LAW ENFORCEMENT LEADERSHIP LITERATURE AND PRACTICE
Let’s Get Rid of Management

People don’t want to be managed. They want to be led.

Whoever heard of a world manager?

World leader, yes.
Educational leader.
Political leader. Religious leader.
Scout leader. Community leader.
Business leader.

They lead. They don’t manage.
The carrot always wins over the stick.
Ask your horse.
You can lead your horse to water,
But you can’t manage him to drink.

If you want to manage somebody,
Manage yourself. Do that well and
You’ll be ready to stop managing –
and start leading.

(United Technologies Corporation, 1986)
LAW ENFORCEMENT LEADERSHIP

Background of the Problem

When studying the ideals and constructs of leadership, many questions arise. These questions beg for answers. Some of these questions include the following: What is the definition of leadership? Is it innate or learned? Can it be taught? Who becomes a leader? How do leaders emerge? How does the study of leadership differ from the study of management? Do certain organizations stifle leadership? How many leaders can there be in an organization? Who are the followers? Were good leaders, good followers? Do leaders need specific experience or can they be generalists?

The law enforcement mission is a crisis-oriented, emergency organization serving a vital public service function in communities across the globe. Playing multiple roles in maintaining law and order, the modern police officer or deputy sheriff wears the hats of a cleric, medic, psychologist, bouncer and mediator. Consequently, the police officer is required to have a high level of organizational commitment not generally expected of most other jobs or professions.

The law enforcement agency plays an integral role in communities across America. The management and leadership of these organizations must identify the needs of the community and provide direction and vision for the public service entities they manage and lead. Police leadership is at a crossroads. Agencies are in need of a fresh perspective on the delivery of services and the treatment of police personnel and the citizens they serve.

A leader is one who often takes risk and has a vision. Leadership implies followers, but leaders must lead by example (Scarano and Jones, 2000). Some
researchers have enumerated several of the characteristics necessary to be an effective leader including initiative, public speaking skills, risk-taking, education, experience, and ability to influence others in a positive way.

Research points to a direct relationship between successful organizations and its commitment to management practice that treat people as assets. (Pfeffer and Viega, 1999). The authors contend that despite current research prescribing participative management and employee involvement, few organizations practice these management techniques. Pfeffer & Viega (1999) review seven practices of successful organizations including employment security, selective hiring, installing self-managed teams and decentralization of the organization, comparatively high compensation based on organizational performance extensive training, sharing information and plans throughout the organization and reduction of status differences.

These authors contend that organizations often destroy competence and that manager’s do not delegate enough. Several doctoral studies from the past ten years have been reviewed with references drawn from this academic work, and accordingly are included and referenced in this paper.

In The New Effective Public Manager, Cohen & Eimicke (1995) pose the question: why does government have so much difficulty managing its programs? The authors contend that management is largely the art of influencing people. Most managers are busy people who spend the majority of their workday accumulating and digesting convergent information. Cohen and Eimicke (1995) cite that political factors replace market forces in the public sector.
In contrasting and comparing private versus public sector, the authors conclude that a private organization has to decide if anyone will buy a new product and ascertain if the organization has the capacity to produce and distribute the product. In contrast, the public manager has to receive permission and gain resources from elected officials before a program can be considered and implemented. Because of public funding, public managers often have to operate in a fishbowl. Media, special interest groups, oversight bodies and legislative entities, as well as citizens, pay attention to where scarce and precious tax dollars are spent (Cohen & Eimicke, 1995).

These authors feel that no one can succeed at public management without taking risks. Public bureaucracies are excessively formal and heavily reliant on written communication. In recent years, there has been a near-professionalism of government service. Early-era government clerks have been replaced by scientists, lawyers, doctors, nurses, engineers and managers holding M.P.A. and M.B.A. and Law degrees (Cohen & Eimicke, 1995).

As the gap between public demands and government capability widens, there is an increased need and reliance on public entrepreneurs. The effective manager must understand when it is time to be cautious and when conflict is needed. An effective manager must recognize that conflict is a by-product of goal accomplishment. While conflict-free environments may be good places to work, they rarely yield new, innovative approaches (Cohen & Eimicke, 1995).

