

The Lived Experience of Police Leadership Development: A Phenomenological Study

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The Lived Experience of Police Leadership Development: A Phenomenological Study

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Abstract

Law Enforcement services in the United States are currently faced with complex and ever changing challenges. Police leaders must be fluid and adaptive in order to effectively navigate an ever-fluctuating operational environment. Police leadership development has been identified as critical in preparing law enforcement executives to effectively negotiate these complicated issues. A gap in the research exists concerning law enforcement executives and their lived experiences of leadership development training and this training's effect on their executive skills. The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study was to provide a better understanding of the lived experiences of uniformed federal police agency executives and their leadership development. A goal of this research was to examine data from uniformed federal police agency leaders regarding their experiences of their leadership development and its influence on their executive law enforcement proficiencies. A purposeful sample of five uniformed federal police agency leaders from the nine largest uniformed federal police agencies was utilized. This sample size may have limited transferability or generalizability. Interviews were conducted telephonically and data was collected using a standardized questionnaire with open-ended questions. The data was analyzed using Moustaka's (1994) modified Van Kaam model. Ten emergent themes were identified regarding the participants reconstruction of their lived experiences regarding leadership development training. Overall, the training experience was viewed as having added value to their personal development as a leader. Leadership development training alone was found insufficient in preparing future police leaders to lead a department administratively or during critical incidents. Learning from experience and mentoring were credited as having more value in their development than

a leadership training session. Future research recommendations include the use of varying qualitative frameworks or mixed methods studies for a more holistic approach. Last, a larger and more diverse sample size should be examined. Recommendations for practice involve police administrators and trainers examining the findings and exploring the potential effectiveness of blended methods for future leadership development.

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“I have often wished that I was a more devout man than I am. Nevertheless, amid the greatest difficulties of my administration, when I could not see any other resort, I would place my whole reliance in God, knowing that all would go well and that He would decide for the right” (Abraham Lincoln). I echo Lincoln’s sentiments in my own efforts and give God thanks for His right direction and guidance. Providence placed many in my path that have assisted me along this journey. First and foremost, my wife Kim. She is the rock upon which all I do is built. Without her love and support to bolster and encourage me during the hard times, I would not have been able to continue. All worthwhile endeavors are not without opportunity costs and in my case, my children felt it the most. Even though I missed some games, parades, or just normal family time, my children always were understanding and supportive. I hope I have made you proud and I have a lot of “Dad” time to make up for. I would like to thank my first chair, Dr. Anthony Dnes, for his encouragement and my last chair, Dr. Eva Mika, for energetically grabbing the wheel and guiding me through the final phases of my dissertation. I’d also like to thank my “unofficial” chair, Dr. Jeff Lindsey, whose combined law enforcement leadership and academia insights were invaluable. A special thanks to some co-workers is warranted: Dr. Samuel Berhanu, a true professional and academic; Dr. James Noonan for his support, encouragement, and for the use of his ear which I often vented frustration too, a fellow “Gentlemen Barbarian”; Dr. Darin Walker a brother law enforcement officer and scholar; and lastly, Dr. Jeff Daniels for his patience and guidance with my many questions.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

American police supervisors, operating in a constitutional republic, are faced with complex and ever changing challenges (Batts, Smoot, & Scrivner, 2012; Delattre, 2011). Areas of recent change and concern include terrorism, immigration, politics and public accountability (Batts et al., 2012; Bayley & Nixon, 2010; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Rosenbaum, 2010). Law Enforcement also is expected to provide a robust response during critical incidents or natural disasters (Department of Homeland Security [DHS], 2003, 2007, 2008; Sjoberg, Wallenius, & Larsson, 2011). In addition to these challenges, police executives must contend with rising expenditures (Gascon & Foglesong, 2010) to ensure public safety needs are met with reductions in budgets (Bayley & Nixon, 2010; Neyroud, 2011). To cope with these modern challenges, law enforcement leadership has been identified as critical (Vito, Higgins, & Denney, 2014).

Police supervisors should be both fluid and adaptive in order to be effective in this dynamic environment (Batts et al., 2012). Police executives are expected to provide stability, accountability, and guidance to maintain viable agencies capable of providing effective services (Mastrofski, Rosenbaum, & Fridell, 2011; Batts et al., 2012). Modern police leaders must be knowledgeable in operational police functions as well as having competencies as an administrator and an understanding of global influences on the policing profession (Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Batts et al., 2012; Dean & Gottschalk, 2013). Law enforcement leadership development is essential in preparing leaders for the modern challenges that confront police agencies (Miller, Watkins, & Webb, 2009).

Police supervisor training in the United States is inconsistent and unsystematic (Cordner, McDevitt, & Rosenbaum, 2011). States differ on requirements for police

leadership development, with courses unique to each locale or state and last a minimum of a few days to a few weeks (The Police Chief, 2009). There are three independent police executive schools that are nationally recognized for their leadership training, and successful completion of one is considered by some agencies a prerequisite for command position candidates (Discover Policing, 2014). The Southern Police Institute (SPI) is supported by University of Louisville with the Command Officers Development Course being the main police leadership development course (SPI, 2014). Northwestern University's Center for Public Safety (NUCPS) offers the School of Police Staff and Command as its premiere offering (NUCPS, 2014). Last, the FBI National Academy (FBINA), which is not directly supported by an academic institution, has partnered with the University of Virginia (UVA) to provide graduating FBINA students 17 hours of either undergraduate or graduate criminal justice education credits (UVA, 2014).

These programs offer challenging academic courses to assist mid-level managers increase their practical and administrative skills for upper level command positions (SPI, 2014; NUCPS, 2014; FBINA, 2014). All require the student to attend 10 weeks of training away from their homes and professional responsibilities to focus strictly on the curriculum (FBINA, 2014; NUCPS, 2014; SPI, 2014). These schools are not without their expenses, which are in the thousands of dollars and require considerable amount of resources from both the department and the student (FBINA, 2014; NUCPS, 2014; SPI, 2014). With the current budget limitations police departments face, sending a mid-level manager with potential command skills to any one of these schools is challenging (Bayley & Nixon, 2010; Gascon & Foglesong, 2010; Neyroud, 2011).

Background

Facing the same leadership challenges as state and local law enforcement is a “patchwork” of uniform federal police agencies in the federal government. Mary Elie Pearo, a Federal Law Enforcement Training Center (FLETC) uniformed federal police training technician, stated FLETC trains 24 different uniformed federal police agencies. (personal communication, March 12, 2012). Most of these agencies are under the executive branch such as the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) Police, United States (U.S.) Secret Service Uniformed Division, U.S. Park Police, Federal Protective Service, National Security Agency Police, Bureau of Reclamation Police, Pentagon Force Protection Agency, Central Intelligence Agency Special Police, and the U.S. Mint Police. Others, such as the Supreme Court Police and the U.S. Capitol Police, fall under the operational control of the judicial and legislative branches, respectively. These uniformed federal police agencies are under the command and jurisdiction of their separate parent government departments, and policies and regulations vary widely from facility to facility.

Many government employees are protected by the federal uniformed police services. In addition to protecting life, these uniformed federal police agencies protect government institutions critical to effective conduct of federal government operations. The *National Strategy for the Physical Protection of Critical Infrastructures and Key Assets* (2003) explained a successful attack on a federal government institution would impair the federal government’s ability to perform essential missions to ensure the general public’s health and safety. The General Accountability Office ([GAO], 2012) noted these agencies are also responsible for protecting executive level government

officials to include Cabinet members, Congressmen, Supreme Court Justices, and the President. Indirectly, with the protection of critical federal government infrastructures (DHS, 2003, 2007, 2008), the American citizens benefits from the effective performance of these police agencies.

Statement of the Problem

The modern challenges of police leadership are complex and varying, yet police executives are expected to meet public service demands (Bayley & Nixon, 2010; Batts et al., 2012; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Rosenbaum, 2010). Law enforcement leadership is aligned with general leadership theory (Campbell & Kodz, 2011), and police leadership competence has been identified as a key factor to successfully guide agencies through ever changing local, political, and global influences (Batts et al., 2012; Bayley & Nixon, 2010; Fitch, 2014; Ortmeier & Meese, 2010; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Rosenbaum, 2010). As a part of leadership theory, leadership development is recognized as foundational to the policing profession (Campbell & Kodz, 2011, Barath & Sherriff, 2011; Ortmeier & Meese, 2010).

Ortmeier and Meese (2010) identified leadership as critical to police performance but indicated it has received insufficient scholarly attention. Clarke (2012) noted limited literature regarding the available models to direct evaluation inquiries in the field of leadership development. Schafer (2009) pointed out a dearth in leadership research regarding the understanding of police leadership development (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver & Miller, 2014; Schafer, 2010; Yang, Yen & Chiang, 2012). Avolio, Avey, and Quisenberry (2010) stated further research is warranted on all aspects that measure the return of investment of leadership development programs. Hannum and Craig (2010)

recommended more thorough assessments of leadership development are needed to research the most efficient methods. The problem addressed was an understudied element of leadership theory or the phenomena of leadership development in a law enforcement context (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver & Miller, 2014; Schafer 2009, 2010, Yang et al., 2012). A greater understanding of leadership development has been identified as critical for recruitment, promotion, and future development of effectual police leaders (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver & Miller, 2014; Yang et al., 2012) and will add depth to the field of leadership theory.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study was to provide a better understanding of leadership theory by researching the aspect of leadership development in a law enforcement context by examining the perspectives of uniformed federal police executives concerning their leadership development (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver & Miller, 2014). The study examined data extrapolated from the participants' shared experiences of their leadership development and its influence on their executive law enforcement proficiencies. Mason (2010) suggested, for phenomenological studies, saturation was met with as little as five to as many 25 participants; therefore, five participants were selected from the nine largest federal police forces identified by the GAO (2012) report. Although these agencies are headquartered in Washington D.C., they have operations in various states. The author conducted standardized open-ended telephonic interviews of the participants. The selection of a specific group of law enforcement executives instead of a broad spectrum of state and local police agencies is consistent with a phenomenological design by obtaining a rich description of the meaning

of one specific phenomenon based on the participants' lived experiences (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2014; Moustakas, 1994).

Theoretical Framework

This study was examined within the framework of leadership theory specifically an understudied aspect of leadership theory, leadership development within a law enforcement context (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver & Miller, 2014; Schafer 2009, 2010, Yang et al., 2012). Police leadership research is contextually linked with and holds with the general trends of leadership theory (Campbell & Kodz, 2011). When examining the differing leadership theories, specifically are leaders born with inherent traits or are they developed through training, the general consensus is leaders are developed (Morreale, 2009; Shafer, 2009). Leadership training is a complex matter as there are various leadership styles and theories that exist. Dulewicz and Hawkins (2009), after a robust literature review, attempted to generalize leadership styles into three distinct groupings: engaging leadership, involving leadership, and goal-oriented leadership. However, Allio (2009), after examining many leadership books and discounting the marketing hype, distilled five important research hypotheses but admits that even those are endlessly debated.

A specific aspect of leadership theory, leadership development, has been identified as critical to an organization in enhancing organizational performance (Dalakoura, 2010; Houghton & DiLiello, 2010). Evidence suggested that training for development is beneficial for both individuals and teams (Arguinis & Kraiger, 2009). Leaders and organizations share a belief that leadership development is critical to the improvement and development of future leaders and the organizations that are led

(Riggio, 2008). Leaders at the lower levels of organizations are specialists that understand the processes, terms, and key functions of an organization (Northouse, 2012; Watkins, 2012). Leadership development at this level may consist of personal study by reading books authored by successful leaders or seeking out an unofficial mentor in a leadership position to gain informal input as to how to become a leader (Riggio, 2008). Individuals may develop leadership skills by learning from experience, self-introspection, and the incorporation these lessons learned into an enhanced leadership role (Allio, 2013). Organizations may identify individuals for higher level of responsibilities and provide a formalized leadership training intervention (Allio, 2009; Arguinis & Kraiger, 2009; Riggio, 2008). Formal interventions such as leadership training programs may consist of traditional classroom courses, management training, personal improvement, mentoring, and feedback assessments from peers, supervisors, and subordinates (McAlearney, 2010). Research has suggested a blended training method consisting of coaching and mentoring from supervisor and executive staff, in addition to classroom training, produces better results (Muffet-Willett & Kruse, 2008).

Nature of the Study

The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study was to provide a better understanding of leadership theory by researching the aspect of leadership development in a law enforcement context by examining the perspectives of uniformed federal police executives concerning their leadership development (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver & Miller, 2014). To accomplish the purpose of the research and to better analyze the lived experiences of the participants, a qualitative, phenomenological methodology was utilized (Miles et al., 2014; Moustakas, 1994; Patton, 2002). A case study methodology

was not selected for this research project. Case studies can be used to investigate specific programs or individuals in depth, which can encompass the program or individual's historical profile, documents, various reports, interviews, and observations of the program (Patton, 2002). Trochim and Donnelly (2008) noted case studies have no single method but that a combination of methods is most often utilized. Patton (2002) further noted case records combine large amounts of varying data into an organized compendium. The sample group of uniformed federal police executives was derived from diverse federal agencies (GOA, 2012). Participants attended varying leadership training either through interventions within their particular agencies or from other police leadership schools such as the FBINA, SPI, or NUCPS. This is in line with the general trend that police supervisor training in the United States is inconsistent and unsystematic (Cordner et al., 2011). No one training program can be identified for specific investigation or case as it would omit other valid police leadership training interventions and limit the size of the sample pool. The author lacked the resources to travel to a location to provide direct observation or collect and conduct an in depth analysis of historical records, statistical aspects of a program, agency, or individual.

Qualitative research seeks to gain a deeper understanding of human interactions with social issues and the meanings they ascribe to the experiences (Miles et al., 2014; Patton, 2002). Phenomenological inquiry focuses on an individual's descriptions and that person's lived experiences of a specific phenomenon to allow for analysis of the essence of that experience (Miles et al., 2014; Moustakas, 1994). A phenomenological design and its analytic method allows for a deeper understanding of the lived experiences of uniformed federal police agency leaders and their assigned meaning to their individual

leadership development interventions (Cozby, 2009; Morris & Crank, 2011) which was the focus of this study.

The goal of the research was to provide a better understanding of the individual uniformed federal police executive, that person's leadership development, and its influence on the individual's executive law enforcement proficiencies. Data was collected from a purposeful sampling of federal uniformed police commanders (Cozby, 2009; Trochim & Donnelly, 2008). A focused sample of federal police commanders was selected from the nine federal police forces identified by the GAO (2012) report. The author selected participants based on their specific expertise, current involvement in a leadership position, and their experience (Moustakas, 1994); therefore, taking all of these factors into consideration, the sample population consisted of a small group of five federal uniformed police supervisors. To provide thick and rich descriptions for a phenomenological study, the author conducted standardized open-ended interviews of the participants. The interviews provided detailed information on the main focus of the study; the participant's lived experiences with police leadership training (Patton, 2002; Turner, 2010).

Research Questions

The following research questions informed general leadership theory while also adding to and expanding an understudied element of leadership theory the phenomena of leadership development in a law enforcement context (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver & Miller, 2014; Schafer 2009, 2010, Yang et al., 2012). Qualitative research is effective when there is a need for deeper understanding of a phenomena and in creating theories or hypotheses (Patton, 2002). Previous studies have attempted to empirically study police

leadership by examining large sample pools with somewhat restrictive survey instruments (Campbell & Kodz, 2011). The intricacy of key leadership behaviors limits robust empirical evaluations (Schafer, 2010). Studies of police leadership using penetrating qualitative methods based on participant's lived experiences have been suggested (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver & Miller, 2014). These questions assisted in examining the focal perceptions of the lived experiences of uniformed federal police agency commanders by examining the phenomenon of their leadership development from varying perspectives (Miles et al., 2014; Moustakas, 1994; Patton, 2002).

RQ1: What contributions do leadership development training interventions provide to uniformed federal police executives in the development of their law enforcement leadership skills?

Research sub-questions:

1. What themes are identified from the participants' descriptions of their leadership development training experiences.
2. What assertions are made by participants to describe their leadership development experiences?
3. What contributions did their leadership development training provide to the participants' administrative law enforcement leadership skills?
4. What contributions did their leadership development training provide to the participants' operational law enforcement leadership skills?

Significance of the Study

The results of this qualitative phenomenological study could benefit the general field of leadership development and more specifically the field of law enforcement

leadership development. Leadership development has been identified as critical to an organization in enhancing organizational performance (Dalakoura, 2010; Houghton & DiLiello, 2010). Schafer (2009), in a seminal study on police leadership (Swid, 2014) noted an acute gap in leadership research regarding the understanding of law enforcement leadership development (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver & Miller, 2014; Schafer, 2009, 2010; Yang et al., 2012). Understanding of police leadership training could benefit police recruitment, promotion, and assist future development of effectual police leaders (Sarver & Miller, 2014; Yang et al., 2012). The findings of this study may offer insight on how to enhance leadership development thus better preparing current or future law enforcement executives.

Police leadership development literature was thoroughly reviewed for this research project. There have been previous studies that have used law enforcement executives as samples to examine their perceptions of varying areas of police leadership (Schafer 2009, 2010). The author noted a dearth of literature, however, which focused on the lived experiences of individual uniformed federal police executives and their perceptions of their leadership training. Administrators from the SPI, NUCPS, the FBINA, and the FLETC Leadership Institute Branch noted a lack of scholarly study that focused on the lived experiences of individual uniformed federal police executives and their perceptions of their leadership development (M. Harrigan, personal communication, October 10, 2014; E. Hobson, personal communication, September 2, 2014; R. Lucke, personal communication, October 9, 2014; C. Shain, personal communication, October 10, 2014).

