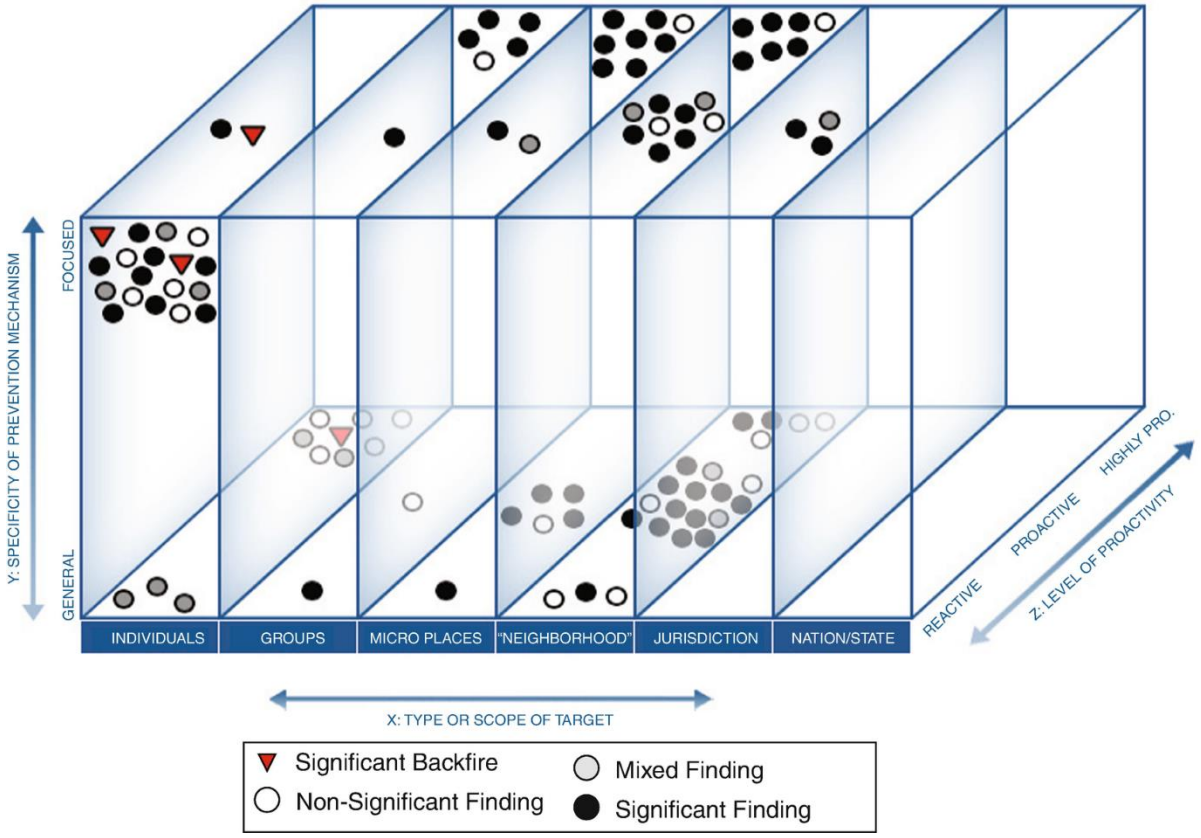
4. If you had to generally assess the nature of the BPD's efforts to reduce crime and disorder, which of the following would best describe those efforts?

	a. The BPD uses primarily traditional tactics such as random preventive patrol and reactive investigations (by type, e.g., auto theft, robbery, homicide, major crimes)
	b. The BPD uses primarily traditional tactics supplemented by problem-oriented policing in a separate unit
	c. The BPD has adopted a service-wide problem-oriented policing approach
	d. The BPD uses a mix of traditional tactics and more innovative strategies such as problem-oriented policing, intelligence-led policing or hot spots policing
	e. The BPD uses primarily innovative tactics

5. In your view, what is the top factor that inhibits innovation and reform in the BPD?

Note. Sample survey, section one of five. Adapted from Lum et al. (2012). Receptivity to research in policing. *Justice Research & Policy,14*(1), 61-95.