Knowledge, trust and power are three essential forces of high-performance leadership. Zand (1996) suggests that the effective leaders must process knowledge needed to make the right decisions, build trusting relationships that motivate people to be
loyal and committed and willing to share their knowledge. The effective leader should also use power appropriately, with an understanding of when to command and when to delegate, to encourage creativity and initiative.

Kanter (1997) espouses the importance for executives to learn to negotiate and not command. The manager needs to create a change-adept organization, focus on the needs of the customer and encourage innovation and collaboration. Kanter feels that too many managers are fearful of innovating and collaborating. The author recommends that managers need to treat employees as professionals with the respect and dignity they deserve.

Transformational leadership can be most effective in organizations where leadership is necessary to meet the challenges in an ever-changing landscape. It has been found that transactional leadership is effective in stable environments. However, Bass and Avolio (1994) cite that transformational leader behaviors can complement transactional leader behaviors.

Statement of the Problem

Capable and focused leadership is an important ingredient for effectiveness and success of any organization. In policing, leadership is essential for the continued provision of services to keep pace with demands and expectations. Law enforcement managers must apply current, up-to-date approaches to problems facing the communities they are charged to maintain order in and provide for public safety.

In Banishing Bureaucracy, the authors lay out five strategies for reinventing government approaches to programs and services. The five strategies are: core, consequences, customer, control and culture strategies. Managers must identify the core
strategy, which will help understand the true purpose of the organization and help determine role and direction. Managers must also understand consequences to develop incentives to perform. The customer strategy pushes for accountability to the customer. A control strategy seeks to restructure the hierarchies for command and control of an organization. The culture strategy helps the manager target the habits and attitudes of their public employees (Osborne and Plastric, 1997).

Transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership theories have been researched in a number of varied organizational settings (Bass, 1985). The Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was developed with the specific purpose to measure effective leadership in military, government, educational, religious, service and volunteer organizations (Bass, 1995, Bass & Avolio, 1997). A search conducted revealed very little research in the application of the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles related to law enforcement organizations.

As a result, this study potential to advance the literature and have some effect on the way police organizations are managed and led.

Figure One

**Recent Contributions to the Study of Transformational Leadership**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Idealized Influence/Charisma</th>
<th>Hater &amp; Bass, 1993</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instill pride, faint and respect, have a gift for seeing what is really important and relate a sense of mission.</td>
<td>Howell &amp; Frost, 1989</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Articulate goals that transcend selfish or individual interests, clarify a specific identifiable mission for</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhance subordinates self esteem</td>
<td>Sooklal, 1991</td>
</tr>
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</table>
Serves a role model for articulating and promoting vision.  

**Individualized Consideration**  
Focus on self-concept of the employee and the employee’s self-esteem.  

Invites mutuality, a mutual exercise of power guided by an awareness of what is at stake for those involved in the transformation process.  

**Intellectual Stimulation**  
Promotes a culture that encourages and rewards risk taking which facilitates the innovative process and reflects the value management places on employee ideas.  

Assume focal role with innovation by creating and transferring a learning orientation, which facilitates organizational learning.  

Adapted from Lawrence (2000)  

**Justification for this Study**  

By focusing on public managers, specifically law enforcement managers, this study intends to add to the research and body of knowledge regarding public sector and law enforcement management.  

The study of leadership can assist supervisors, managers, and executives in coping with an ever-changing world. Leadership studies attempt to identify actions that have led to effective organizational performance. While it is easy to maintain the status quo, it is a challenge to keep pace with change; hire, motivate and retain personnel; maintain a competitive edge; and remain a “player” in any field. Many managers exert leadership skills, at times, in spite of the organization. Most governmental elements are so bureaucratic that it is difficult to allow or seek creativity and innovation. As new
workers join the fold, there is a natural friction; and there also are generational differences that must be accounted for. As a result, organizations and their personnel must seek effective leadership from managers and executives.

**Purpose of the Research**

The purpose of this research is to look for a relationship between certain leader styles and their effect on job satisfaction, perceived effectiveness, and “extra-effort” by subordinate law enforcement officers. The information presented strives to assist agencies in determining the best approach to leading law enforcement agencies well into the 21st century.

An attempt was made to provide empirical analysis, in the law enforcement arena, to evaluate leadership behaviors and the relationship to outcomes of employee satisfaction, exertion of extra effort and leader effectiveness as perceived by subordinate police officers. The conceptual framework for this research is based on the works of Bass (1985) focused on transformational leadership.