The results of this research effort could benefit several areas of police leadership development. With no evidence of past research, which focused on the lived experiences of individual uniformed federal police executives and their leadership development, the findings will immediately provide insight into this gap regarding uniformed federal police leadership training. The study of a police leadership intervention will add depth to the understanding of police leadership training while simultaneously informing general leadership theory (Campbell & Kodz, 2011). Although the study was focused on the phenomenon of the lived experiences of uniformed federal police supervisors, the findings of this study also could serve as foundational to future police leadership development research efforts.

Definition of Key Terms

Federal police officer. Federal officers are sworn law enforcement officers whose primary mission is to maintain law and order and to protect life, property, and the civil rights of others in federal residential areas, parks, reservations, roads, and highways, commercial and industrial areas, military installations, and federally owned and leased office buildings (Office of Personnel Management [OPM], 1988).

Federal police supervisor. A federal police supervisor assigns officers to traffic control points, patrol areas, escort assignments, complaints received, long term investigations, and undercover work; defines objectives, priorities, and deadlines; and assists employee in unusual situations which do not have clear precedents (Office of Personnel Management [OPM], 1988).

Leadership. The Federal Law Enforcement Training Center uses two definitions to define leadership in their leadership curriculum (E. Hobson, personal communication,

September 2, 2014). These definitions were not developed by FLETC but were selected from two different sources in leadership field. The Federal Law Enforcement Training Center uses both Dr. Ken Blanchard's and the Leadership Challenge's definitions of leadership. Dr. Ken Blanchard defines leadership as working with people to accomplish their goals and the goals of the organization, and the Leadership Challenge defines leadership as the art of mobilizing others to want to struggle for shared aspirations (E. Hobson, personal communication, September 2, 2014).

Leadership development. Training that focuses on the development of leadership skills, efficiency, and identity (Klimoski & Amos, 2012). This training is career enhancing utilizing education, job specific training, and promotes the development of the student both personally and professionally (Ortmeier & Meese, 2010).

Management. Management is a method to control an organization and ensure the primary function of the business is carried out in a timely and orderly manner (Northouse, 2012). Managers differ from leaders in that leaders provide vision and inspiration while managers use rules, policies, and procedures to ensure staff completes the expected assignments (Covey, S.R., 2004; Leuser, D.M. 2009).

Summary

Modern law enforcement, in a constitutional republic, is challenged to provide effective service to the public in the face of complex issues that are as wide reaching as terrorism, immigration or natural disasters (Batts et al., 2012; Bayley & Nixon, 2010; Delattre, 2011; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Rosenbaum, 2010). Modern police executives must possess high levels of leadership proficiencies in order to navigate the complex issues facing law enforcement agencies (Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Batts et al.,

2012; Dean & Gottschalk, 2013). Understanding leadership development in a law enforcement context has been identified as a critical but limited area of research (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver & Miller, 2014; Schafer, 2009, 2010; Yang et al., 2012).

The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study was to provide a better understanding of leadership theory by researching the aspect of leadership development in a law enforcement context by examining the perspectives of uniformed federal police executives concerning their leadership development (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver & Miller, 2014). A goal of this study was to examine data extrapolated from the participants' shared perspectives of their leadership training and its perceived influence on their executive law enforcement proficiencies. This chapter assessed the necessity and the potential benefits of this research project, which examined the limited researched phenomenon of police leadership development.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study was to provide a better understanding of leadership theory by researching the aspect of leadership development in a law enforcement context by examining the perspectives of uniformed federal police executives concerning their leadership development (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver & Miller, 2014). The goal of the research is to provide a better understanding of the individual uniformed federal police executive, that person's leadership development and its influence on the individual's executive law enforcement proficiencies. The study of a police leadership intervention will add depth to the understanding of police leadership training while simultaneously informing general leadership theory (Campbell & Kodz, 2011). To better understand general leadership theory, law enforcement leadership, and the phenomena of leadership development training, a thorough examination and synthesis of the literature regarding these topics is presented.

The opening theme examines how leadership in policing is foundational to the profession where every officer is viewed as a leader by the public when arriving on scenes. Contemporary police leadership issues, that are relevant to guiding a police department, are then presented. General leadership themes are presented regarding defining leadership, leadership development, and leadership constructs and conflicts. Police leadership development and leadership styles are explored followed by a summary of the chapter.

Documentation

The Northcentral University Library's available scholarly databases were utilized as well as the FBI Academy's Library resources. Scholarly peer reviewed journals and

articles were reviewed as well as articles, reports, and presentations from leading law enforcement professional groups and researchers. Key search terms used: (a) leadership, (b) leadership development, (c) management, (d) police leadership, (e) police leadership development, (f) law enforcement leadership, (g) law enforcement leadership development, (h) qualitative research, and (i) phenomenological research. The search strategy was to identify and acquire recent or seminal research work in order to provide breadth and depth to the known literature on the material. This allowed the author to conduct the study proficiently.

Every Police Officer a Leader

Police officers have been given, by the communities they serve, the ability to deny individuals their freedom (Jackson, Myers, & Cowper, 2010). Although the judicial system has the ability to deny individual freedom as well, it is a lengthy process based on strict procedures and the involvement of many legal professionals. Police officers possess the authority to immediately restrict a person's freedom based solely on the individual officer's belief that a crime has been or is being committed. They are the visible representatives of government 24 hours a day 365 days a year with the ability to arrest citizens (Jones, 2009). There is general agreement that when an officer responds to an emergent event, the officer is expected to become the leader and deal effectively with the issue (Stephens, 2010).

The law allows police officers discretion when enforcing the law and making arrests (Burke, 2013; Ortmeier & Meese, 2010;). Stopping an excessive speeding violator is a legally justifiable enforcement stop; a police officer may choose between issuing a citation, issuing a warning, or letting the individual depart with no action taken

(Tillyer & Klahm, 2011). An officer may decide to issue all male operators citations while only issuing warnings to all female operators. The officer has used his or her discretion within the law but failed to adhere to suggested professional ethical standards. The officer unfairly over enforced one and under enforced another (Dai, Frank, & Sun, 2011). Line officers, the lowest level of a police department, carry out the primary objectives of a police department. Unethical application of police authority could lead to the erosion of public trust as well as divert limited resources from life-saving programs to legal expenses incurred from the defense of the department or the payments of fines and restitution (Delattre, 2011; Ortmeier & Meese, 2010).

Leadership is recognized as critical at this lowest level and with the recent officer involved shootings in Ferguson, MO, South Charleston, SC, and the death of an individual in police custody in Baltimore, MD, the critical need to develop ethical leadership in recruits as well as senior officers is deemed essential (Ortmeier & Meese, 2010). Police officer recruit training programs are created to provide the new officer with the skills and abilities to successfully resolve issues they will confront in the performance of their official duties (Connolly, 2008). Law enforcement agencies seek to develop line officer situational awareness and foster the development of leadership in each individual (Jones, Moulton, & Reynolds, 2010). Recruit training programs may provide opportunities to develop positive leadership traits early in a police officer's career.

Research has suggested that police recruit training should encompass character building habits such as, “. . . courage, justice, temperance, and compassion” (Delattre, 2011, p.141). Ortmeier and Meese (2010) suggested interpersonal communication,

motivation, problem-solving, organizing, and actuation-implementation are critical police leadership competencies. Organizations such as the Ontario Police College have developed leadership training programs, based on the research of Edward Delattre, *Character and Cops*, with the assistance of the Police Integrity Commission of New South Wales, Australia and the Institute for Law Enforcement Administration's Center for Law Enforcement Ethics in Plano, Texas, with the intent on introducing leadership training to all levels of policing (Barath & Sherriff, 2011).

Contemporary Police Leadership

American police supervisors, operating in a constitutional republic, are faced with complex and ever changing challenges (Batts et al., 2012; Delattre, 2011). Leadership has been identified as a critical function for law enforcement leaders (Vito et al., 2014). Law enforcement in the United States is expansive with 889,212 law enforcement personnel nationwide in 2014 (FBI, 2015). Of this number 627,949 were sworn officers assisted by 271,263 civilian employees (FBI, 2015). Policing in general is challenging as the American structure is loosely coordinated with 18,000 different law enforcement agencies with distinct differences in jurisdictions, public expectations, and agency norms and values (Schafer, 2010). Despite the vast geographic locations and community differences, law enforcement agencies are faced with challenges that are common to all.

Areas of current change and concern include terrorism, immigration, politics, and public accountability (Batts et al., 2012; Bayley & Nixon, 2010; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Rosenbaum, 2010). Police agencies are being required to provide services outside the scope of law enforcement when budget cuts eliminate public service programs such as social or mental health care workers (Griffiths, Pollard, & Stamatakis,

2015). Recent media coverage of officer involved shootings, excessive use of force allegations, and the public perception of police bias have received headline billing (Jones, et al., 2010). Media analysis of emergent incidents, done when time is no longer a critical factor, causes distrust among line officers or an “us versus them” mentality (Marshall, 2010). In the aftermath of these incidents, a national discussion on racism, racial profiling, poverty, and the tensions in some communities between African-Americans and police have sparked anti-police protests (Riley, 2015).

Another growing trend is the increase of the non-traditional policing agencies (Buerger, 2010). Both private industry and police agencies will soon be contending with large recruiting and turnover issues (Konkler, 2010). Looming in the very near future, the hiring of new recruits and filling police supervisory positions will be greatly affected when the “Baby Boomer” generation begins to retire (Finnie, 2010). This event will place both non-traditional police agencies and traditional agencies in direct competition for qualified candidates. The current law enforcement atmosphere requires police supervisors to be both fluid and adaptive in order to be effective in this dynamic environment (Batts et al., 2012). These leaders are expected to provide stability, accountability, and guidance to maintain viable law enforcement agencies capable of providing effective services (Batts et al., 2012; Mastrofski et al., 2011). The hiring, training, and equipping of new officers will have a direct impact on agencies’ financial resources.

Financial issues. Policing administrators must negotiate problematic tasks such as managing organizations, personnel, and crime controlling efforts (Moriarty, 2009) while maintaining fiscal responsibility and meeting political expectations (Griffiths et al.,

2015). Funding a law enforcement agency utilizes a large percentage of a municipality's budget and the expenses continue to increase (Griffiths et al., 2015). Law enforcement executives must also contend with new developments in technology, new forms of criminal activity, and community outreach (Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013). All of these challenges must be met while negotiating ever rising policing expenditures (Gascon & Foglesong, 2010) at the same time police leaders are faced with reductions in budgets, essentially attempting to "do more with less" (Bayley & Nixon, 2010; Neyroud, 2011).

Economic downturns have directly impacted police managers who must decide what areas will have to be reduced due to lack of funding. The Police Executive Research Forum ([PERF], 2013) noted that 51% of police agencies are currently experiencing budget cuts and 40% of agencies are preparing for further budget cuts. Officer pay raises were suspended by 57% of police agencies and 55% reported cutbacks in training schedules (PERF, 2013). Recruiting of police officers has declined 15% and the size of recruit classes also has decreased 29% (PERF, 2013). Of more concern is the 44% drop in police services, either already implemented or planned and 17% of police agencies will be putting fewer officers on the street (PERF, 2013).

Immigration. The global and political implications of immigration enforcement are of concern for law enforcement executives. Illegal immigration and narco-terrorism crossing the Mexican border into the United States poses serious national security concerns (Haberfeld & Lieberman, 2012). Enforcement of the borders includes the vast expanses of the northern Canadian border and the 2000-mile southern border with Mexico (Haberfeld & Lieberman, 2012). Immigration enforcement has increased since the passage of the 1986 Immigration Reform and Control Act, 1993 Operation Hold the

Line, and 1994 Operation Gatekeeper (Amuedo-Dorantes & Pozo, 2014). The federal government since 2000 implemented Operation Streamline to enhance border enforcement by increasing penalties for those illegally crossing the border (Amuedo-Dorantes & Pozo, 2014). In addition, if an illegal alien is processed into a jail, the Secure Communities program protocol advises the Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE), which in turn, requests the jail facility to hold the subject so ICE agents can respond (MacDonald, 2015).

The federal government enacted the preceding immigration control efforts, but states have also enacted immigration control measures as well. The Arizona Immigration Law of 2010 is an example of state government omnibus immigration laws (OIL) (Amuedo-Dorantes & Pozo, 2014, Haberfeld & Lieberman, 2012). Alabama, Georgia, Indiana, South Carolina, and Utah also have enacted OIL's (Amuedo-Dorantes & Pozo, 2014). These laws for state and local policing include immigration enforcement, E-verification for employment, and public schools verifying student's immigration status (Amuedo-Dorantes & Pozo, 2014, Haberfeld & Lieberman, 2012).

Concerns have been raised regarding whether or not the states have the authority to enforce immigration laws. "The American Civil Liberties Union and the Mexican American Legal Defense and Educational have filed lawsuits to stop the Arizona law" (Haberfeld & Lieberman, 2012, p. 158). The Obama Administration also filed suit against the state of Arizona for enforcing immigration laws arguing these laws were only within the federal government's purview and the administration successfully obtained an injunction (Haberfeld & Lieberman, 2012; Mac Donald, 2015). The federal government argued the Arizona Immigration Law will divert resources needed to apprehend more

violent illegal immigrants to the pursuit of those who have no violent criminal history but just entered the country illegally (Haberfeld & Lieberman, 2012). City governments such as Los Angeles and New York City declined to assist the federal government with the secure Communities program (Mac Donald, 2015). Other cities followed suit, which resulted in the formation of sanctuary zones (Mac Donald, 2015).

The expense for law enforcement agencies to enforce immigration laws is significant. Policing, corrections, and the court system experience an increase in caseloads when immigration enforcement is actively carried out (Amuedo-Dorantes & Pozo, 2014). To enforce Arizona Immigration Bill 1070, the Arizona Peace Officer Standards and Training Board explained federal resources would be necessary to train 15,000 law enforcement officers in the proper implementation of the new law (Haberfeld & Lieberman, 2012). Mac Donald (2015) argued that to not enforce immigration laws by failing to deport illegal aliens arrested for misdemeanor offenses such as shoplifting, turn style jumping, graffiti, or drunk driving breaks down the sense of community thus encourages more criminal activity which would also increase caseloads in the criminal justice system.

Training. Training future leaders to navigate these issues is also hindered by a lack of resources. Funding for leadership training courses is difficult at best and sometimes is not sustainable for the long term (Stephens, 2010). Financial resources spent on crime fighting technologies, scientific advancements or administrative improvements are negated if there is not an equal investment in developing the personnel who are to apply them (Stelfox, 2011). Police executives may need to examine new avenues for resources by developing community support with the creation of partnerships

with non-government organizations (Buerger, 2010; PERF, 2013). Police executives must not only be proficient in managing police operations but must be capable financial resources managers as well.

Technological advances. Advances in technology and social media have at times advanced faster than law enforcement abilities to keep pace. Policing has experienced rapid advancements in areas such as communications, computers, genetics, and transportation (Ortmeier & Meese, 2010). As technology advances, police agencies are realizing the need to combine new complex technology with the modernization of enforcement tactics to stay current (Marshall, 2010). The expense for staying current with new crime fighting technology is also of concern.

Resources to purchase and put into operation new police technology have been limited (Custers, 2012). Agencies that are able to afford new technology may not know what products to purchase or how to properly deploy them. Custers and Vergouw (2015) noted primary areas of concern for law enforcement officers included legal issues for the application of new technology, lack of agency financial support, and an inadequate understanding of what technology is available to police agencies (Custers & Vergouw, 2015). Despite these concerns, law enforcement agencies are trying to address the influx of modern crime fighting equipment.

The 1990s saw the development and use of information technology to assist police departments in identifying areas where criminal activities were higher. Computer statistic policing or 'Compstat' tracks crime rates in jurisdictions allowing command officers to dedicate resources to high crime areas (Neyroud, 2011). To operate informational technology equipment, agencies are hiring personnel with technical

knowledge and specialized skills which could unintentionally create a problem for those supervisors who lack technological backgrounds and must provide leadership and guidance to those that do (Jones et al., 2010). Custer (2012) noted in regard to this, officers perceived agencies as deficient in providing direction and oversight in the use of technology.

The effectiveness of new technology is also a concern. The underlying theory with Compstat is the more effective deployment of law enforcement personnel will result in a significant reduction of criminal activity in a high crime area (Neyroud, 2011). Despite the adoption of technological crime fighting products, there is very little research, which provides an overall perspective on the affect technology has provided in crime stopping activities (Custer, 2012). In addition to effectiveness, there are concerns over the legality of new technology. Legal academics explained the use of new surveillance technologies is more intrusive than original law enforcement methods and a re-examination of the application of Fourth Amendment rights is in order (Haberfield & Lieberman, 2012).

Crisis leadership. Law enforcement's daily response to critical incidents is higher than any public emergency responders (Marshall, 2010). Modern police leaders must be knowledgeable in operational police functions as well as having competencies as an administrator and an understanding of global influences on the policing profession (Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Batts et al., 2012; Dean & Gottschalk, 2013). Successfully guiding officers through a critical incident requires different leadership skill sets than handling budgetary or staffing issues. Some leaders are "peacetime" leaders, other "wartime" leaders, and still others are able to do both (Schafer, 2010).

Law enforcement executives are expected to provide a robust response during critical incidents or natural disasters (Department of Homeland Security [DHS], 2003, 2007, 2008; Sjoberg et al., 2011). Police supervisors, who one minute are concerned with agency bureaucratic issues may find themselves, in a matter of minutes, an on scene incident commander for differing scenarios such as, the disarming of an improvised explosive device or active shooter situation. Crises of this magnitude are perceived as uncommon events demanding immediate resolutions while posing serious threats to survival (Bogler, Sarfaty, & Sheaffer, 2011). Police administrators, in a time when disasters involve wide geographic areas, varying environs, and often include large amounts of casualties, must be prepared for the inconceivable (Jordan, Koljatic, & Useem, 2011).

The terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001 (9/11), the natural disaster Hurricane Katrina in 2005, the active shooter incident in Sandy Hook, CT and the recent lone wolf attacks in San Bernardino, CA emphasized the need for effective police leadership during responses to critical incidents. The *National Strategy for Homeland Security* (2007) identified law enforcement as a critical instrument in securing the homeland as well as responding to and assisting with recovery efforts when incidents occur. When violent terrorist attacks occur within the continental United States, it is local law enforcement that is tasked with battling violent extremists. The *National Strategy for Homeland Security* (2007) further acknowledged that state and local responders will handle the majority of incidents with federal assistance only in situations where the incident is beyond state and local capabilities. Law enforcement supervisors must not only be cognizant of their roles in local responses but also their roles in a national response.

The federal government created the *National Response Framework* (2008), which is a best practices guide for a national response to critical incidents identifying roles and responsibilities for critical governmental and non-governmental organizations. Additionally, police executives must understand the span of control necessary to coordinating an effective response as identified in the *National Response Framework* (2008). Police leaders are also expected to have a working knowledge of the National Incident Management System (NIMS), which provides a system in which federal, state, and local public service agencies can effectively organize and coordinate response to critical incidents (Marshall, 2010). Law enforcement executives must be able to function in a collaborative network environment and the tasks of public managers, who are supposed to be leading positions in emergency management, gets tougher (Kapucu, Arslan, & Demiroz, 2010).

For those that hold formal police leadership positions, possessing a wide knowledge of emergency response plans and the personal leadership efficacy to implement these plans is a positive combination. Life-threatening events challenge police leaders and require an effective leadership skill set that can resolve critical incidents when the problem is more difficult than the norm and forces leaders to make decisions that are outside the common operational routines (Muffet-Willett & Kruse, 2008; Sjoberg et al., 2011). Some situations, those with positional authority may not be the best to resolve a critical incident. Certain incidents often require the best leader available and that may mean officers who do not hold the positional authority or title (Marshall, 2010).

Terrorism. The terror attacks of 9/11 became an immediate operational concern for law enforcement agencies. Research has indicated a paradigm shift in policing occurred after these attacks (Kim & de Guzman, 2012). Law Enforcement agencies preparations for a potential terrorist attack became a critical focus (Roberts, Roberts, & Liedka, 2012). Traditional policing is now operationalized in conjunction with terrorism response efforts.

Terrorism is a national concern and state and local law enforcement executives, in dealing with terrorism, are working with the federal government. Taylor and Russell (2012) noted the current structure of American law enforcement is not conducive for dealing with international influences. American policing was to be a reflection of local communities and to avoid a national coordination but scholars have expressed concern that law enforcement is now transitioning from local to national in structure (Kim & de Guzman, 2012). Police supervisors strive to maintain community-policing concerns with the new demands of policing in the post 9/11 era.

These police leaders are faced with assisting the federal government in deterring, detecting, and responding to terrorism. With the increased focus on counterterrorism, law enforcement is encouraged to participate in intelligence lead policing which is modeled on the military's intelligence collecting structure (Taylor & Russell, 2012). Homeland Security Strategies emphasize law enforcement arresting terrorists before they act and protecting critical targets from potential attack (Kim & de Guzman, 2012). Working in conjunction with the federal government has created a paradigm shift within policing from a local focus to a more national awareness (Kim & de Guzman, 2012; Taylor & Russell, 2012).

Law enforcement executives are faced with trying to maintain local enforcement strategies even with the competing demands for counterterrorism. Lack of financial resources may force police departments to choose between counterterrorism demands or daily law enforcement tasks (Roberts et al., 2012). With greater emphasis on Homeland Security concerns, Community Oriented Policing factors are slowly being reduced (Kim & de Guzman, 2012). American police agencies faced with these challenges must be adaptable to maintain a service balance.

Law enforcement agencies have proven a willingness to respond during heightened threat levels and critical incidents (Kim & de Guzman, 2012). Intelligence led policing has caused some civil rights concerns which challenge the militarization of the police (Taylor & Russell, 2012). To assist with deferring the costs associated with counterterrorism preparedness, police executives look to partnerships with non-governmental agencies, training, and equipment purchases as possible resources (Roberts et al., 2012). Despite being thrust into the unanticipated counterterrorism role, American law enforcement has proved its ability to adapt (Kim & de Guzman, 2012).

Leadership Defined

Defining leadership in universal terms has proven difficult. Bass (2008) noted in his seminal work on leadership there is no one agreed upon definition for leadership. Definitions focus on the leader as an individual, their performance, the outcomes of their actions, and the relationships between the leader and follower (Bass, 2008). Jarvis, Petee, and Huff-Corzine (2010) suggested that the many leadership personalities, constructs, and functions limit our abilities to accurately define leadership. Northouse (2012), in his scholastic effort on the subject of leadership, explained leadership is similar to the word

“love,” both have many different definitions but the meanings of these definitions to individuals are generally instinctively understood.

As a general definition, Dr. Ken Blanchard (2010) defined leadership as an exercise in influence of stakeholders to perform at their best to achieve a larger goal. Both Bass (2008) and Northouse (2012) agreed that influence is an aspect of what a leader does, but there are many different ways in which leadership is conceptualized. Leadership must be carried out in the context of a human interaction. As with any human relationship, leadership is a dynamic process subject to the interaction of the perceptions, interpersonal behaviors, and the attributions of the leader and stakeholders (Bass, 2008; Northouse, 2012). To facilitate a shared vision, a leader should develop a culture by providing motivation, direction and showing the value of the stakeholder’s efforts (Allio, 2013). In order for a leader influence stakeholder’s, the leader must be recognized by the followers to possess the power to lead.

Bases of leadership power. The power progression is an underlying and complicated element in societal interactions (Badshah, 2012). Leadership is the ability to exercise influence (Blanchard, 2010) and power is an influential dynamic in leadership relationships (Stogdill, 1981). French and Raven (1959) in their groundbreaking research identified five bases of power and influence: Reward, Coercive, Legitimate, Referent, and Expert Powers. Expert power begins with an individual demonstrating expert knowledge, skills, and abilities and is viewed positively by their peers (Bass, 2008; Northouse, 2012).

Positional or legitimate power is derived by an individual’s official position within an organization hierarchy, which provides them with a higher status than their

followers (Northouse, 2012; Ortmeier & Meese, 2010). The positional power dynamic consists of the leader's ability to mete out punishment or rewards which is also referred to as Coercive power and Reward power (Bass, 2008; Northouse, 2012; Ortmeier & Meese, 2010). Referent power exists when a charismatic leader inspires followers to identify with them (Stogdill, 1981; Bass, 2008).

Power bases, as defined, explain definitive separations between each. A limitation to the French and Raven model concerns the intermingling of the power bases or, in other words; there are periods when the lines are unclear between the concepts and they are at times interwoven (Bass, 2008). Understanding the power base for a leader then leads to what role the leader fulfills that of task oriented administrator, provider of overall direction, or a combination of both. Lower level supervisors in organizations may find their roles interrelating.

Management vs. leadership. Managers, by the positions they hold within an organization, are at times identified as leaders, but there are differences between the two. Management is a method to control an organization and ensure the primary function of the business is carried out in a timely and orderly manner (Northouse, 2012). Leaders create strategy while managers execute the tactics to carry out the strategy, both are needed but strategy is what is necessary to win (Schafer, 2010). Managers differ from leaders in that leaders provide vision and inspiration while managers use rules, policies, and procedures to ensure staff completes the expected assignments (Covey, S.R., 2004; Leuser, D.M. 2009). They focus on the short-term goals, analyze, categorize, and then operationalize plans to ensure the bottom lines of an organization are met (Ortmeier & Meese, 2010).

Few individuals find themselves in a position to make final strategy decisions to guide an organization. More individuals occupy mid-level management positions, which may require the fulfillment of both roles. Managers at this level must be able to lead, and conversely leaders should possess the ability to manage (Allio, 2013; Raisiene', 2014). It is important to note, leaders may appear anywhere or at any time within an organization (Allio, 2013).

Managers who make the transition to leadership roles must change their mindset from expert of specific task knowledge to that of a strategist (Watkins, 2012). They must understand how critical parts of an organization work together and the effect changing a component may have on other internal entities (Watkins, 2012). Once an individual is identified for a higher position, organizations are faced with the challenge of providing a mechanism to ensure managers are provided with the knowledge, skills, and abilities to function effectively as leaders. Leadership development interventions offer curriculum, which may enhance participants' leadership skill sets.

Leadership Development

Leadership development has been identified as critical to an organization in enhancing organizational performance (Allio, 2013; Dalakoura, 2010; Houghton & DiLiello, 2010). Evidence suggested that training for development is beneficial for both individuals and teams (Arguinis & Kraiger, 2009). Leaders and organizations share a belief that leadership development is critical to the improvement and development of future leaders and the organizations that are lead (Riggio, 2008). Day, Harrison, and Halpin (2009) noted there are many leadership theories or best practices for training leaders but there is no all-inclusive theory for leadership development. Though there is a

general agreement that leadership development is critical, there are various leadership styles and theories that exist.

Scholars in the 20th century examined the trait theory of leadership or the “great man” theory (Northouse, 2012). Leaders of renown were studied to discover if individuals were born with traits, characteristics, psychological presuppositions, and if those combinations affected circumstances that influenced others to follow a leader’s guidance (Ortmeier & Meese, 2010). Trait theory focuses on the combination of an individual’s traits, personality, and circumstances as the main pillars that create leaders (Northouse, 2012). A limitation of this theory is its failure to consider a person’s ability to learn and apply learned leadership skills (Ortmeier & Meese, 2010).

When examining the differing theories for leadership development, specifically are leaders born with inherent traits or are they developed through training, the general consensus is leaders are developed (Morreale, 2009; Shafer, 2009). It is recognized that leadership development improves personal effectiveness, interpersonal relationships, and strengthens an organization’s personnel social system (Roberts, 2015). As previously mentioned, no one specific effective leadership development intervention has been identified (Davis, 2014; Day, Harrison, & Halpin, 2009). Some arguments assert that leadership cannot be taught in the traditional sense and is better delivered through engagement with others in retreat settings (Davis, 2014).

Other arguments articulate that experience not the classroom is a more effective method of leadership development (Kempster & Parry, 2014; Northouse, 2012). The observation of significant persons modeling leadership behaviors is believed to be more important than course work as a leadership intervention (Kempster & Parry, 2014). An

individual's cognitive leadership ability is refined through career experiences, which enhances leadership skill sets in problem solving, social judgment, and professional knowledge (Allio, 2013; Northouse, 2012). These self-examining experiences may be the foundation for future leadership behaviors.

Leading self. Leaders, before leading others, begin with an introspective dynamic. At a foundational level, leadership development begins with the individual leading self, improving self-concept, and then moving focus from self-leadership to leading others (Ross, 2014). Furtner, Rauthmann, and Sachse (2010) explained self-leadership as having three distinct elements first: behavioral stratagems to include setting self-goals, self-discipline, and self-reflection; second: inherent motivation; and last: positive thinking such as visualization of goal attainment, positive inner communication, and consideration of self-value system. Self-leadership behavior traits also are aligned with certain personality profiles.

Personality is found to be a factor within the self-leadership construct. Furtner and Rauthmann (2010) noted participants in a personality assessment who scored high in self-leadership were categorized as being: “. . . open-minded, intellectual, creative, energetic, dynamic, and controlled” (p. 350). They further noted these individuals persisted in the successful conclusion of long-term goals while still taking time for self-improvement. Research also has suggested self-leaders control their inner thought and behavioral processes, are socioemotionally aware during interpersonal interactions, but do not show an equal discipline in regards to emotional control (Furtner et al., 2010). The self-leader uses self-improvement opportunities to develop intellect, creativity, and assist in achieving goals (Furtner & Rauthmann, 2010; Furtner et al., 2010).

Seeking to improve, the self-leader is aware of his or her individual abilities. Lucke and Furtner (2015), in a study of self-leadership in soldiers, noted self-leaders had displayed a higher level of self-efficacy during a training intervention. They also noted a positive correlation between self-leaders and performance results during testing. In addition to these results, the research further suggested lower stress levels were experienced by those who practiced self-leadership (Lucke & Furtner, 2015). Self-leaders, having a high self-evaluation level, note areas where self-improvements could be made.

Identifying self-development strategies for improving self-influence is a foundational step before leading others (Furtner, Baldegger, & Rauthmann, 2013). Leadership development at this level may consist of personal study by reading books authored by successful leaders or seeking out an unofficial mentor in a leadership position to gain informal input as to how to become a leader (Riggio, 2008). Individuals may develop leadership skills by learning from experience, self-introspection, and the incorporation of these lessons learned into an enhanced leadership role (Allio, 2013).

Leaders at the lower levels of organizations are specialists that understand the processes, terms, and key functions of an organization (Northouse, 2012; Watkins, 2012). This is the level French and Raven (1959) referred to as expert power. These are individuals who understand organization processes and have expert knowledge in their professional skills and abilities and are viewed positively by their peers (Bass, 2008; Northouse, 2012). Organizations may identify these individuals for higher level of responsibilities and provide a formalized leadership training intervention (Allio, 2009; Arguinis & Kraiger, 2009; Riggio, 2008).

Leadership development process. Agencies, after identifying individuals who display a capacity for higher levels of responsibility, may consider training interventions to further develop the employee's skill set. Leadership development programs are created to strengthen organizations by improving functions and meeting organizational goals by developing and enhancing leadership abilities within individuals (Hotho & Dowling; 2010). Formal interventions such as leadership training programs may consist of traditional classroom courses, management training, personal improvement, mentoring, and feedback assessments from peers, supervisors, and subordinates (McAlearney, 2010). Participants in training interventions may be exposed to varying methods of instruction.

Self-leaders may have already identified development strategies which may include reading leadership or management books or have an unofficial mentor who has discussed various leadership aspects with the individual (Furtner et al., 2013; Riggio, 2008). The development of leadership also is recognized as a subcategory of the overarching personal development process (Ross, 2014). Leadership development encompasses the blending of many activities geared toward development while Leadership Education refers to the more conventional academic coursework (Breytenbach & Hughes, 2014). Agencies may choose between several different leadership development-training mediums.

Leadership training interventions come in varying forms. Bass (2008) noted in his seminal study on leadership theory, leadership development delivered in a lecture format combined with discussion indicated positive results. Research has suggested a blended training method consisting of coaching and mentoring from supervisor and

executive staff, in addition to classroom training, produces enhanced results (Muffet-Willett & Kruse, 2008). As previously mentioned, some participants may have already established informal mentoring and coaching relationships.

After an individual has been selected for a formal position which gives him or her legitimate power (Northouse, 2012; Ortmeier & Meese, 2010), persons already in existing leadership positions may provide instruction to the new leader. Coaching involves feedback on how to improve performance when carrying out a specific task while mentoring is more general guidance regarding career path, professional networking, or the pursuit of educational goals (Bass, 2008). Coaching does allow the leader to develop the protégé' on job specific processes (Bass, 2008; Northouse, 2012), but a limitation with this method is the protégé's restricted decision making ability regarding how a goal is achieved in that final decisions are made by the coach (Northouse, 2012). During leadership development, participants may be exposed to several differing leadership styles.

Leadership Constructs

Situational theory. Leaders are often faced with varying scenarios that require the ability to employ different skill sets. Situational theory is a leadership model that emphasizes the leader's adaptability to bring different leadership styles to different situations (Ortmeier & Meese, 2010). Situational leadership possesses elements, which are both directive and supportive (Northouse, 2012). Operations are not always static in nature and this leadership frame work identifies leaders who can move fluidly from one situation to another.

The success of a situational leader lies in that individual's flexibility to utilize various leadership styles comfortably, correctly evaluate a situation, and implement the leadership construct that best influences followers (Mehta, 2012). Followership is also a critical aspect within this framework. A situational leader may employ vary skills to influence followers in differing circumstances but some followers have been identified to respond better to this leadership construct. A key aspect of situational leadership is the maturity level of the followers (Burrell, Abdul-Malik, Rahim, Huff, & Finklea, 2010).

Followers with low maturity levels will require more guidance while those with higher maturity may share in decision-making and can operate with little oversight (Burrell et al., 2010). Followers with that require more attention from the leader may detract from the leader's ability to negotiate other concerns. Leaders must identify followers who require more assistance to accomplish organizational goals. Members with limited ability will receive directive leadership, those with ability but lack confidence will receive a blend of directive and supportive leadership, and those with high levels of ability receive minimal guidance but receive the support of the leader (Ortmeier & Meese, 2010).

Although the leader may have to give more of his or her time to less mature members, others with better skill sets may keep moving forward thus assisting the leader and the group in accomplishing the overall goal. This framk allows both leaders and followers flexibility when confronted with difficult situations. As with most leadership constructs, situational leadership has been identified for its strengths and weaknesses. A positive aspect of the situational leadership model is in its ease of application (Ortmeier & Meese, 2010). Weaknesses of this construct also have been identified. Although there

are criticisms of the theory, there has not been an unequivocal rejection of its utility and its significance (Mehta, 2012).

Transformational leadership. This leadership construct identifies leaders who embody an organization's values and provides positive influences on the organization culture. The transformational leader's authority is grounded in the values, objectives, and ideals of the organization (Ortmeier & Meese, 2010). This framework differs from situational leadership as the transformational leader focuses on the internal organization as whole and not individual scenarios (Ortmeier & Meese, 2010). The transformational leader is concerned with member alignment with an organization's belief system.

In order to gain acceptance of organizational values by members, leaders are follower focused. The transformational leader clearly establishes the values and norms of the organization and encourages followers to put aside their interests and contribute to the goals of the organization (Northouse, 2012). Once the values and norms are established, the transformational leader models those norms in his or her interactions with members (Ortmeier & Meese, 2010). Transformational leaders should ensure that organization's value systems are in alignment with the organization's policies and procedures.