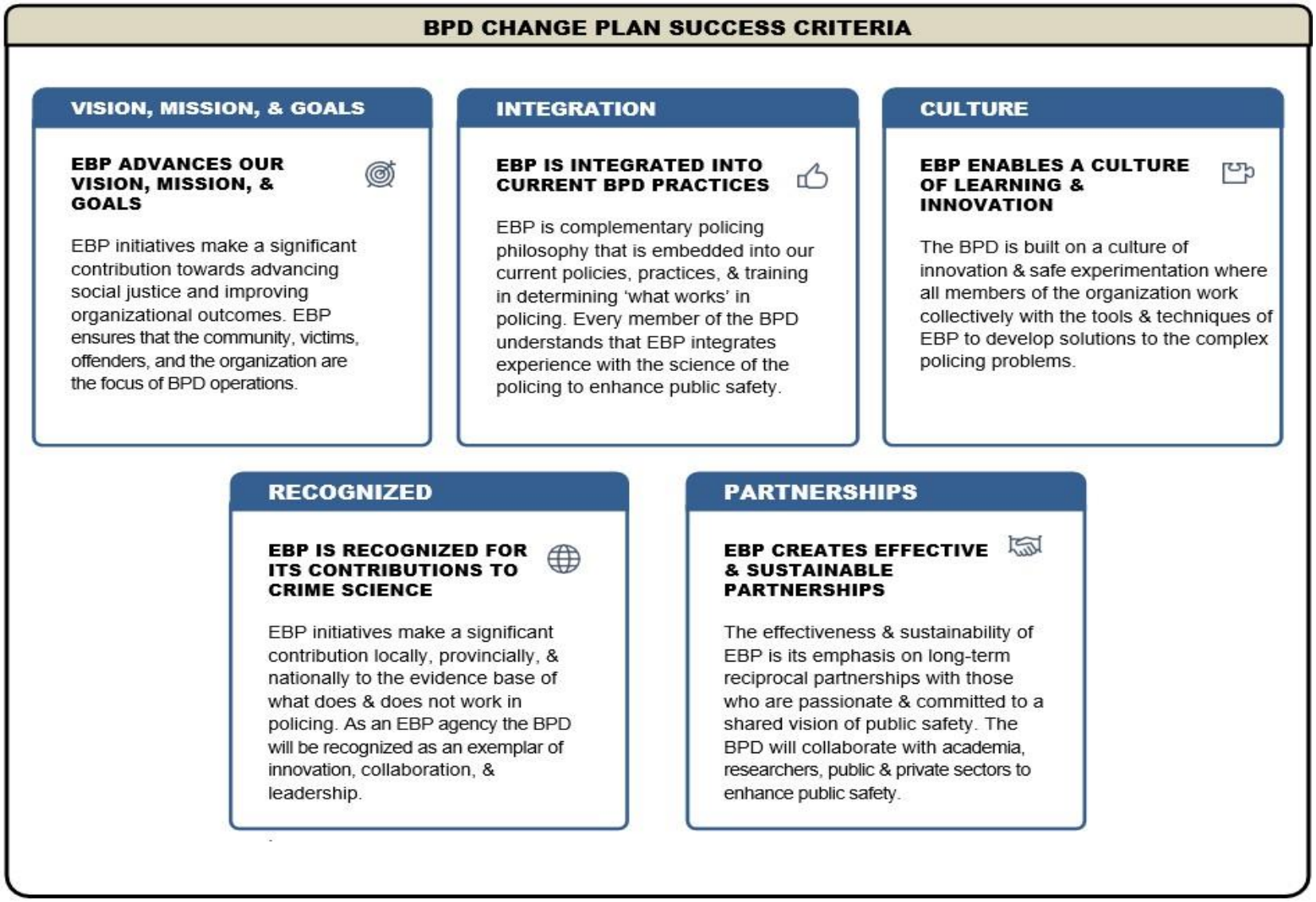
Appendix E: Evidence-Based Policing Matrix



Note. Lum et al. (2011). The evidence-based policing matrix. *Journal of Experimental Criminology, 7*(1), 15.