With more information available as to effective leadership competencies, it would enable law enforcement organizations to set policies and develop training and education that attempts to promote the transformational style.

Since a manager’s style has influence over subordinate’s activities, organizational productivity can have a direct relationship by the leader’s approach to staff members (Maguire, 1986).

**Scope of Study**

The scope of this study is focused on the self-reported perception of leader styles by subordinate sworn police officers. The research was aimed at sworn members of the
New England Community-Police Partnership (NECP²). The membership is drawn from police agencies within New England. Most of the officers who are drawn to membership in this non-profit are serving in positions or assignments involving community interactions including DARE officers, school resource officers, community policing officers, crime prevention officers and juvenile officers. The managers that are members of NECP² are generally seeking to learn new ideas and concepts to bring back to their organizations and communities. The selection of this population was intended to gain a view of law enforcement practitioners that are making an effort to redesign the traditional role of the police officer.

Management

While this study focuses on leadership, the concept of management differs and the distinctions need to be understood in order for the reader to fully grasp the nuances between management and leadership.

Taylor (1923) introduced the concept of scientific management. In the early part of the 19th century, Taylor suggested the use of the scientific method to determine the “one best way” or a job to be done. Taylor provided four-principles of management: 1) develop a science for each element of an individual’s work, replacing the old rule-of-thumb method, 2) scientifically select and then train, teach, and develop the worker, 3) heartily cooperate with the workers so as to ensure that all work is done in accordance with the principles of the science that has been developed, 4) divide work and responsibility almost equally between management and workers and, 5) Management takes over all work for which it is better fitted than the workers.
Deming (1982) set the industrial world on a course towards Total Quality Management (TQM). The tenets for TQM revolve around fourteen points set forth by Deming which include: 1) create constancy of purpose, 2) adopt a new philosophy, 3) cease dependence on mass inspection, 4) end the practice of awarding business on the price tag alone, 5) improve constantly and forever the system of production and service, 6) institute training, 7) institute leadership, 8) drive out fear, 9) break down barriers between staff areas, 10) eliminate slogans, exhortations, and targets for the workforce, 11) eliminate numerical quotas, 12) remove barriers to pride of workmanship, 13) institute a vigorous program of education and retraining, and, 14) take action to accomplish the transformation (Deming, 1982 & Walton, 1988).

Deming’s work did much to empower employees, involve them at every level to make continuous improvements and eliminate the straight, hierarchical structures of manufacturing and other industrial complexes.

Continuing and advancing the work of Deming, Creech (1994) concluded that in order for TQM to be successfully implemented an organization needs to insure that five pillars made up of product, process, organization, leadership and commitment provide a solid foundation. Creech (1994, p. 6) states that:

- Product is the focal point for organization purpose and achievement. Quality in the product is impossible without quality in the process.
- Quality in the process is impossible without the right organization. The right organization is meaningless without the proper leadership. Strong, bottom-up commitment is the support pillar for all the rest. Each pillar depends on the other four, and if one is weak, all are.
As one reviews the approaches to management studies, one confronts the quantitative approach, the contingency approach, human resource approach, systems approach, and the process approach.

Leadership

James MacGregor Burns (1978) introduced the concepts of transactional and transformation leadership, expanding the range of leadership to be studied and applied. Subsequently, extensive work in the United States and abroad shows that the concept of considering a full range of leadership is a powerful predictor in promoting individual, team, organizational, and community development and effectiveness.

Leadership, as it has been most commonly practiced, and studied over the last half century, involves an exchange or transactional relationship between the leader and associates. Leaders identify and clarify objectives for or with their associates, indicate how these objectives can be achieved, and reward associates for meeting these objectives or correct them when failure occurs.

Over the past decade, there has been a transformation of leadership systems that redefined relationships between leaders and followers. This has been caused by a movement away from traditional authoritarian control towards a more collaborative leader style (Bennis, 1989 & Avolio, 1997)

The values-based leadership theory (Tichy and Sherman, 1993 & DePree 1992) is encouraged and expanded by Preziosi (1996). This model sets forth constructs that a leader needs to believe in and do in order to promote high performance organizations in the future. There are twenty (20) beliefs and actions for each leader to consider:
1) attend intently, 2) build on success, 3) champion the shared vision, 4) generate renewal, 5) embrace diversity, 6) energize oneself, 7) learn from others, 8) listen to internal prompts, 9) honor the environment, 10) measure all activities, 11) offer learning resources, 12) acknowledge everyone’s value, 13) practice effective leadership behavior, 14) provide opportunities for people to succeed, 15) put followers first, 16) see the “big picture,” 17) extend the boundaries, 18) encourage team development, 19) exercise mental agility, and 20) use mental rehearsal (Preziosi, 1996).