If an organization's policies or values are in conflict creating a negative influence on the culture, a transformational leader may implement change. The transformational leadership construct involves leaders reforming existing organizational practices being mindful of individual's emotions and values and encouraging members to be involved with essential parts of an organization (Muffet-Willett & Kruse, 2008). The transformational leader may challenge the norm by attempting new processes while

taking full advantage of opportunities (Badshah, 2012). This leadership construct places emphasis on the leader using positive influence to attain worthy organizational goals.

Possible limitations for this construct have been suggested. Criticism of transformational theory involves the leader's potential abuse of application by directing followers to pursue false goals (Ortmeier & Meese, 2010). Another criticism regards transformational leadership being treated as a personality trait, which then negates the ability to instruct others in this theory as changing traits is difficult (Northouse, 2012). A transformational leader should already possess positive personal morals and value system in order to counter negative influences and the potential for abuse if left unchecked.

Authentic leadership. A positive transformational leader bears some similarities to the authentic leadership construct. Authentic leaders are self-aware, do not mimic others, are enthusiastic, adhere to their values, are seen as leading from their hearts along with intellect, and do not shy away from personal risk (Hsieh & Wang, 2015). They are keenly self-aware of their personal guiding principles and inspirations, possess high self-esteem and are open and honest in communication which creates a perception of transparency (Alok, 2014). These leaders seek mastery of self and are confident in their abilities.

Authentic leaders strive for self-efficacy. They exercise personal initiative and work towards self-development, recognizing their shortcomings, but continuously seek mastery over both their personal and professional lives (Alok, 2014; Yasinski, 2014). Authentic leaders also seek to find information to benefit everyone and exercise rigorous control of self in line with their internalized values (Alok, 2014). They want to share

information to help develop members resembles the transformational leader's inclusiveness of followers.

Authentic leaders are similar to transformational leaders as they incorporate organizational values in their circle of influence. These leaders possess vision, are responsible to their organization, and are inspiring and motivational when influencing followers (Nichols & Erakovich, 2013). Modeling self-discipline and espousing organizational values again, is similar to the transformational leader. The authentic leadership construct possesses a key element between the leader and follower that differs from the transformational leader.

Trust, in general terms, has been identified as an important element in successful business relationships. Covey and Merrill (2008) when defining trust explained that if an individual trusts someone, they have confidence in their capabilities and their honesty. In order for members to perceive a leader as authentic, trust in the leader is the critical factor as it binds the organization and function together (Hsieh & Wang, 2015). The trust placed in the authentic leader assists with key areas of difficulties within an organization.

The authentic leadership construct has been suggested as a potentially key leadership trait to address diversity in the work place due in part to the framework of positive ethical traits and the fostering of follower inclusion in organizational goals (Boekhorst, 2015). A body of research has shown a positive correlation between this construct and a wide range of critical business factors such as organizational climate, communication, job-satisfaction, and overall company function and efficiency (Fusco, O'Riordan, & Palmer, 2015). The trust, self-efficacy, and the inspiration of the authentic leader is based on the perceived high level of integrity of the leader.

Accurately identifying an authentic leader is difficult. A limitation with this construct is the varying definitions where authentic leadership has been defined as awareness of self or still other definitions suggesting it is a construct based solely on high morality all of which has led to perplexity in the research literature (Peus, Wesche, Streicher, Braun, & Frey, 2012). Authentic leadership's effect on organizations is also not fully understood. Further research has been suggested to clarify this leadership construct and its influence relative to organizational success (Nichols & Erakovich, 2013).

Leader member exchange. Situational, transformational, and authentic leadership constructs have displayed the importance of leader and member relationships. Leader member exchange theory examines both the leader and follower interactions (Northouse, 2012). This construct posits that leaders develop varying dyadic interactions with team members with some members receiving higher-level exchanges with the leader while others experience less interaction (Othman, Ee, & Shi, 2010). This type of interaction is similar to the situational leader construct where mature members were provided limited guidance while less mature members required more of the leader's attention (Burrell et al., 2010). Despite the similarities, the exchange between the leader and the maturity level of the follower is different in the leader member exchange construct.

Situational, transformational, and authentic leaders seek to motivate all members to accomplish organizational goals. Leaders in this construct, through a period of interactions, will establish roles for subordinates in the context of the formal organization creating two separate but clear sub factions (Badshah, 2012). Unlike the inclusiveness of

the previous leadership constructs, leaders form closer ties only to a few key members (Bass, 2008) who demonstrate higher group commitment and increase their responsibilities above what is expected becoming what has been defined as the in-group (Ortmeier & Meese, 2010). Leaders in this construct focus more on those vested in the organization.

Some benefits to both leader and member with this construct have been posited. The in-group is allowed to operate with more autonomy, participate in decisions making, receive more information, and given more support and respect for their thoughts (Badshah, 2012). Leader member exchange fosters both professional development and personal growth with in-group members and allows them to align their personal values and goals with that of the organization (Jha & Jha, 2013). Though the in-group can be seen as positively affected, the out-group is inversely so.

Limitations for this construct arise from the negative views that can manifest in the out-group when feelings of favoritism, wrong assessment of out group abilities, or perceived unfair treatment create group dysfunction (Othman et al., 2010). The out-group receives a lower quality relationship with the leader performing only official professional responsibilities (Sheer, 2015). They also receive limited information and little in the way of decision-making ability and independence (Wharton, Brunetto & Shacklock, 2011). In addition, out-groups received lower performance evaluations and dealt with significant difficulties with leaders (Badshah, 2012).

Recent research suggested that leaders should seek to develop high quality interactions with all followers (Northouse, 2012). This suggested improvement with member interactions would appear to be in line with the inclusiveness of the previous

leadership constructs. Limitations exist in a lack of an exact definition and varying operationalizations examined in multiple empirical research efforts have resulted in confused meanings and different constructs (Sheer, 2015). Much like authentic leadership, accurately identifying what constitutes leader member exchange is difficult.

Followership theory. Very few research efforts have examined inherent followership theories (Junker & Dick, 2014). Followers differ in how they want their leaders to perform and on what influences or motivates them to maximize performance (Schafer, 2010). There is scientific evidence that demonstrates the reciprocal impact of the combined results of the leader and subordinate knowledge and compatibility along with the leader's style and the subordinate's character and incentive and their shared focus for completing a task (Bass, 2008). Followership focuses on the role of the followers within the leadership dynamic (Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe, & Carsten, 2013).

The subordinate supervisor relationship is not the only aspect of this particular construct. The follower theory consists of follower performance and loyalty to the organization (Junker & Dick, 2014). A limitation with the theory is the unclearly defined theoretical constructs which includes follower role, behaviors, and outcomes in regards to the leadership method (Uhl-Bien et al., 2013). This is similar to leader member exchange in that operationalizations under different styles require further research (Sheer, 2015).

Theoretical Conflict

Theory vs. application. Understanding formative methods of leadership development and its operational application is critical (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). There are limitations or separations between theory and application and also misunderstandings and differing perceptions between academics and those in the field

persist (Price, 2011). Practitioners believe that academics are too far removed from the reality of the issue while conversely academics tend to take time with their analyses while practitioners expect fast and simple results (Price, 2011). Unlike popular leadership literature, scholastic works on leadership are often posted in obscure journals only known by academics and are not readily available to practitioners in the field (Price, 2011).

Practitioners have suggested that academics lag behind real world operations (Tracy & Knight, 2008). This may be overcome by faculty attending training on current concepts, doing fieldwork by observing real world operations and bringing those real world scenarios to the classroom (Tracy & Knight, 2008). Textbooks have been identified as being deficient in that publishers are either not publishing books with current management trends or are not seeking out authors who could provide valuable insight to students (Tracy & Knight, 2008). Teachers emphasizing to students an appreciation for scholastic approaches to management principles should provide students a solid foundation allowing them to utilize this knowledge as professionals (Burke & Rau, 2010).

Practitioners could include academics in corporate training courses, invite them to be trainers, or include them as company advisors (Tracy & Knight, 2008). In contrast, it has been suggested that researchers invested in solving practitioner issues could lose their scholastic objectivity (Bansal, Bertels, Ewart, MacConnachie, & O'Brien, 2012). Researchers should immerse themselves in operational environments but others should remain outside the theory and practice gap (Bansal et al., 2012). Despite these differences, the focus remains, how to provide effectual leadership training.

Leadership development effectiveness. Leadership is greatly valued, but despite the amount of literature on the subject, it is difficult for both practitioners and academics alike to fully understand (Northouse, 2012). Few studies have examined the personal change a participant experiences after a leadership training intervention and the effect this change has on an organization (Black & Earnest, 2009). There is a dearth of evidence that suggests individuals have actually learned, implemented, and positively influenced an organization after attending a leadership development program (Hotho & Dowling, 2010). The effect of a leadership training intervention on an individual is not the only aspect that is unclear.

Uncertainty also exists between the effect of a recent leadership training participant and its influence on the individuals they lead. After an executive has attended a leadership training intervention, the subsequent effects on subordinates is not greatly understood (Avolio et al., 2010). Difficulties exist in collecting empirical leadership evaluation data from subordinates. Followers' lack of understanding of what leadership is, the tasks the leader have been assigned, and their personal perceptions of the supervisor can adversely affect the validity of survey mechanisms meant to measure leadership (Jarvis et al., 2010). In addition to the uncertainty of leadership training on the participant or the participant's effect on those he or she lead, measuring the overall effect of leadership training to the improvement of agency performance is also problematic.

Organizations seek to enhance company performance by the development of leadership skills in their supervisors. Corporate determination of the success of leadership training is difficult in that short-term results are unreliable metrics as are the increases in stakeholder value being a long-term measure of performance, improvements

in revenue, or earnings per share, or stakeholder value (Allio, 2009). Still, leadership is considered critical in the success of an organization (Bass, 2008). The development of leaders within organizations for the overarching purpose of enhancing organizational performance is also critical (Allio, 2013; Dalakoura, 2010; Houghton & DiLiello, 2010).

Police Leadership Development

Law enforcement agencies depend on leaders to administer and guide departments effectively (Batts et al., 2012; Mastrofski et al., 2011). The failures of police leadership result in calamity, outrage, and dishonor (Jackson et al., 2010). This is evident in the poor leadership decisions of the Washington D.C. Metropolitan Police Department of the late 1980s and early 1990s; the Pittsburgh Police Bureau of the mid 1990s, and the Los Angeles Police Department Rampart Division of the late 1990s (Finnie, 2010). Agency effectiveness depends on leaders acting within a traditional tiered management structure and providing a sense of purpose influencing employees and critical agency missions (DeChurch, Hiller, Murase, Doty, & Salas, 2010; Wiseman, 2011). Police leadership development has been an ongoing and continuous process.

Starting early in the 20th century several seminal studies on policing were published with a critical look at police leadership. As early as 1917, it was noted by police reformers that law enforcement officers required specialized training (Vollmer & Schneider, 1917). Vollmer (1932) further focused on the critical need for police executives to receive proper leadership training. The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (1967) noted a general lack of proper police administration and recommended every state look to improve police organization and management. Since the 1980s, police leadership has evolved with new experimentation,

increased accountability, and an increase in community relations (Ortmeier & Meese, 2010).

Defining police leadership. Leadership in a policing context possesses some differences than that of a traditional business setting. What makes a successful leader in a corporate environment may not translate to a successful police leader (Jarvis, et al., 2010). Modern police leaders must be knowledgeable in operational police functions as well as having competencies as an administrator (Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Batts et al., 2012; Dean & Gottschalk, 2013). Defining leadership in a policing context is also complex.

Defining leadership in a law enforcement framework is consistent with general leadership theory as there is no one agreed upon definition. The Federal Law Enforcement Training Center uses two definitions to define leadership in their leadership curriculum (E. Hobson, personal communication, September 2, 2014). These definitions were not developed by FLETC but were selected from two different sources in leadership field. The Federal Law Enforcement Training Center uses both Dr. Ken Blanchard's and the Leadership Challenge's definitions of leadership. Dr. Ken Blanchard defined leadership as working with people to accomplish their goals and the goals of the organization, and the Leadership Challenge defines leadership as the art of mobilizing others to want to struggle for shared aspirations (E. Hobson, personal communication, September 2, 2014). Defining leadership in a policing operationalization context is also consistent with the difficulties of defining leadership operationalization within general leadership theory (Bass, 2008; Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Jarvis, et al., 2010; Northouse, 2012). A universal definition or "model" for police leadership may not exist and it might

be filtered down to simply what leadership model works for a given agency (Jones et al., 2010). In addition to the lack of a definable model of police leadership, Marshall (2010) also noted that there is no universally accepted best leadership style. Police leadership presents a unique variance within the general leadership theory.

Police leadership maintains context with its origins with general leadership theory (Campbell & Kodz, 2011). Leadership is greatly valued but, despite the amount of literature on the subject, it is difficult for both practitioners and academics alike to fully understand (Northouse, 2012). Black and Earnest (2009) noted in general leadership theory, that few studies have examined the personal change a participant experiences after a leadership training intervention and the effect this change has on an organization. Yang et al. (2012) and Sarver and Miller (2014) suggested that further research into benefits of police leadership efficacy is warranted.

Empirical research into police leadership has proven difficult (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Schafer, 2010). Campbell and Kodz (2011) noted leadership in general is a complex topic and the intricacy of key leadership behaviors limits robust empirical evaluations (Schafer, 2010). Campbell and Kodz (2011) conducted an extensive literature review and identified 23 studies regarding what makes a great police leader. They concluded that empirical studies of police leadership were limited in their results.

Campbell and Kodz (2011) further noted the research had restricted or disregarded context, used sample groups that were too large and utilized survey instruments, although well developed, were limited in scope. They recommended more context specific, qualitative methods, which focused on realist or direct observations (Campbell & Kodz, 2011). Jarvis et al. (2010) noted limitations researchers face when

attempting to measure leadership success. Followers will evaluate the leader through the filter of their personal perceptions, which could adversely impact the validity of evaluations (Jarvis, et al., 2010).

Police leadership development. Schafer (2009) noted that although the criticality of leadership is recognized, few law enforcement agencies make formal efforts to develop leadership skills and those participants who are exposed to development programs have difficulty applying new ideas. Although extensive literature exists regarding leadership development in corporate or military contexts, law enforcement leadership development is incomplete (Youngs, 2010). Consistent with general police training trends, police supervisor training in the United States is inconsistent and unsystematic (Cordner et al., 2011). States differ on requirements for police leadership development, with courses unique to each locale or state and the length of training can last a minimum of a few days to a few weeks (The Police Chief, 2009).

In addition, keeping with general leadership theory, police leadership development is consistent with the perceived gap between scholars and practitioners (Marshall, 2010; Price, 2011). There are, however, law enforcement leadership development programs that have attempted to standardize police leadership training. Three independent police executive schools are nationally recognized for their leadership training and successful completion of one is considered by some agencies a prerequisite for command position candidates (Discover Policing, 2014). These schools seek to enhance the leadership skills of mid-level to executive management police leaders.

The Southern Police Institute is supported by University of Louisville with the Command Officers Development Course being the main police leadership development

offering (SPI, 2014). The Southern Police Institute was created in 1951 and is part of the Louisville University Department of Justice Administration (Vito & Vito, 2012). The course is a 12-week program intended to enrich the professional development of mid-level police managers, from around the country, by providing advanced management training with college accredited course work (Vito & Vito, 2012). Northwestern University also founded another school for police leadership training.

Northwestern University's Center for Public Safety, originally named the Traffic Safety Institute, was created in 1936 to address traffic accident prevention (NUCPS, 2014). The Center for Public Safety offers the School of Police Staff and Command as its premiere leadership course (NUCPS, 2014). The School of Police Staff and Command was created in 1983 to blend scholarly leadership philosophies with operational functions (NUCPS, 2014). Another highly regarded police leadership school was not founded by a university but by the federal government.

The FBI National Academy (FBINA), which is not directly supported by an academic institution, has partnered with the University of Virginia (UVA) to provide graduating FBINA students 17 hours of either undergraduate or graduate criminal justice education credits (UVA, 2014). These three programs offer challenging academic courses to assist mid-level managers develop their practical and administrative skills for upper level command positions (FBINA, 2014; NUCPS, 2014; SPI, 2014). All require the student to attend 10 weeks of training away from their homes and professional responsibilities to focus strictly on the curriculum (FBINA, 2014; NUCPS, 2014; SPI, 2014).

Law enforcement executives also have explored military leadership development training and its applicability to policing. Hutchinson (2013) noted the military is a primary example of a goal-oriented association, which is comparable with other organizational cultures. Keeping with general leadership theory, the U.S. Air Force stated that leadership development cannot be based on education alone, but should be done in conjunction with realistic training, mentoring, and lessons learned from past actions and decisions (Newcomer, Kolberg, & Corey, 2014). Police agencies, being paramilitary in structure, possess some similarities with the military.

Police agencies have sent executives to various military leadership institutions for training. Dr. Jeff Lindsey, FBI Unit Chief, retired, attended the U.S. Marine Corps Command and Staff College as part of the FBI's on going Sabbatical Program (J. Lindsey, personal communication, January 17, 2016). In 1993, West Point's Department of Behavioral Sciences and Leadership partnered with 15 local law enforcement leaders (Devine, 2012). Devine (2012) noted these leaders not only attended the four week leadership course but learned how to apply West Point instruction to police agencies. The New Jersey State Association of Chiefs of Police instituted a leadership-training program based on the curriculum of West Point with more than 1,000 graduates from 4 states and 6 countries (Devine, 2012).

Police Leadership Styles

Discussions on the most effective leadership style are inconclusive. Wheaton (2015) noted police leadership is critical but there is no best practice for leading a police organization. Sarver and Miller (2014) suggested that understanding factors that have an effect on leadership style is important in order for future leaders to be effective in

motivating officers to accomplish agency goals and meet community expectations.