- **Red triangle** - statistically significant backfire effect indicates the outcome of the study was statistically significant, but in the opposite direction of the hypothesis (e.g., harmful).
- **White dot** - non-significant effect indicates the intervention did not lead to any statistically significant effect.
- **Gray dot** - mixed effects indicates there were multiple primary outcomes in the study, at least one of which showed positive effects and at least one of which showed non-significant or backfire effects.
- **Black dot** - significant effects indicates that the intervention led to a statistically significant effect in reducing crime or criminality.

Appendix F: Change Plan Success Criteria



Note. Adapted from the New Zealand Police (2019). *Blueprint for evidence-based policing.* New Zealand Police.

Appendix G: PDSA Worksheet

BPD Officer: **PDSA Cycle#:**

Three Fundamental Questions for Improvement

What are we trying to accomplish? *(Describe the problem)*

How will we know that a change is an improvement/how will we measure the test? *(Describe desired or measurable outcomes)*

What changes can we make that will lead to improvement? *(Describe current processes, identify opportunities for improvement)*

PLAN - plan the test & describe the data collection plan
What change is being tested?
What is the predicted outcome? Why?
Test details (who will be involved & their duties, required resources, time frame for test)
What data will be collected & how?

DO - run the test on a small scale
Describe what happens during the test (including problems & unintended results)
Collect the appropriate data

STUDY - analyze the data
What did we learn/conclude from this cycle?
Why was the test successful/unsuccessful?

ACT - decide what adjustments to make	
Adopt	if the test was successful, consider expanding the changes more broadly
Adapt	if the test was moderately successful, adjust based on lessons learned & retest/cycle
Abandon	if the test was unsuccessful, abandon this intervention and consider a new approach

Note. Adapted from https://www.smartsheet.com/sites/default/files/2019-10/IC-PDSA-Plan-Do-Study-Act-Cycle-10693 WORD.dot

Appendix H: BPD Data Sources & Metrics

Dimension	Data	Data source(s)	Metrics
Calls for Service (CFS)	Reactive policing Proactive activities in Computer Aided Dispatch (CAD) systems Administrative activities in CAD	Uniform Calls for Service(UCFS) Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) COGNOS Reports	CFS per 100,000 population CFS by source (emergency, non-emergency, on-view) Proportion of dispatched CFS Proportion of CFS not resulting in a criminal incident Median response time to priority 1 & 2 calls
Crime	Adult & Youth crime rates Crime severity Disorder offences	Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) General Social Survey (GSS) Crime Severity Index (CSI)	Targeted reductions in crime rates & severity Targeted reductions in disorder Reductions in police-reported crime in public spaces
Victimization	Self-reported rates General reporting rates Perceptions of safety	General Social Survey (GSS) Citizen Satisfaction Survey (CSS)	Targeted reductions in victimization rates Reporting rates (gap between reported & unreported crime) Perceptions of safety among victims of crime
Offenders	Clearance rates Court outcomes	Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) Integrated Criminal Court Survey (ICCS)	Violation-specific clearance rates # of Extra-judicial measures Charges laid/recommended vs. court convictions
EBP Initiatives	Intelligence-led Policing (ILP) Community-based Policing (COP) Problem-oriented policing (POP) Hotspot policing	PDSA & BSC Reports Crime Management Report (CMR) Offender Management Report (OMR) Intelligence Management Report (IMR)	# of specific targeted policing initiatives # of human resources allocated to EBP policing initiatives # of financial resources allocated to EBP policing initiatives Reductions in crime & disorder from EBP initiatives
Training	Training hours Training costs IT resources	Police Administration Survey (PAS) Learning Management System (LMS) Records	# of training hours per officer Expenditures on training vs. overall expenditures Investment in technological resources
Community Trust	Trust & confidence Public engagement Legitimate exercise of force & authority	GSS BPD Community Survey Public Safety Canada Survey (PSC)	Treating people fairly Being approachable Marginalized populations' perceptions of BPD # of social media followers (Facebook, Twitter, website)

Note. Adapted from Mazowita, B., & Rotenberg, C. (2019). The Canadian police performance metrics framework: Standardized indicators for police services in Canada. *Juristat: Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics*, 1-13.