Each of these values should provide an opportunity for an organization to discuss the future independently or collectively and decide which values are important and will promote high performance.

Goleman (2000) touts the necessity of leaders using their emotional intelligence. The author cites that previous research has found that most successful leaders, exercising emotional intelligence, show strengths in self-awareness (emotional self awareness, accurate self assessment, and self-confidence) self-management (self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, achievement orientation, and initiative) social awareness (empathy, organizational awareness, service awareness) and social skills (visionary leadership, influence, developing others, communication, change catalyst, conflict management, building bonds, teamwork and collaboration).

Similar to the tenants of situational leadership, Goleman’s research suggests that leaders use six a combination of leadership styles, as dictated by each situation or event. They include: 1) the coercive style [the “do what I say” approach], 2) the authoritative style, [a “come with me approach”], 3) the affiliative style, [a “people come first” attitude], 4) the democratic style, [giving workers a voice] 5) the pacesetting style [sets
high performance standards and exemplifies them], and 6) the coaching style [focus more on personal development than on immediate work-related tasks.]

Goleman feels that an exemplary leader needs a repertoire of many styles to work with in an organizational environment. Given the differences in people, the skills, knowledge and abilities, each event needs a differing approach.

According to the Center for Leadership Studies, transformational leaders:
1) Set high standards of conduct and become a role model gaining trust, respect and confidence from others; 2) Articulate the future desired state and a plan to achieve it; 3) Question the status quo and continuously innovate, even at the peak of success; 4) energize people to develop and achieve their full potential and performance (CLS Materials, Binghamton University, 2001).

Several challenges arise regarding transformational leadership. For instance, in order for a transformational leader to be effective, the follower has to be ready for transformation and willing to follow (Bass, 1990). There are many that are disinterested in change; thus content to maintain the status quo. Many workers are happy coming to work and doing merely what they are told. These types of employees prefer to relegate responsibility and accountability to the manager. Thus, much of current management practice in public organizations is believed to breed mediocrity (Reiter, 1999).

Full Range of Leadership

Avolio (1997) cites the full range of leadership model as the underlying constructs for the MLQ. This model describes that leaders utilize a wide group of different forms of leader behaviors. The author supports the idea that the characteristics of behavior leaders choose, depends upon each individual subordinate’s potential. The range of
behaviors start with transformational leader behaviors to transactional leader behaviors reaching to the lowest leader interaction of laissez-faire leader behavior (Avolio, 1997).

Avolio contends that in the present era, organizations draw on a brighter and more challenging workforce. Because of the potential of these knowledge workers, the management and leadership of organizations require a different approach from the industrial era. The author suggests that transformational leadership behaviors hold the best potential for an organization’s growth, effectiveness and efficiency. The difficulty in change management lies in the human elements rather than technology systems. Human systems are “embedded in an old system of behavior” long after change has supposedly taken place (Avolio, 1997).

Evolution of Policing

In early America, the “beat-cop” was assigned to an area to patrol on foot. Before the advent of radio communications, “coppers” would check in at pre-determined intervals through the use of “call boxes” that were located at points throughout a city or town. An officer used a whistle to summon assistance. During this era, “beat” officers were familiar with the neighborhood, its residents, and business owners. However, as cities and towns grew, police agencies attempted to keep pace with technology, and consequently added automobiles and radio communications. Police agencies have promised rapid response.

Over the past fifteen years, the promise of federal funding has focused and encouraged change among law enforcement agencies of the United States. The infusion of funds has swollen the ranks of agencies with new officers. Guidelines for implementation have caused agencies to change the way they do business. In some
instances, agencies have used the opportunity to look at the application and usefulness of business practices in the law enforcement arena. However, many chief executives have been reluctant to make wholesale changes to their organizations.

A law enforcement agency is a labor intensive, service oriented organization. Law enforcement can never be totally automated or mechanized because the delivery of services requires individual officers to respond to calls for service. These officers require constant training, and thus agencies should strive for training integration.