Campbell and Kodz (2011) noted that general leadership research has shifted from trait to behavior or leadership styles and police leadership follows this trend. While not all inclusive, a discussion of recently identified police leadership styles is warranted.

Transformational leadership. Transformational leadership theory has been developed since the 1980s (Campbell & Kodz, 2011). Masal (2015) noted that a transformational leader models, inspires, and intellectually stimulates officers who then share the leader's commitment to organizational goals creating a shared leadership dynamic with group members. This leadership type leverages their influence by maximizing their charisma and forward looking ideas (Vito et al., 2014) Los Angeles Police Chief William Bratton is an example of transformational leadership in policing (Wheatcroft, 2015). The innovative policing methods he espoused have been implemented widely (Neyroud, 2011). Chief Bratton's engaging personality, concern for the community he served, and his intellectual consideration for policing issues has inspired officers to think of new solutions to long existing problems (Wheatcroft, 2015). Campbell and Kodz' (2011) literature review noted studies have supported the notion that a mix of transformational and to a minor degree transactional leadership behaviors have been successful.

Transactional leadership. Transactional leaders operate from a formal positional power perspective (Vito et al., 2014). They typically use coercive powers to accomplish agency goals but do not seek to institute change in either the organization or followers (Sarver & Miller, 2014). Wheatcroft (2015) explained transactional leaders expect compliance from their followers by clearly establishing limits and clarifying

expectations. Followers have low input, are rarely empowered, the main contribution is their labor, and the followers' commitments come from bargained and agreed upon expectations with the leader (Swid, 2014; Vito et al., 2014). There is partial support that in the paramilitary structure of the police, transactional leadership positively influences officers of certain rank and varying positions (Campbell & Kodz, 2011).

Transformational/Transactional leadership. Vito et al. (2014) noted a lack of clarity between transformational and transactional leadership. In application, transformational and transactional styles, at times, are intertwined (Wheatcroft, 2015). Campbell and Kodz (2011) noted recent research supported a blended police leadership style as effective that was primarily transformational in nature but did possess an element of transactional style. Further research suggested a positive correlation between police leaders who operate from this blended styles perspective to the motivation of followers and the achievement of agency goals (Swid, 2014). The transformational style seeks to intellectually stimulate and inspire officers while the transactional style fits within the paramilitary police rank structure.

Shared leadership. The shared leadership construct is similar to followership theory, which focuses on the role of the followers within the leadership dynamic (Uhl-Bien et al., 2013). Shared leadership focuses on followers but differs from followership in that shared leadership lies outside formal leadership roles and focuses on teams within the group (Masal, 2014). Campbell and Kodz (2011), in their extensive literature review on police leadership, found two studies on this leadership construct. Although both studies had significant limitations, both suggested evidence which support shared leadership as an effective leadership style (Campbell & Kodz, 2011). The results

suggested that officers wanted inclusion in management decisions (Campbell & Kodz, 2011). Masal's (2015) recent research effort on shared leadership in policing suggested that a transformational leader positively influences the natural progression to effective shared leadership teams.

Emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence has been researched over the last 15 years (Campbell & Kodz, 2011). Campbell and Kodz (2011) explained evidence suggested a leader with high ability to control personal emotions and also understand, recognize, and manage the emotions of others resulted in a positive influence on leader effectiveness. Emotionally intelligent leaders are change agents, optimists, confident, and committed to achieving agency goals (Sarver & Miller, 2014). Research suggested a positive correlation between a police leader's effectiveness and his or her control and management of emotions, however; narcissistic leaders with an ability to manage emotions were viewed by subordinates as untrustworthy (Campbell & Kodz, 2011).

Summary

In closing, American police supervisors, are faced with complex and ever changing challenges (Batts et al., 2012; Delattre, 2011). Contemporary challenges include terrorism, immigration, politics and public accountability (Batts et al., 2012; Bayley & Nixon, 2010; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Rosenbaum, 2010). The Police Executive Research Forum (PERF, 2013) noted that 51% of police agencies are currently experiencing budget cuts. Police executives are facing reductions in budgets and are forced to essentially to "do more with less" (Bayley & Nixon, 2010; Neyroud, 2011).

Police leaders are faced with rapid technological advances and must keep pace with these ever changing modernizations (Marshall, 2010). Police officers desiring promotions are expected to display working knowledge of management, budgeting, human resources, organizing and scheduling but may not possess executive leadership skills (Heal, 2010). With the imminent retirement of the “Baby Boomer” generation, police agencies will have to promote officers who lack experience (Finnie, 2010) making police leadership development critical.

Leadership development is critical to an organization in enhancing organizational performance (Allio, 2013; Dalakoura, 2010; Houghton & DiLiello, 2010). The discussions on what constitutes effective police leadership development are inconclusive (Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Schafer, 2009). There are varying leadership constructs and it would benefit law enforcement agencies to develop these constructs at the officer and agency level (Jones et al., 2010). The development of self-leadership is part of the self-improvement model (Ross, 2014). The identification of officers who demonstrate self-leadership should be a priority as before leading others, individuals must be capable of leading self (Furtner et al., 2013). Weisburd and Neyroud (2011) proposed a blended training and educational approach, similar to the institutions discussed, which focuses on joint leadership development from external professionals. Law Enforcement agencies could increase immediate leadership experience by hiring individuals who have already attended leadership interventions or have previous leadership experience (Jarvis et al., 2010). Schafer (2009) noted in his study of the FBINA sessions of police executives that informal mentoring of leaders was more common than systematic training. The participants seemed to support a more blended method of police leadership development

by both mentoring and formal training (Schafer, 2009). Although further research into police leadership efficacy is warranted (Sarver & Miller, 2014; Yang et al., 2012) the complexities of the subject make empirical research difficult (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Schafer, 2010).

Chapter 3: Research Method

The modern challenges of police leadership are complex and varying, yet police executives are expected to meet public service demands (Bayley & Nixon, 2010; Batts et al., 2012; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Rosenbaum, 2010). Law enforcement leadership is aligned with general leadership theory (Campbell & Kodz, 2011) and police leadership competence has been identified as a key factor to successfully guide agencies through ever changing local, political, and global influences (Batts et al., 2012; Bayley & Nixon, 2010; Fitch, 2014; Ortmeier & Meese, 2010; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Rosenbaum, 2010). As a part of leadership theory, leadership development is recognized as foundational to the policing profession (Campbell & Kodz, 2011, Barath & Sherriff, 2011; Ortmeier & Meese, 2010).

Ortmeier and Meese (2010) identified leadership as critical to police performance, but noted it has received insufficient scholarly attention. Clarke (2012) noted limited literature regarding the available models to direct evaluation inquiries in the field of leadership development. Schafer (2009) noted a dearth in leadership research regarding the understanding of police leadership development (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver & Miller, 2014; Schafer, 2010; Yang et al., 2012). Avolio, Avey, and Quisenberry (2010) noted further research is warranted on all aspects that measure the return of investment of leadership development programs. Hannum and Craig (2010) recommended more thorough assessments of leadership development are needed to research the most efficient methods. The problem to be addressed is an understudied element of leadership theory or the phenomena of leadership development in a law enforcement context (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver & Miller, 2014; Schafer 2009, 2010, Yang et al., 2012). A greater

understanding of leadership development has been identified as critical for recruitment, promotion, and future development of effectual police leaders (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver & Miller, 2014; Yang et al., 2012) and will add depth to the field of leadership theory.

The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study was to provide a better understanding of leadership theory by researching the aspect of leadership development in a law enforcement context by examining the perspectives of uniformed federal police executives concerning their leadership development (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver & Miller, 2014). The study examined data extrapolated from the participants' shared experiences of their leadership development and its influence on their executive law enforcement proficiencies. Mason (2010) suggested, for phenomenological studies, saturation was met with as little as five to as many 25 participants; therefore, five participants were selected from the nine largest federal police forces identified by the GAO (2012) report. Although these agencies are headquartered in Washington D.C., they have operations in various states. The author conduct standardized open-ended telephonic interviews of the participants. The selection of a specific group of law enforcement executives instead of a broad spectrum of state and local police agencies is consistent with a phenomenological design by obtaining a rich description of the meaning of one specific phenomenon based on the participants' lived experiences (Miles et al., 2014; Moustakas, 1994).

Research Methods and Design

This research utilized a qualitative framework with a phenomenological method of study. Qualitative research seeks to gain a deeper understanding of human interactions with social issues and the meanings they ascribe to the experiences (Patton, 2002; Miles et al., 2014). Leadership, in the context of human interactions and social constructs, aligns with qualitative inquiry (Bryman, 2011). Phenomenological inquiry focuses on an individual's descriptions of their lived experiences of a specific phenomenon to allow for analysis of the essence of that experience (Miles et al., 2014; Moustakas, 1994). The main question this study sought to answer is what contributions leadership development provided to uniformed federal police executives in the development of their law enforcement leadership skills? A phenomenological design and its analysis method allowed for a deeper understanding of the lived experiences of uniformed federal police leaders and how they assigned meaning to their individual leadership development interventions (Morris & Crank, 2011; Moustakas, 1994).

Uniformed federal police agency executives and their leadership development training intervention's effect on their administrative and operational leadership skills was the focus of this research project. As a part of leadership theory, leadership development is recognized as foundational to the policing profession (Campbell & Kodz, 2011, Barath & Sherriff, 2011; Ortmeier & Meese, 2010). However, Schafer (2009) noted a dearth in leadership research regarding the understanding of police leadership development (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver & Miller, 2014; Schafer, 2010; Yang et al., 2012). A thorough review of extant literature was conducted. There have been previous studies that have used law enforcement executives as samples to examine their perceptions of

varying aspects of police leadership (Schafer 2009, 2010). However, no research was identified which focused on the lived experiences of participants of police leadership development training programs and their perceptions of the contributions of those interventions to both their administrative and operational law enforcement leadership skill sets. In addition, no literature was discovered focusing on the lived experiences and perspectives of uniformed federal police executives and their leadership development interventions.

The phenomenological approach was selected over other approaches as it focuses on understanding how participant behavior is influenced by situations (Babin, Carr, Griffin, & Zikmund, 2010; Moustakas, 1994) and strives to answer the meaning, structure and essence of the lived experiences of a group (Patton, 2002). Phenomenological studies are also viable when examining social research that may be complex and sensitive (Moustakas, 1994). Qualitative inquiry is preferred when examining leadership theory (Bryman, 2011). Qualitative research is also recommended for studies regarding law enforcement leadership (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Schafer, 2010).

Other qualitative methods of inquiry were considered but were insufficient to meet the goal of this research project. A case study was contemplated for this research project as they can be used to investigate specific programs or individuals in depth (Patton, 2002). Participants attended varying leadership training either through interventions within their particular agencies or from other police leadership schools such as the FBINA, SPI, or NUCPS. Because no one training program could be identified for specific investigation or case, as it would have omitted other valid police leadership training interventions, case study was deemed to be inappropriate. Ethnography was also

not selected, as it requires the researcher to immerse himself into the culture the researcher is studying (Babin et al., 2010). The group of uniformed federal police executives was from diverse federal agencies (GOA, 2012) which each agency offering different training courses to their officers. If the researcher immersed into one leadership development training intervention, he would have excluded other viable leadership training programs. The generation of new leadership theories is not the object of this study so grounded theory was also not selected as a method of inquiry (Patton, 2002; Moustakas, 1994).

Population

Police supervisor training in the United States is inconsistent and unsystematic (Cordner et al., 2011). States differ on requirements for police leadership development, with courses unique to each locale or state and last a minimum of a few days to a few weeks (The Police Chief, 2009). Uniformed federal police agencies, a subgroup of law enforcement, share similar concerns as their state and local law enforcement partners. These uniformed federal police agencies are under the command and jurisdiction of their separate parent government departments, and policies and regulations vary widely from locale to locale and facility to facility. The goal of the research was to provide a better understanding law enforcement leadership development by examining a subgroup of law enforcement executives. Examining uniformed federal police executives, their leadership development and its influence on their executive law enforcement proficiencies will help fill research gaps by gaining a deeper understanding of this under studied area of leadership theory. The Federal Law Enforcement Training Center provides training for 24 different uniformed federal police agencies. A sample population from all 24 federal

uniformed police supervisors was not practicable (Miles et al., 2014). The General Accounting Office selected nine specific uniformed federal police agencies for its research because these nine agencies represented the largest federal police forces with staffing levels of 50 or more, mission similarities and their proximity within the Washington, DC metropolitan area (GAO, 2012). The participants were identified to fulfill supervisory police officer functions as described by OPM (OPM, 1988).

Sample

Data was collected from a purposeful sampling of federal uniformed police commanders (Cozby, 2009; Patton, 2002). A more focused sample of uniformed federal police commanders was selected from the nine federal police forces identified by the GAO (2012) report. The author selected participants based on their specific expertise, current involvement in a leadership position, and their experience (Moustakas, 1994); therefore, taking all of these factors into consideration, the sample population consisted of a small group of five federal uniformed police supervisors. Data saturation varies depending on methodology frameworks (Fusch & Ness, 2015). Mason (2010) suggested, in a literature review of sample sizes and saturation for qualitative research, after analyzing identified phenomenological studies, saturation was met with as little as five to as many 25 participants (Miles et al., 2014). Although Mason's (2010) research is useful in identifying the potential amount of participants, saturation was met when the researcher realized there was no new themes or new data being collected (Fusch & Ness, 2015; Shank, 2006).

This purposeful sample was homogeneous in that participants were selected to federal police leadership positions (Patton, 2002). The sample was, at the same time,

diverse as the participants serve in different agencies that are separate and unique, but share the same desired outcomes, the successful protection of federal employees and facilities (Patton, 2002). These leaders were able to answer the principal goal of the study, which was the phenomenon of their personal leadership development. Even though nonsupervisory officers may receive some police leadership training, they are not the focus of this research.

Materials/Instruments

A semi-structured, open-ended interview protocol (Appendix A) was used to provide thick and rich descriptions from uniformed federal police supervisors regarding their lived experiences of their development as a leader (Moustakas, 1994; Patton, 2002; Miles et al., 2014). The main interview questions pertaining to the research were developed and adapted from a validated instrument designed to measure the experiences and outcomes of a women's leadership development program (Brue & Brue, 2016). The author's 22 years of experience as a uniformed federal police officer and supervisor, in addition to his experience as a FBI National Academy graduate assisted with adapting the principal questions to a law enforcement context, which was the goal of this study. An interview protocol with expansive, open-ended questions gathered participant's lived experiences, which is the focus of this phenomenological study (Moustakas, 1994; Patton, 2002; Rowley, 2012). A standardized interview protocol ensured consistency in the interviews with participants. Last, the interview protocol also contained probing questions structured to elicit comprehensive responses of the participant's perceptions regarding their leadership development (Moustakas, 1994, Patton, 2002; Rowley, 2012).

Data Collection, Processing, and Analysis

Data collection. The author collected data by conducting telephonic interviews of the participants. There are discussions, which question the effectiveness of a telephonic interview. Generally, these concerns are regarding the lack of interviewer ability to personally observe body language or non-verbal responses (Novick, 2008). Advantages to the telephonic interview are nonexistent travel expenditures, flexibility for the participants, and a more expedient method to collect data (Cachia & Millward, 2011). Novick (2008) noted a dearth of supporting data on either the disadvantages or the advantages of a telephonic interview versus a “face-to-face” interview. Given the substantial geographic distance between the interviewer and the participants and the lack of evidence proving telephonic interviews as less than effective, the author concluded this method was appropriate.

The interviews provided detailed information on the main focus of the study, the participant’s lived experiences of their leadership development (Patton, 2002; Turner, 2010). Moustakas (1994) noted phenomenological interviews should possess an informal quality with a collaborative aspect between the participant and interviewer, which is achieved with open-ended questions. Turner (2010) noted open-ended questions, although identical for every participant, allow the participant to fully express their responses in detail. These questions will enable researchers to identify themes or codes from the transcripts (Turner, 2010; Miles et al., 2014). The interview protocol began with an introduction, some background information, and general informational questions to promote a relaxed and conducive environment where the participant felt comfortable to

answer questions openly (Moustaka, 1994). Examples were created to assist in clarifying any questions to ensure the participant fully understood what was being asked.

Processing. Participants were asked to engage in a telephonic interview, answering semi-structured interview questions, which were 15 to 20 minutes depending on the length of participant responses. Participants were encouraged to find a quiet location with minimal distractions while answering interview questions. All interviews were digitally recorded to ensure accuracy for analytical purposes. The recorded interviews were then transcribed verbatim for analysis.

Analysis. This qualitative phenomenological study examined the participants' experiences by obtaining detailed narratives, which described the crux of the experience (Moustakas, 1994). Miles, Huberman, and Saldana (2014) described three phases of qualitative analysis: data condensation, data display, and drawing and verifying conclusions. They explained that data condensation or coding is really data reduction by a different name. Patton (2002) explained transcripts are the unprocessed intricacy of reality and by coding one analyzes the core content of the data by categorizing, classifying, and labeling the many data patterns. Data display is the organizing of data to identify patterns, locate variables, and understand potential relationships (Shank, 2006). Moustakas (1994) noted data display facilitates in the development of textural and structural descriptions and the synthesis of these for meaning and structure. Last, drawing conclusions can only be done once the data collection is over and then verifying these conclusions for their conformability or validity (Miles et al., 2014; Shank, 2006).

Moustakas (1994) explained a process of analysis for a phenomenological framework, which he referred to as phenomenological reduction. Shank (2006)

suggested the largest risk to reliability in qualitative research is researcher bias. Patton (2002) noted epoche as the researcher's awareness of their personal bias based on their prior experience with the research subject and the conscience efforts and processes to reduce prior perceptions in order to gain clearness. Moustakas (1994) explained epoche as the initial step in phenomenological reduction or viewing phenomena as it appears, without predispositions or presumptions, clarifying the connections between the phenomena and person.

Horizontalization is the second step in the reduction process. Moustakas (1994) described horizons as the reflective consideration of an experience. Horizontalization consists of the treatment of these reflective statements regarding the phenomena in question as equal (Moustakas, 1994). The third step in the process is the clustering of the horizontal statements to find themes (Moustakas, 1994). Thematic analysis is the search for systematic patterns within the data (2006). The final step in the process is the construction of textual and structural descriptions of the experience from which the meaning and essence of the phenomenon are constructed (Moustakas, 1994).

The author selected Moustaka's modified Van Kaam model for analysis, which consists of seven steps. First, the author listed and grouped by transcribing all data collected during recorded interviews. Step two, some transcripts were reduced or eliminated by a critical review to identify whether the data captured the lived phenomena and if so, decided if it could be labeled. Those that could be labeled were included while those that couldn't or those that possessed overlapping or vague comments were eliminated (Moustakas, 1994). The remaining expressions were the invariant constituents. Step three, invariant constituents were clustered into themes. Step four, the

author examined the invariant constituents and themes and compared to each participant transcript. Transcripts not explicit or compatible were excluded (Moustakas, 1994).

Step five, the researcher developed the individual textual description by describing what the participating officer experienced using direct quotes from the transcripts to help understand what the officer experienced (Hathorn, Machtmes, & Tillman, 2009). Step six, an individual structural description was developed from the individual textual description (Moustakas, 1994) arriving at the “how” the experiences were formed (Hathorn et al., 2009). Last, step seven, was the merging of the textual and structural descriptions into a narrative explaining the “how” and the “what” for the participants based on the author’s understanding of the experience (Hathorn et al., 2009). This process allowed the researcher to interpret the participant’s responses and report the results in a meaningful way. Transcripts were analyzed manually and no computer software was utilized. All transcripts and records are stored in a safe at the author’s residence and will be destroyed after seven years. Quality of the study will be judged by credibility, dependability, and integrity.

Quantitative research is traditionally judged by internal validity while qualitative research uses credibility as a similar equivalent (Trochim & Donnelly, 2008). The study identified emergent themes from the data collected from a variety of informants. Credibility of the research methods utilized; soundness of the records provided and the repeatability of the study; and the integrity of the researcher’s position, experiences, and perceptions assisted in mitigating any potential bias and ensured the findings represented the phenomena being studied.

Qualitative credibility is closely associated with internal validity (Schram, 2006; Shank, 2006; Shenton, 2004). Brod, Tesler, and Christensen (2009) defined content validity in qualitative research as the measurement to ensure items provided are comprehensive and adequately reflect federal supervisor police officer's perspectives as the population of interest, provides evidence that responses are relevant, and measurements are understandable and acceptable to officers. The data will provide an accurate depiction of the current state of leadership training or the "truth" as perceived by supervisory federal police officials (Shank, 2006). As straightforward as that may sound, the truth itself is subject to discussion.

Truth in qualitative studies is dependent upon an individual's interpretation of the results. Patton (2002) noted that different perspectives about truth are comprised of the paradigms and worldviews based on alternative epistemologies and ontologies. The researchers and peers who review subsequent data, from the author's research, will interpret results filtered through their perspectives that have been built upon past experiences and opinions. The author's research attempted to mitigate validity issues.

Researchers must employ various techniques to ensure there is no bias and the data is interpreted as objectively as possible. Several methods were used to ensure the findings correctly represent the phenomenon being studied. The study provided thick rich descriptions of the uniformed federal police supervisor's perceptions of their leadership training (Cozby, 2009; Patton, 2002; Shenton, 2004). Member checking was used to allow verification of specific themes or descriptions by participants to ensure accuracy (Shenton, 2004). Participants were purposefully sampled (Cozby, 2009; Patton, 2002) from various federal police agencies spread out over a large geographic area

providing a wide and diversified group of informants. Based on this diversity of informants, triangulation also ensured credibility (Patton, 2002; Shenton, 2004). The author's background, experience, and knowledge of federal law enforcement also added to credibility (Shenton, 2004). Care was taken to ensure the author's familiarity with the phenomena did not influence the analysis and interpretation of the findings. In order to accomplish this, the author used reflexivity or self-questioning of his own perceptions about what he knows and how he knows it and its influence on the research (Shank, 2006).

Dependability in qualitative research is equated to reliability in quantitative studies (Shenton, 2004). To ensure dependability, the author documented all procedures, reported changes that might affect conclusions, and also established a detailed case study protocol and databases (Miles et al., 2014). This detailed reporting verified the rigor of the fieldwork, aided in study repeatability, and contributed to the dependability of the study (Patton, 2002; Shank, 2006). Complete honesty in the author's position was fully disclosed to the reader to ensure integrity. Shank (2006) explained that it is critically important for the researcher to be honest about his or her perspective, their predilections, feelings, and reflections of what the researcher may have missed. He insisted that these issues need to be part of the explicit record. Clarifying the author's perspective was important to the future conduct of the research. This allows peers to understand the researcher's connection to the research, the issues, and the participants. Reviewers of the research will be able to look for inconsistencies knowing the position, perspective and connection of the researcher to the phenomena being studied.

Assumptions

A phenomenological study relies on participants who have experienced the phenomena being researched, have participated fully, and possess an acute interest in the experience (Moustakas, 1994). The primary assumption of this study was that the participants selected had been fully immersed in their leadership training interventions and answered the survey questions in a truthful and forthright manner accurately describing their perceptions of the experience. Other associated assumptions, by the virtue of the respondent's willingness to participate in the research, would indicate their acute interest in the subject and thereby their fuller immersion in the phenomena more so than those who declined participation.

Limitations

This phenomenological study was limited by the fact that the focus is on the lived experiences of only five federal police agency supervisors and their participation in their particular agency approved leadership development interventions. The results may have limited transferability or generalizability to other studies. Transferability in a qualitative study is equated to external validity in quantitative research (Shenton, 2004; Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). Due to the geographical distances between the researcher and the uniformed federal police agencies and the geographic distance between each agency, participant interviews were conducted telephonically. A potential limitation involved the effectiveness of a telephonic interview. The use of the telephone to conduct qualitative studies has been met with some reservations among researchers (Cachia & Millward, 2011). Some concerns include the lack of interviewer ability to personally observe body

language or non-verbal responses and thus lose a contextual layer of the participant's response (Novick, 2008).

A final limitation may be the skewing of participant answers of their uniformed federal police agencies' approved leadership training experiences to a more positive light due to the researcher's previous position a uniformed federal police agency supervisor. Although similar in training and missions, participants may possess pride in their organizations. Uniform federal police agency supervisors may feel remiss to answer questions, which they believe may negatively reflect upon their particular agency. Inversely, uniformed federal police supervisors that have negative feelings toward their agencies may skew answers to overstate negative aspects of their experiences.

Delimitations

The study provided rich descriptions of the uniformed federal police supervisor's perceptions of their police leadership training (Cozby, 2009; Patton, 2002; Shenton, 2004). With a large geographic distance an advantage of the telephonic interview consisted of nonexistent travel expenditures, which enhanced participation and allowed flexibility for the participants, and provided a more expedient method to collect data (Cachia & Millward, 2011). Novick (2008) noted a dearth of supporting data on either the disadvantages or the advantages of a telephonic interview versus a "face-to-face" interview. Researchers must employ various techniques to minimize bias and ensure the data is interpreted as objectively as possible (Miles et al., 2014; Shenton, 2004; Turner, 2010). Several methods were used to ensure the findings correctly represented the phenomenon being studied. Various techniques were identified by the author to help

ensure credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability of the data (Shenton, 2004).

Member checking was used by the author to allow verification of specific themes or descriptions by participants to ensure accuracy (Shenton, 2004). The participants were selected from varying federal uniformed police agencies across a wide geographic area. This diversity of informants allowed for triangulation, which also ensured credibility (Patton, 2002; Shenton, 2004). The author's background, experience, and knowledge of federal law enforcement also added credibility (Shenton, 2004). Care was taken to ensure the author's familiarity with the phenomena did not influence the analysis and interpretation of the findings.

Ethical Assurances

This study was conducted in accordance with the legal regulations regarding the protection of human subjects in research as set forth in Title 42 United States Code Section 300v-1(b); Title 28 Code of Federal Regulations Part 46; and lastly Section 2.10., Executive Order 12333. Approval by Northcentral's Institutional Review Board (IRB), was received prior to the study. Participants had already completed their leadership development training interventions and as professional police supervisors, were not part of a vulnerable population. Prior to involvement, participants were informed of the purpose and the nature of the study, the benefits of participation, the confidentiality of their participation, and their ability to voluntarily consent to participate (Paul, 2012).

Participants were requested to be recorded during interviews, informed of their right to privacy, and were asked to sign an Informed Consent Form which was adapted from the template provided by Northcentral University. All participants were assigned a

unique, but non-descriptive identifier to protect their identity, for example: participant 1. Recordings, transcriptions, and any other materials used to capture data from interviews are secured at the author's residence and will be destroyed after three years in compliance with IRB record keeping (Selwitz, Epley, & Erickson, 2011). The investigator provided participants full disclosure by revealing his previous professional status as a FBI Police supervisor from 2003-2012 and his current employment with the FBI. Participants were also advised that the research was not affiliated by any government agency but was solely the effort of an individual.

Summary

Modern law enforcement, in a constitutional republic, is challenged to provide effective service to the public in the face of complex issues that are as wide reaching as terrorism, immigration or natural disasters (Batts et al., 2012; Bayley & Nixon, 2010; Delattre, 2011; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Rosenbaum, 2010). Modern police executives must possess high levels of leadership proficiencies in order to navigate the complex issues facing law enforcement agencies (Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Batts et al., 2012; Dean & Gottschalk, 2013). Understanding leadership development in a law enforcement context has been identified as a critical but limited area of research (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver & Miller, 2014; Schafer, 2009, 2010; Yang et al., 2012).

The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study was to provide a better understanding of leadership theory by researching the aspect of leadership development in a law enforcement context by examining the perspectives of uniformed federal police executives concerning their leadership development (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver &

Miller, 2014). A goal of this study was to examine data extrapolated from the participants' shared experiences of their leadership development and its perceived influence on their executive law enforcement proficiencies. This chapter assessed the necessity and the potential benefits of this research project, which examined the limited researched phenomenon leadership development in a law enforcement context.

Chapter 4: Findings

The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study was to provide a better understanding of leadership theory by researching the aspect of leadership development in a law enforcement context by examining the perspectives of uniformed federal police executives concerning their leadership development (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver & Miller, 2014). A small group of five participants volunteered for the study, which is a recommended sample size for a phenomenological study where the emphasis is describing the lived experience in-depth for a small amount of individuals (Miles et al., 2014). The study examined data extrapolated from the participants' shared experiences of their leadership development and its influence on their executive law enforcement proficiencies.

Tursthworthiness of the Data

The study identified emergent themes from the data collected from a variety of informants. Credibility of the research methods utilized; soundness of the records provided and the repeatability of the study; and the integrity of the researcher's position, experiences, and perceptions assisted in mitigating potential bias and ensured the findings represented the phenomena being studied. The data provided an accurate depiction of the current state of leadership training or the "truth" as perceived by supervisory federal police officials (Patton, 2002; Shank, 2006). Member checking was used to allow verification of specific themes or descriptions by participants to ensure accuracy (Shenton, 2004). Participants were purposefully sampled (Cozby, 2009; Patton, 2002) from various federal police agencies spread out over a large geographic area providing a wide and diversified group of informants. Based on this diversity of informants,

triangulation also ensured credibility (Patton, 2002; Shenton, 2004). The author's background, experience, and knowledge of federal law enforcement also added to credibility (Shenton, 2004). Care was taken to ensure the author's familiarity with the phenomena did not influence the analysis and interpretation of the findings. In order to accomplish this, the author used reflexivity or self-questioning of his own perceptions about what he knows and how he knows it and its influence on the research (Shank, 2006).

To ensure dependability, the author documented all procedures, reported changes that might affect conclusions, and also established a detailed case study protocol and databases (Miles et al., 2014). This detailed reporting verified the rigor of the fieldwork, aid in study repeatability, and contributed to the dependability of the study (Patton, 2002; Shank, 2006). Complete honesty in the author's position must be fully disclosed to the reader to ensure integrity (Shank, 2006). Clarifying the author's perspective was important to the conduct of the research. This allows peers to understand your connection to the research, the issues, and the participants. Reviewers of the research will be able to look for inconsistencies knowing the position, perspective and connection of the researcher to the phenomena being studied.

Results

This phenomenological study within a leadership theory framework was guided by a core research question:

RQ1: What contributions do leadership development training interventions provide to uniformed federal police executives in the development of their law enforcement leadership skills?

The 10 emergent themes identified in Table 1 provide the common textural descriptions of the meaning and essence of the participants' lived experiences regarding their leadership development (Moustakas, 1994). These themes are consistent with the main research question and are examined in detailed discussions as they relate to the three research sub-questions.

Table 1

Ten Emergent Themes

Number	Emergent Theme
	Theme 1 - Leadership training assists with staying current with leadership concepts.
	Theme 2 - Leadership training provides insight.
	Theme 3 - Leadership training assists with development and acquiring skills.
	Theme 4 - Leadership training was viewed as a refresher or redundant.
	Theme 5 - Leadership training was not effective in their development as administrators.
	Theme 6 - Participants believed they were to learn on their own to be an administrative leader.
	Theme 7 - Participants believed experience made them better administrative leaders.
	Theme 8 - Being mentored made them better administrative leaders.
	Theme 9 – Leadership training was viewed as ineffective for preparing to lead during critical incidents.
	Theme 10 - Participants provided reflections on their leadership development.

In order to develop a more holistic view of the central research question, three sub-questions were used. The themes will be discussed in the presentation of the findings as they relate to the following specific sub-questions. Themes emerged after rigorous analysis of the five individual participant interviews using the modified van Kaam method (Hathorn et al., 2009; Moustakas, 1994). The following findings were derived from the individual textual descriptions from the participant's experience using direct quotes from the transcripts to help understand what the officer experienced (Hathorn et al., 2009):

Sub-Question 1: What themes are identified from the participants' descriptions of their leadership development training experiences.

Sub-question 2: What assertions are made by participants to describe their leadership development experiences?

Theme 1 - Leadership training assists with staying current with leadership concepts. Three of the five participants (60%) indicated that attending leadership training had a positive effect on their development as leaders by allowing them to stay informed on the most recent leadership theories. Participant 2 stated, "As leaders, we constantly evolve, leadership training, concepts constantly evolve . . . its been an absolute necessity to stay on top of your leadership training as far as a development stand point". Participant 5 noted modern leadership concepts regarding gender issues and Participant 1 noted generational leadership concepts as areas where leadership training had a positive effect on their development. Participant 5 stated, "There's all these different challenges such as genders, the influx of more females coming into this type of field." Participant 1 explained, "How it (leadership) applies to generations of people. You can't lead 40 year

olds the same way you can 22, 23, or 24 year olds . . . but I think it (leadership training) helps you as a leader; you do have to adapt and change as well with people.

Theme 2 - Leadership training provides insight. Two of the five participants (40%) indicated that leadership development courses had provided them with greater insight into leadership theory. Although interesting, the participants did not provide any breadth or depth in their responses regarding exactly how this insight specifically effected their development other than to note it was positive. Participant 3 stated, “I would say positively, through informal and formal, I’ve gained a lot of insight on leadership. Whether through internal or external agencies”. Participant 4 explained, “I feel that it gave some good insight about how to as a new supervisor, cause even though I’m a lieutenant I wasn’t a sergeant particularly long”.

Theme 3 - Leadership training assists with development and acquiring skills.

Two of the five participants (40%), felt that leadership training had enhanced their development by learning leadership skills, which allowed them to perform their jobs more effectively. Participant 4, a recent promotion to a command staff position, explained the value of leadership training to him:

It really sorta helps me to establish the skills needed to separate myself from my former peers who I am now in charge of and some ways to go about that having a role, a friend, but also my primary role as a manager, as a supervisor, and negotiating that balance and not compromising my position and my current role.

Participant 5 discussed how leadership training helped develop their interpersonal skills:

As far as enhancing it yeah, I could say I picked up one, few tips along the way as far as just listening to other people in the course, on the way, just their

experiences with a troubled employee and how they dealt with them, or what solutions that they came up with, which I looked at, evaluated, and see how I could apply it in the same situation if it ever arised.

Regarding the continued pursuit of development of leadership skills, Participant 5 further stated, “I believe that every day I’m learning something new and something I can apply”.

Theme 4 - Leadership training was viewed as a refresher or redundant. Two of the five participants (40%) provided moderate responses in regards to their personal leadership development experiences. Although some benefit was articulated, both participants expressed overall dissatisfaction with their leadership training. Participant 1 only spoke of their recent leadership training experiences so the researcher is unsure if earlier training interventions were of some benefit in their development. “It seems as the majority of leadership courses that you go through have become redundant . . . it’s a good refresher . . . but really it becomes redundant”. Participant 5 shared their views on leadership development, “. . . as I truly believe, it’s not something that can be taught, you have to have leadership already innate to a certain extent, then you build on that”. “Because a lot of times you go to these leadership courses and it’s basically, its uh, as we say, you end up learning all the cliché’s”. Participant 5 further expressed another limitation view point, that an agency cannot place “. . . a leader and throw them in these courses and expect them to be better”.

Sub-question 3: What contributions did their leadership development training provide to the participants’ administrative law enforcement leadership skills?

Theme 5 - Leadership training was not effective in their development as administrators. The overarching view of the participants was mixed with neither strong affirmations nor criticisms in regard to leadership training enhancing their abilities to fulfill their role as administrative leaders. The majority of participants seemed to confuse their roles between leader and manager in their responses. Participant 2 appeared to state this confusion of roles:

. . . I mean leadership is important even administratively. I'd say less so than the day to day leading people because administratively it's about the columns and rows, it is more of the transactional style . . . Because you're having to matter with the business of things versus true interactions with people.