As a 24-hour, 365 day-a-year, operation, law enforcement personnel find it difficult to take time out to “retool.” Any change in process must be simultaneous with the provision of services. These changes must take place “on the fly.” Police agency personnel have no choice but to continue with the provision of routine service moments after a catastrophe or tragic incident. There is rarely “downtime” for retooling or implementation of new systems or change in operating procedures. However, as police agency management struggles with keeping pace with information technology and public expectations, many organizations have turned to the implementation of community policing to address these issues.

Community Policing

The current organizational structure of most police agencies is vertical. Many agencies have attempted to aim towards a more horizontal organization to get closer to the customers. This structuring would require the agency to flatten the organization. Many agencies thereby are pushing decisions downward. This change recognizes the shift from a mechanized workforce to a staff of knowledge workers. The adoption of decentralization strategies recognizes that a customer focus is imperative. Police sub-
stations thus are being created to allow for easier access of police services by citizens. They are situated in high-traffic areas and many are staffed by superior officers who have been given new decision-making ability. In many agencies, a number of officers have been designated as “community policing officers.”

The community policing philosophy, as well as the accreditation process, encourages the police agency to involve civilians from outside the agency in the planning and strategic focus of the department. Community policing is more fully described in the chapters ahead. Civilian Police Academy, Community Advisory Boards and Civilian Review Boards are more commonplace today. These groups serve to open the lines of communication. With two-way communication, the agency can better understand the needs of the customer and respond to the changing needs more quickly. A community involved with its police is more apt to trust the police organization. It is more apt to give full support to the efforts of the organization (NECP² Symposium Materials, 1994).

In order for community policing work, there must be communications channels developed between law enforcement and community members, who are the true “customers” of police agencies. Many law enforcement agencies seem to have forgotten who their customers are. Agencies have become too process oriented and legalistic. Such agencies consequently have been held “hostage” by a lack of vision.

There needs to be assessment of a number of different areas, including customers, employees, and other internal and external sources. The different types of assessments that are possible encompass mission, values, planning and vision statement assessments, ethics assessments, customer and citizen assessments, employee assessments, performance assessments, “benchmarking,” and quality assessments. Although quality
assessments are worthy goals, they require, actually they demand, extensive resources, commitment, and expertise. Because most public sector organizations traditionally have been weak in organizational assessment, most would do well to target just a few areas that have a prima facie need in order to strengthen some of their inferior areas and build their assessment capabilities (Van Wart, 1995).

Systems need to be developed to obtain feedback from customers. This “feedback loop” is important to effective two-way communications. Many agencies have administered surveys to determine customer satisfaction. At the outset, many police agency employees are reluctant to employ this tactic, fearing low ratings. However, in many settings, the ratings have been favorable and have provided useful feedback. For community surveys to be useful and accepted, a change in mind-set would be needed from the rank and file and many administrators. In order for these concepts to work, the police leader needs to accept these changes and communicate their commitment to police personnel and improving the police infrastructure.

Transformational leadership definition — a conception of leadership theory that maintains transformational leadership is influential in motivating and transforming followers to be more aware of task outcomes, activate their highest order needs and to go beyond their own self-interest for the benefit of the organization. This is achieved because the transformational leader seeks to build commitment, empower and elevate followers to the greatest degree possible. Because of transformational influence, followers are motivated to do more than they originally would and feel a greater degree of respect and trust for the leader. The “backbone” of this theory is that followers are more motivated to enhance their performance by transformational leadership rather than
transactional leadership (Bass and Avolio, 1988, 1990). A dynamic leader-follower process concerned with heightening the level of follower awareness by motivating followers to do more than originally expected by transcending their own self-interest or relating to higher order needs of the individual (Bass, 1985).

**Significance of this Study**

This proposal has a potentially significant contribution to make to leadership research as it relates to the public sector, specifically to organizations providing police services to communities throughout the United States. The research intends to explain the benefits of certain leader styles, and thereby to enhance job satisfaction, effectiveness, and “extra effort” of subordinate officers.

**Implications of this Study**

This study has potential implications for identifying leader behaviors that may improve productivity and personnel retention, as well as enhance police/community relations and the delivery of service. The study may also contribute to the field by enhancing or refining the focus of a law enforcement leadership development programs. Because of the importance of this role in our communities, the study of leadership practices and behaviors and the impact on job satisfaction, effectiveness and exertion of extra effort by subordinates remains significant to public safety.