Participant 1 articulated in 2 separate occasions his perception which confused leading administratively with a more management oriented role, "It (leadership training) doesn't hit on a lot of budgetary or staffing. . . No, it really isn't touched on how to deal with budgets and how to deal with people. . .". When asked if leadership training added value to their skill set to lead administratively, Participant 2 seemed to be unable to discern decisively between leadership and management, "It does add value, yes. But it's a lesser value than, than one on one or leading teams face to face". Participant 4 stated a similar perception, "I get that all supervisors should be aware of budgeting and the effects that their behavior in terms of expenditures should have, could have on the force and the need for certain things versus the cost."

Only Participant 5 clearly articulated the different roles of leader and administrator and suggested how it is necessary for them to blend together to be an effective leader:

Because as the administrative officer, I do have to manage the budget, I have to manage the overtime, . . . their time cards and their time hours, and have to have an understanding of all the rules and regulations that govern those hours and time. . . So developing administratively, ya, that's one of the lead, talents or tasks that you have to also compliment yourself as a leader. It's totally different you're going out into the field and you can give an assignment, but if you don't have the administrative ability to do so, knowing your officers, for scheduling purposes, staffing, knowing the A, B, C, officer, knowing their days off, what their time schedules are, if you have to pull additional staff and where do you get that from without hindering that tour? So that takes analytical ability to look at.

Despite that observation, Participant 5 still echoed the views of the other participants, "It's not easy, but I think a lot of the administrative part you're not going to learn in any type of course. . .".

Theme 6 - Participants believed they were to learn on their own to be an administrative leader. Two out of the five participants (40%) indicated their perception that they were expected to learn how to be an administrative leader on their own. Participant 1 succinctly stated, ". . . your expected to learn that on your own". Participant 5 noted, "As far as developing, a lot of that was all on the job itself . . . Because a lot of times, you know, you can't count on people to give you what you need. So you have to develop yourself in that".

Theme 7 - Participants believed experience made them better administrative leaders. Though some felt they were left to their own devices to develop as an administrative leader others, 3 out of 5 (60%), expressed the view that experience was

better than a leadership development course. Participant 5 suggested, “As far as developing, a lot of that was all on the job itself, I don’t think you could go to any classes. . .”. Participant 3 noted:

. . . taking different positions and learning more about each position, that gave me a better leadership role on the business side is how I felt . . . you know being placed in positions, being assigned assignments that, while being supported is what gave me the leadership job knowledge I guess, the practice side.

Theme 8 - Being mentored made them better administrative leaders. Three out of five (60%) of the participants shared a view that mentoring, blended with experience, was an important part of their development as an administrative leader. Participant 3 explained, “I felt the classroom leadership training, the philosophical side of it was, that’s where it was very beneficial . . . I did better on the business side through mentoring programs . . .”. Participant 5 expressed, although not relevant to their development, the importance of their role as a leader and as a mentor developing officers, “. . . as we know when you try to mentor, and I think that’s the key here. . .”.

Participant 4 noted:

So, when projects that would come up that dealt with finances and budgeting, over time, they (supervisors) would tell me things to consider, serve as mentors for that and go from there. So that was beneficial having people that are in the positions, my supervisors lead me through it and when I became more comfortable with it, allowed me to have more control of those things.

Sub-question 4: What contributions did their leadership development training provide to the participants’ operational law enforcement leadership skills?

Theme 9 – Leadership training was viewed as ineffective for preparing to lead during critical incidents. Four of the five participants (80)% felt their leadership training did not adequately prepare them to lead during critical incidents for example: a mass casualty event, an active shooter situation or any other similar emergent situation. Participant 1 explained his view on classroom leadership training in practical application during a critical incident, “It really, it doesn’t translate. It’s lacking more on the operations side . . . Day to day operations it’s great for dealing, relating with people, but in critical incidents, really, we haven’t received any training”. Participant 3 did not credit any leadership training they received as a police commander but said they relied on training they received as a volunteer fire fighter:

. . . so I received ICS (Incident Command System) and I was in a supervisory capacity in the volunteer fire service prior to becoming law enforcement. . . But a lot of my ability to manage critical and fluid situations I had a real good insight I brought from the volunteer fire service over to law enforcement.

Participant 5 noted in regards to leading during a critical incident, “. . . I don’t think any courses that would train you, you know to deal with that. . .”.

Participant 2 explained, regarding leadership training and its application to critical incidents:

The larger courses that I have taken, I have been subject to that are dedicated strictly to leadership, I don’t think that it was probably as impactful as it should be. It may be another area that probably needs to be enhanced in my opinion. So, I mean that I just think that dedicated leadership training, I haven’t found it directly, I think its left to the student to then make a determination on how you,

how you lead people at all times, not just normal daily operations, but also critical incident situations.

The last emergent theme was a response to an open-ended concluding question inquiring if the participant had anything further they would like to add.

Theme 10 - Participant reflections on their leadership development. When asked if there was anything the participant wished to comment on at the conclusion of the interview, several offered some insightful perceptions on law enforcement leadership development training. Participant 3 noted, “I do know, we have now kinda developed it and are working to create better leaders from the bottom all the way to the top of our structure. You know I do, I think it’s very important and it is especially for what we do”. Participant 5 stated, “corporation type of leadership, it’s not going to actually work in the environment of law enforcement . . . And you can’t send, you know a law enforcement officer to a Jack Welch conference”. Both Participant 4 and 5 expressed concerns that leadership training for law enforcement should be designed specifically for the profession. Participant 5 explained, “I think any leadership training that they provide should be tailored to that specific job itself”. Both participant 2 and 3 credited the FBI National Academy as a positive influence in their leadership development. These same participants also expressed the shared perception that leadership development was enhanced by feedback and interactions with subordinates and peers. Participant 2 stated, “I think on the job is where it really develops. You put into practice where you learn through adversity, trial and error, through feedback from your subordinates and co leaders as well”. Lastly, both participants 2 and 5 indicated that unless the law enforcement supervisor applies the lessons they have learned, then leadership

development training in any form is rendered non effective. Participant 2 stated, “. . . obviously you can put a person in a leadership class, teach them everything about leadership, but when they come out and you don’t have and you can’t convince . . . to have people, you know, to basically follow your agenda, then I don’t think it’s worth anything. . .”.

Evaluation of Findings

This study is centered on context that law enforcement leadership is aligned with general leadership theory framework (Campbell & Kodz, 2011). Police leadership competence has been identified as a key factor to successfully guide agencies through ever changing local, political, and global influences (Batts et al., 2012; Fitch, 2014; Ortmeier & Meese, 2010; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Vito et al., 2014). As a part of leadership theory, leadership development is recognized as foundational to the policing profession (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Ortmeier & Meese, 2010; Vito et al., 2014). This research effort was guided by leadership theory through researching the aspect of leadership development in a law enforcement context (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver & Miller, 2014; Yang et al., 2012). The findings of this study were found to be aligned within this theoretical framework.

Reinforcing the critical need for law enforcement leadership development (Vito et al., 2014), leading both administratively and during critical incidents, these police executives are expected to provide stability, accountability, and guidance to maintain viable agencies capable of providing effective services (Mastrofski et al., 2011; Batts et al., 2012). Theme 5 noted these shared administrative leadership challenges, which was a key focus of the study. Participants expressed their lived experiences in the context of

the management of a budget in relation to their current financial resources and staff related concerns. The results of this study were consistent with current literature on financial resource concerns facing law enforcement leaders (Griffiths et al., 2015; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013). The findings also correlate to the recent analysis of the downward trend in police budgets and its impact on staffing concern (PERF, 2013). In addition, budget resources are discussed in contemporary literature in areas of concern regarding the purchasing abilities of modern law enforcement technology by police agencies (Custers, 2012; Custers & Vergouw, 2015; Roberts et al., 2012).

Participant responses were also in line with the existing literature regarding their perceived responsibility when leading during a critical incident (Theme 9) another core focus of the research. The results were consistent with the current *National Strategy for Homeland Security* (2007) which identified law enforcement as a critical instrument in securing the homeland. The findings were provided in the context of improving law enforcement leadership development to enhance executive abilities to provide a robust response during critical incidents or natural disasters (Department of Homeland Security [DHS], 2003, 2007, 2008). The results of this research effort are consistent with the literature regarding the importance police leadership development in order to meet the dynamic challenges of contemporary policing (Batts et al., 2012; Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Griffiths et al., 2015; Ortmeier & Meese, 2010; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Riley, 2015; Vito et al., 2014)

Summary

This chapter opens with a brief discussion of the purpose of the research effort, the main research question, a description of the participants and the three sub questions

that guided this study. The purpose of this phenomenological inquiry focused on five participants' descriptions and their lived experiences of their leadership development training to allow for analysis of the perceived value of that training on their law enforcement leadership skills (Miles et al., 2014; Moustakas, 1994). Trustworthiness of the data also was discussed in brief. Data was collected from a purposeful sampling of five federal uniformed police commanders from the nine largest uniformed federal police agencies (Cozby, 2009; GAO, 2012; Trochim & Donnelly, 2008). The analysis of the findings were represented in 10 emergent themes which are presented in table one and discussed in relation to the main question and to each of the three sub questions and the chapter concludes with an evaluation of the findings.

The data was analyzed for emergent themes in which 10 were identified and presented in table one. These themes were then discussed in relation to the main research question and sub questions. Last, all data was evaluated within the framework of general leadership theory in the context of law enforcement leadership development and its effectiveness in developing police leaders (Campbell & Kodz, 2011). The results of this research effort may be of value to the law enforcement community in a narrow focus of developing police leaders or to the field of leadership theory in a broader framework.

Chapter 5: Implications, Recommendations, and Conclusions

The modern challenges of police leadership are complex and varying, yet police executives are expected to meet public service demands (Bayley & Nixon, 2010; Batts et al., 2012; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Rosenbaum, 2010). Law enforcement leadership is aligned with general leadership theory (Campbell & Kodz, 2011) and police leadership competence has been identified as a key factor to successfully guide agencies through ever changing local, political, and global influences (Batts et al., 2012; Bayley & Nixon, 2010; Fitch, 2014; Ortmeier & Meese, 2010; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Rosenbaum, 2010). As a part of leadership theory, leadership development is recognized as foundational to the policing profession (Campbell & Kodz, 2011, Barath & Sherriff, 2011; Ortmeier & Meese, 2010).

Ortmeier and Meese (2010) identified leadership as critical to police performance but noted it has received insufficient scholarly attention. Clarke (2012) noted limited literature regarding the available models to direct evaluation inquiries in the field of leadership development. Schafer (2009) noted a dearth in leadership research regarding the understanding of police leadership development (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver & Miller, 2014; Schafer, 2010; Yang et al., 2012). Leadership development in a law enforcement context is an understudied element of leadership theory (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver & Miller, 2014; Schafer 2009, 2010, Yang et al., 2012).

The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study was to provide a better understanding of leadership theory by researching the aspect of leadership development in a law enforcement context by examining the perspectives of uniformed federal police executives concerning their leadership development (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver &

Miller, 2014). A goal of the study was to examine data extrapolated from the participants' shared experiences of their leadership development and its influence on their executive law enforcement proficiencies. The participants were selected from the nine largest federal police forces identified by the GAO (2012) report. The selection of a specific group of law enforcement executives instead of a broad spectrum of state and local police agencies is consistent with a phenomenological design by obtaining a rich description of the meaning of one specific phenomenon based on the participants' lived experiences (Miles et al., 2014; Moustakas, 1994).

This research effort utilized a qualitative framework with a phenomenological method of study. The main question this study sought to answer is what contributions leadership development provided to uniformed federal police executives in the development of their law enforcement leadership skills. A phenomenological design and its analysis method allows for a deeper understanding of the lived experiences of uniformed federal police leaders and how they assigned meaning to their individual leadership development interventions (Morris & Crank, 2011; Moustakas, 1994). No research was identified which focused on the lived experiences of participants of police leadership development training programs and their perceptions of the contributions of those interventions to both their administrative and operational law enforcement leadership skill sets. In addition, no literature was discovered which focused on the lived experiences and perspectives of uniformed federal police executives and their leadership development interventions.

Given the substantial geographic distance between the participants and the interviewer, a telephone interview was deemed appropriate. Participants answered semi-

structured interview questions, which took between 10 to 20 minutes depending on the length of participant responses. All interviews, with participant approval, were digitally recorded to ensure accuracy for analytical purposes. I transcribed the recorded interviews verbatim and sent them to the participants for review to ensure accuracy.

This phenomenological study possesses some potential limitations. Only five uniformed federal police agency supervisors volunteered to participate. The results may have limited transferability or generalizability to other studies. Due to the geographical distances between the researcher and the uniformed federal police agencies and the geographic distance between each agency, participant interviews were conducted telephonically. A potential limitation involves the effectiveness of a telephonic interview. Concerns regard the lack of interviewer ability to personally observe body language or non-verbal responses and thus lose a contextual layer of the participant's response (Novick, 2008).

Another limitation may be the skewing of participant answers of their uniformed federal police agencies' approved leadership training experiences to a more positive light due to the researcher's previous position with a uniformed federal police agency. Uniform federal police agency supervisors may feel remiss to answer questions, which they believe may negatively reflect upon their particular agency. Inversely, uniformed federal police supervisors that have negative feelings toward their agency may skew answers to overstate negative aspects of their experiences. Last, no female uniform federal police supervisors volunteered for participation and this may be viewed as a limitation by researchers.

This study was conducted in accordance with the legal regulations regarding the protection of human subjects in research as set forth in Title 42 United States Code Section 300v-1(b); Title 28 Code of Federal Regulations Part 46; and lastly Section 2.10., Executive Order 12333. Approval by Northcentral's Institutional Review Board (IRB), was granted prior to the study. Prior to involvement, participants were informed of the purpose and the nature of the study, the benefits of participation, the confidentiality of their participation, and their ability to voluntarily consent to participate (Paul, 2012). Participants gave permission to be recorded during interviews, they were informed of their right to privacy, and all signed an Informed Consent Form, which was adapted from the template provided by Northcentral University.

Implications

This phenomenological study within a leadership theory framework was guided by a core research question:

RQ1: What contributions do leadership development training interventions provide to uniformed federal police executives in the development of their law enforcement leadership skills?

In order to develop a more holistic view of the central research question, four sub-questions were used:

1. What themes are identified from the participants' descriptions of their leadership development training experiences.
2. What assertions are made by participants to describe their leadership development experiences?
3. What contributions did their leadership development training provide

to the participants' administrative law enforcement leadership skills?

4. What contributions did their leadership development training provide to the participants' operational law enforcement leadership skills?

Ten emergent themes identified in Table 1 provide the common textural descriptions of the meaning and essence of the participants' lived experiences regarding their leadership development (Moustakas, 1994). These themes are consistent with the main research question and are examined in detailed discussions as they relate to the three research sub-questions. Law enforcement practitioners or researchers in the field of leadership development in a law enforcement context will determine the practical application of these findings in regard to the effectiveness of leadership development (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Hannum & Craig, 2010; Sarver & Miller, 2014; Schafer 2009, 2010, Yang et al., 2012). The findings of this study suggest implications external of the immediate research effort.

The research in general, may provide insight to law enforcement executives and instructors in the development of leadership training program strategies based on the experiences of those uniformed federal police executives and their past participation in a leadership development course. In an area of law enforcement leadership, which has received minimal scholarly research (Schafer, 2009), the findings will immediately provide insight into this gap regarding leadership training. The study of a police leadership intervention could add depth to and expand the understanding of police leadership training while simultaneously informing general leadership theory (Campbell & Kodz, 2011).

Facing the same leadership challenges as state and local law enforcement is a “patchwork” of uniform federal police agencies in the federal government. Ortmeier and Meese (2010) identified leadership as critical to police performance but noted it has received insufficient scholarly attention. Leading both administratively and during critical incidents, these police executives are expected to provide stability, accountability, and guidance to maintain viable agencies capable of providing effective services (Mastrofski et al., 2011; Batts et al., 2012). The results of theme 5 indicated shared challenges among participants regarding leading a department administratively. The general view of the participants was mixed with neither strong affirmations nor criticisms in regards to leadership training enhancing their abilities to fulfill their role as administrative leaders.

A majority of participants seemed to confuse their roles between leader and manager in their responses. Instead of focusing on long-term budget strategies, which may guide future department activities (Griffiths et al., 2015; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013), several participants expressed their perceptions in the context of the management of a budget in relation to their current financial concerns. This also was echoed in several responses regarding staff related concerns. Instead of expressing long term vision on potential new hiring strategies to address future changes in the workforce (Finnie, 2010; Konkler, 2010; PERF, 2013) or development in new training strategies for law enforcement skills to keep pace with rapid changes in technology (Custers & Vergouw, 2015), most participants spoke in terms of managing current staff such as interpersonal relations, personnel corrective measures and addressing leave concerns. In this context, participants expressed the perception that their leadership training did not properly

prepare them to manage administratively, often repeating the perception that the training did not prepare them to handle budgetary concerns. Some participants expressed the perception that they were left to their own devices to decipher the proper way to lead administratively. Police administrators and instructors may want to enhance curriculum to further the understanding of the difference between a manager and a leader (Allio, 2013; Raisiene', 2014). Although not leadership training related, participant comments articulating the perception of not being prepared to manage day to day administrative functions may point to another area of concern. Law enforcement leaders may want to incorporate or develop training courses to better prepare police managers in the practical areas of financial and personnel management.

Law enforcement executives are expected to provide a robust response during critical incidents or natural disasters (Department of Homeland Security [DHS], 2003, 2007, 2008; Sjoberg et al., 2011). The participants in this study expressed an overall perception that leadership training did not translate to practical application when leading during a critical incident (Theme 9). Only two participants mentioned having any training in critical incidents by attending the National Incident Management System (NIMS) or the Incident Command System (ICS) courses with one of those participants receiving their training prior to law enforcement service. One participant made the observation that responding to a critical incident required a blended effort of management and leadership. In light of the key aspect of a law enforcement response to critical incidents, administrators may want to continue or consider adding NIMS, ICS, or related courses to their training curriculum. In addition, strategies to integrate leadership during critical incident training might be an option for instructors to consider. In practical

application, law enforcement executives could benefit by utilizing the blended foundations of critical incident management courses to organize the response but also the leadership to implement the necessary course of action.

The problem to be addressed is an understudied element of leadership theory or the phenomena of leadership development in a law enforcement context (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver & Miller, 2014; Schafer 2009, 2010, Yang et al., 2012). The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study was to provide a better understanding of leadership theory by researching the aspect of leadership development in a law enforcement context by examining the perspectives of uniformed federal police executives concerning their leadership development (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver & Miller, 2014). The goal of the research was to provide a better understanding of the individual uniformed federal police executive, that person's leadership development and its influence on the individual's executive law enforcement proficiencies.

Ten emergent themes were identified from the analysis (Table 1). To develop a holistic overview of law enforcement leadership development training, participants answered three sub-questions relating to personal leadership development, administrative leadership development, and critical incident leadership development. Themes 1 - 4 assessed the effectiveness of leadership training in the participant's development of personal leadership skills. Overall, these themes yielded a positive assessment from participants. Themes 5 - 8 provided insight into leadership training and its translation to leading the administrative business of a law enforcement agency. The participants expressed the perception that this area had shortcomings and did not greatly contribute to their executive skill sets. Theme 9 focused on leadership training and its practical

application when called upon to provide leadership during critical incidents. Generally, participants felt their leadership training was ineffective in this area. The philosophical and theoretical constructs of leadership in the classroom did not seem to translate to practical real world scenarios. The resultant extrapolated data was found to be centered with the core research question by providing insight into the contributions leadership development training interventions provide to uniformed federal police executives in the development of their law enforcement leadership skills. The data acquired from the participants allowed for exacting analysis which provided rich, textural descriptions of their leadership development experiences (Miles et al., 2014; Moustakas, 1994; Patton, 2002) which was in line with the purpose of this study.

Recommendations for Practice

This qualitative phenomenological study is centered within general leadership theory. Although focused on leadership development, an aspect within the framework of general leadership, the findings appear to be compatible with and could have practical law enforcement application and potentially add to the depth of the current literature in the field of general leadership. The results appear to be in line and consistent with the theories and constructs of general leadership and law enforcement leadership theory, both of which are foundational to this study and are discussed in the literature review in Chapter 2. For example, the emergent themes regarding personal development (Themes 1 - 4) are consistent with previous research. The participant's lived experiences that leadership development training was positive in developing their self-efficacy, helped them stay current with emerging leadership theories, and enhanced their leadership skill

sets were noted in the literature reviewed for this study (Lucke & Furtner, 2015; Furtner et al., 2013; Roberts, 2015; Ross, 2014).

Recent research has suggested that experience is more effective in developing leaders and not the formal classroom setting. These studies indicate that an individual's cognitive leadership ability is refined through career experiences (Allio, 2013; Kempster & Parry, 2014; Northouse, 2012). The literature corresponds with the emergent theme (Theme 7) identified in the participants' reconstruction of their development, which was the feeling that experience had been more impactful in their leadership development than course work. This theme is another example where the findings were relevant and centered with the previous research mentioned in the literature. In addition, another emergent theme (Theme 8) was articulated based on the lived experience of the participants that being mentored added value to their development as leaders. The mentoring theme was supported in the literature regarding leadership development (Bass, 2008; Furtner et al., 2013; McAlearney, 2010). These findings would indicate participants believe more than just formal course work is necessary to develop their law enforcement executive skills. Law enforcement training administrators may create a more robust practical leadership development strategy that utilizes blended methods of leadership development to enhance current leadership training. Studies of the literature that are the foundation of this research effort also indicate practical application of current leadership training methods may involve mixed training approaches for more effective leadership development (Bass, 2008; Breytenbach & Hughes, 2014; Furtner et al., 2013; Muffet-Willett & Kruse, 2008; Ross, 2014).

Recommendations for Future Research

The results of this qualitative phenomenological study could inform future research in both the general field of leadership development and more specifically the field of law enforcement leadership development. Leadership development has been identified as critical to an organization in enhancing organizational performance (Dalakoura, 2010; Houghton & DiLiello, 2010). Schafer (2009), in a seminal study on police leadership (Swid, 2014) noted an acute gap in leadership research had been identified regarding the understanding of law enforcement leadership development (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Sarver & Miller, 2014; Schafer, 2009, 2010; Yang et al., 2012). Understanding of police leadership training could benefit police recruitment, promotion, and assist future development of effectual police leaders (Sarver & Miller, 2014; Yang et al., 2012). The findings of this study may offer insight on how to enhance leadership development thus better preparing current or future law enforcement executives.

Police leadership development literature was thoroughly reviewed for this research project. There have been previous studies that have used law enforcement executives as samples to examine their perceptions of varying areas of police leadership (Schafer 2009, 2010). The author noted a dearth of literature however, which focused on the lived experiences of individual uniformed federal police executives and their perceptions of their leadership training. Although the focus was on a small subset of law enforcement, the findings will begin to further the understanding into the under studied area of law enforcement leadership training (Schafer, 2009).

With no evidence of past research, which focused on the lived experiences of individual uniformed federal police executives and their leadership development, the findings provided insight into this gap regarding uniformed federal police leadership training. Researchers may use these findings as foundational in future qualitative studies to further evaluate the effectiveness of leadership development of mid- to command-level federal uniformed police executives. Last, the results of this study on police leadership training interventions will not only expand the understanding of police leadership training they will simultaneously inform overall leadership concepts (Campbell & Kodz, 2011). The data collected from this study could also serve as a starting point for future qualitative research efforts on general leadership theory.

This phenomenological study is limited by the fact that the focus is on the lived experiences of only five uniformed federal police agency supervisors and their participation in their particular agency approved leadership development interventions. The qualitative nature of the research may have limited transferability or generalizability to other studies. Future researchers should take into consideration that the findings are based on five members of a purposeful sample of uniformed federal police agency supervisors and from nine uniformed police agencies approved leadership development training courses.

Due to the geographical distances between the researcher and the uniformed federal police agencies and the geographic distance between each agency, participant interviews will be conducted telephonically. A potential limitation involves the effectiveness of a telephonic interview. The use of the telephone to conduct qualitative studies has been met with some reservations among researchers (Cachia & Millward,

2011). Concerns regard the lack of interviewer ability to personally observe body language or non-verbal responses and thus lose a contextual layer of the participant's response (Novick, 2008). Future researchers may attempt to alleviate this issue by using Skype or Face Time applications, which allow for the observation of more visual cues. In addition, if resources allow, face-to-face interviews would enhance textual visual and non-verbal communication cues.

Although participant recruiting attempts were made to nine of the largest uniformed federal police agencies (GAO, 2012), no female uniform federal police supervisors volunteered. The lack of female law enforcement executive participation may be viewed as a limitation by researchers. Researchers may want to focus specifically on interviewing female executives to enhance the existing body of leadership development knowledge by obtaining descriptions from a different gender perspective

A final limitation may be the skewing of participant answers of their uniformed federal police agencies' approved leadership training experiences to a more positive light due to the researcher's previous position with a uniformed federal police agency. Although similar in training and missions, participants may possess pride in their organizations. Uniform federal police agency supervisors may feel remiss to answer questions, which they believe may negatively reflect upon their particular agency. Inversely, uniformed federal police supervisors that have negative feelings toward their agency may skew answers to overstate negative aspects of their experiences. Attempts to negate this limitation may include future researchers outside the law enforcement community. An outside researcher might illicit more honest responses to research questions.

Conclusions

The core research question of this study centered on what contributions do leadership development training interventions provide to uniformed federal police executives in the development of their law enforcement leadership skills. The results of this study are pertinent and significant due to the lack of research regarding an element of leadership theory, specifically the aspect of leadership development in a law enforcement context. The findings are also relevant federal law enforcement instructors in that the participants have shared new information, based on their lived experiences of their leadership development training. To cope with the challenges facing modern law enforcement leaders, developing leadership proficiency is critical. With the reductions in resources both financial and with personnel, lessening the gap in understanding law enforcement leadership development is critical to ensure efficient and effective training strategies are implemented. The results of this research effort will contribute to reducing that gap by adding to and informing both general leadership theory, and more specifically, law enforcement leadership development.

To investigate the core research question, a qualitative phenomenological study was utilized and to obtain thick and rich data (Miles et al., 2014; Moustakas, 1994; Patton, 2002) a semi-structured, open-ended interview protocol (Appendix A) was used to interview a purposeful sample of five uniformed federal police executives on their lived experiences regarding the value of their leadership development training in enhancing their executive leadership abilities. The individual interviews were transcribed verbatim and were member checked by the participants for accuracy. The author selected Moustaka's modified Van Kaam model for a thorough analysis of the data, which

allowed for the merging of the textural and structural descriptions into a narrative explaining the “how” and the “what” for the participants based on my understanding of the experience (Hathorn et al., 2009).

The findings, after a thorough examination of data, produced ten emergent themes, which were identified from the analysis (Table 1). The resultant extrapolated data was found to be centered with the core research question by providing insight into the contributions leadership development training interventions provide to uniformed federal police executives in the development of their law enforcement leadership skills. Focused on leadership development, an aspect within the framework of general leadership, the findings appear to be compatible with current literature in the field of general leadership. While answering the core research question, this research effort also adds to the literature on general leadership theory in that participant responses reflect current leadership development theories that indicate practical application of current leadership training methods may involve mixed training approaches for more effective leadership development outcomes (Bass, 2008; Breytenbach & Hughes, 2014; Furtner et al., 2013; Muffet-Willett & Kruse, 2008; Ross, 2014).

The findings of this study may have practical applications for the law enforcement community as well. The emergent themes may be used to start discussions among those institutions, such as those previously mentioned and specifically the Federal Law Enforcement Training Center, which are responsible for providing leadership training to mid to senior level command officers. In light of the qualitative nature of this study and the sample size, the results may have limited transferability or generalizability (Shenton, 2004; Thomas & Magilvy, 2011) and the practitioners will have to discern what is

relevant for application. The findings do indicate that leadership training institutions may want to consider broadening leadership training to include a blended curriculum of mentoring, experience, and management courses (Allio, 2013; Bass, 2008; Breytenbach & Hughes, 2014; Furtner et al., 2013; Kempster & Parry, 2014; Northouse, 2012; Raisiene', 2014; Ross, 2014; Sarver & Miller, 2014; Yang et al., 2012).

To cope with the challenges facing modern law enforcement leaders, additional research into reducing the gap in understanding law enforcement leadership development is indicated. Future researchers may use these findings as a foundational to further explore leadership development in a law enforcement context. Qualitative inquiry is preferred when examining leadership theory and for studies regarding law enforcement leadership (Bryman, 2011; Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Schafer, 2009, 2010). The phenomenological approach was selected for this research as it focuses on understanding how the participant's development as a leader was influenced by leadership training interventions (Babin et al., 2010; Moustakas, 1994) by answering the meaning, structure and essence of their lived experiences (Patton, 2002).

Other qualitative methods of inquiry such as case studies may be considered for future research projects. A case study may be used to investigate specific leadership development programs or individuals in depth (Patton, 2002). In addition, quantitative or mixed method studies may be used as well to provide a more holistic overview.

Future researchers may attempt to improve upon interviews by using Skype, Face Time applications, or face-to-face interviews, which would enhance textual visual and non-verbal communication cues (Cachia & Millward, 2011; Novick, 2008). In addition, researchers may want to focus specifically on researching female executives and their

leadership development experiences to better inform the existing body of leadership development literature. A potential mitigation strategy to reduce participant bias regarding the agency they are employed with, the use of an outside researcher might illicit more honest responses to research questions.

This research effort attempted to reduce the gap in the understanding of leadership development for uniformed federal police supervisors specifically and the field of leadership development in general. These American police supervisors, operating in a constitutional republic, are faced with complex and ever-changing challenges (Batts et al., 2012; Delattre, 2011; Griffiths et al., 2015; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013), which are common to all law enforcement executives. This phenomenological study has allowed these practitioners to reconstruct their lived experiences in a way that might be of benefit to others and thus enhance the overall professionalism of their peers and the law enforcement community. Although this study has added value to both theory and practical application, the results suggest that further research is warranted to gain a deeper insight and understanding of law enforcement leadership development.

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Appendix A: Interview Guide

Interview Guide

Introduction

Before we start the interview, I would like to thank you for taking the time to discuss your experiences with leadership development training. I became interested in law enforcement leadership development when I became a federal police supervisor from 2003 – 2012. I will be recording this interview to be transcribed. Depending on your answers, I may use some of your responses in an anonymous fashion in the final dissertation manuscript. I will provide you with a copy of the transcripts for your review and verification as part of the analysis.

Law enforcement leadership training has been examined in many ways. Courses have used surveys or questionnaires, which are quantitative in nature. The focus is to collect student feedback, which may provide the best insight. A qualitative research gap exists which examines the perspectives of police leadership training from the students' lived experiences. Your explanation of your law enforcement leadership training experiences, along with several other fellow federal police supervisors, will assist in narrowing the gap and help develop a better understanding of the police leadership development experience which is deficient at this time. Before we begin, please focus on the leadership development training programs your law enforcement agency has sent you to attend. I would ask you to broadly discuss all aspects of your experiences during your time in any of the programs that were important to you. At different points in the interview, I may ask prompting questions to further explore or gain deeper insight from your experiences. Before we begin, I would like to ask some general demographic

questions to develop participant profiles. These questions are voluntary and you do not have to provide any information if you do not wish to.

Demographic Questions

What is your: Gender? Race/Ethnicity? Age?

How many total years of sworn law enforcement service do you have?

How many total years of sworn supervisory law enforcement experience to you have?

What is your current rank?

How many sworn officers are in your agency?

Thank you.

Are you ready to begin the interview about your law enforcement leadership training?

Main Questions

1. How has participation in a leadership development program affected your leadership development? How has this experience enhanced your development as a leader?
2. What was the overall value of this training in regard to leading administratively? (Example: Leading the business of a police department such as financial concerns, staffing issues, budgetary constraints, community relations, strategic planning). In what aspect was this training lacking if any?
3. What was the overall value of this training in regard to leading during a critical incident? (Example: Mass casualty event, Active Shooter, Hostage Barricade Situations) In what aspect was this training lacking if any?

Exploratory/Prompting Questions

1. Could you explain your answer further?
2. Could you provide me with specific examples?

Concluding Question

1. Do you have any further comments about your leadership training that you would like to add?

Appendix B: Informed Consent Form

Introduction:

My name is James J. Sheets and I am conducting research on police leadership development. The purpose of the study is to better understand police leadership training.

I am inviting you to participate.

Activities:

If you participate in this research, you will be asked to:

1. Answer a short questionnaire. The approximate length of the interview will be 30 minutes.
2. Interviews will be conducted by phone. Unless participants are in close proximity to the researcher, you may select another setting such as an office or a conference room or other.

Eligibility:

You are eligible to participate in this research if you:

1. Are a uniformed federal police supervisor.
2. Attended a leadership training class since becoming a police officer.

You are not eligible to participate in this research if you:

1. Are not a uniformed federal police supervisor.
2. Have not attended a leadership training class since becoming a police officer.

I hope to include 20 people in this research.

Risks:

There are minimal risks in this study. Potential risks include psychological stress due to recalling a critical incident during the interview. Also, critical observations of your agency could cause sociological embarrassment about ones agency or peer group.

To mitigate risks, participants do not have to answer questions that maybe upsetting and may stop participation at any time. In addition, all agencies and officers will be anonymous.

Benefits:

If you decide to participate, there are no direct benefits to you.

The potential benefits to others are: Your answers will lend to a better understanding of leadership development for police executives.

Confidentiality:

The information you provide will be kept confidential to the extent allowable by law. Some steps I will take to keep your identity confidential are: I will keep your name separate from your answers.

The people who will have access to your information are: myself, and or, my dissertation chair. The Institutional Review Board may also review my research and view your information.

I will secure your information with these steps: locking it in a safe.

I will keep your data for 7 years. Then, I will delete electronic data and destroy paper data.

Contact Information:

If you have questions for me, you can contact me at: j.sheets0253@email.ncu.edu (304) 476-6747

My dissertation chair's name is Dr. Eva Mika. She works at Northcentral University and is supervising me on the research. You can contact her at: emika@ncu.edu (312) 643-1999.

If you have questions about your rights in the research, or if a problem has occurred, or if you are injured during your participation, please contact the Institutional Review Board at: irb@ncu.edu or 1-888-327-2877 ext. 8014.

Voluntary Participation:

Your participation is voluntary. If you decide not to participate, or if you stop participation after you start, there will be no penalty to you. You will not lose any benefit to which you are otherwise entitled.

Audiotaping:

I would like to use a voice recorder to record your responses. You cannot still participate if you do not wish to be recorded.

Please state for the recording that you agree to participate.

Termination of Participation:

If you decide to stop participation, you may do so by: please immediately inform the researcher either verbally, by e-mail, or telephonically. If so, I will not use the information I gathered from you.

New Findings:

Sometimes during a study we learn new information. This information may come from our research or from other researchers. If new information might relate to your willingness to participate, I will give you that information as soon as possible.

Signature:

A signature indicates your understanding of this consent form. You will be given a copy of the form for your information.

Participant Signature

Printed Name

Date

Researcher Signature

Printed Name

Date