As a result, this study and its findings may be extended to other crisis-oriented emergency response agencies including fire service, emergency medical specialists, military and rescue units.
LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

A review of the available literature was undertaken, focusing on journal articles and books dedicated to the study of management, leadership, public management and community policing. After reviewing the literature in the area of leadership in private and public organizations, it was found that much literature over the past fifty years has been aimed at identifying and comparing behaviors, traits, characteristics, and reactions of subordinates to those certain behaviors in differing work environs. Little research has focused on this relationship within the law enforcement field.

While there has been work in the area of public management, community policing, and job—technology fit, there is scant research focusing on leader styles and the relationship with job satisfaction and exertion of “extra effort” in police service. Leadership, as it relates to the policing environment, is therefore, one variable that was studied for this research. This study thus focuses on addressing the relationship between leader styles and the effect on law enforcement officer’s job satisfaction, “extra effort” and perceived leader effectiveness.

This literature review examines several general theories of leadership. However, significant attention has been paid to literature relating to transformational leadership theory, as well as literature that focuses on policing and public management. The study of leadership has grown as is evidenced by the available literature since the early 1900’s.

Charles Garfield (1986, p. 18) said: “In the peak performing organization; it all boils down to people, people make financial decisions, people develop innovative products. People are the basic natural resources of business.” If this assertion is true,
more attention must be paid to the law enforcement workforce. Given the new demands and expectations of law enforcement agencies, effective leadership is essential in every law enforcement organization.

Much of Bass’ research has focused on military leadership (Bass, 2000). While there are distinct differences between the military and police organizational cultures and leadership styles, the similarities should be explored. According to Yammarino (1990), the military has made significant changes in their leadership structure and styles over the past twenty years. In the past, many police organizations were modeled after the American military, in structure, rank, discipline, communications and chain of command. In earlier years, many police recruits were drawn from the large pool of military veterans. While there may be applicability of military models in policing the climate has been changing. Yammarino and Bass (1990) points out that transformational leadership can often be a balanced aid in the use of transactional leadership.

Masi & Cook (2000) find there have been bureaucratic constraints on leadership styles, in the military models.

**Overview of Leadership**

There have been many attempts to understand and define leadership.

Gross (1996, p. xx) defined leadership as:

> The art of getting work done with and through other people. There is a positive and negative in all people. The leader has to suppress the negative and bring out the positive in order to yield a beneficial outcome for the mission at hand.

One looks to successful people in sports, business, government, and military for “shortcuts,” helpful hints, and secrets. People look for the common threads among
practices of effective leaders. Many managers try to pick up hints from such people to use in the workplace. Recent books on the topic include *21 Irrefutable Laws of Leadership* by John C. Maxwell (1998), *Sevens Habits of Highly Successful People* by Stephen Covey (1990), *The Stuff of Heroes* by William A. Cohen, Ph.D. (1998), and *The Fifth Discipline* by Peter Senge (1994).

Senge (1994) feels that hierarchical authority is more effective at securing compliance than it is in fostering commitment. The author identifies three types of leaders who develop new understandings, new skills and new capabilities and yet who come from many parts of an organization. Senge (1994) refers to “local line” leaders who are often focused on their particular unit or department. He cites “executive leaders” who provide support and develop infrastructures so others can lead and “internal networkers” who may have no positional authority, but whose influence comes from the strength of their convictions and clarity of ideas and their ability to be highly accessible to many parts of the organization.

Because of a view that leadership emanates only from the executive titles and office suites, this mindset stifles creativity and reinforces a lack of initiative, enterprise and entrepreneurship exercised by other members in the organization (Senge, 1996). He states that in order to be an effective leader in a true learning organization, one has to be willing to give up many mental models and give up what has made one successful in the past. Many expect leaders to communicate a conceptual framework for organizations.

Followers look to leaders to ask and seek answers to questions such as: Where have we come from? Where are we going and why are we heading there? What are the insights into the organization? What makes us unique?
According to Senge (1996) followers also look for personnel commitment to learning, teamwork and other important values and new ideas from senior managers. The author suggests that the best way for an executive to learn is to ask questions and he recommends a series of questions intended to diagnose strengths or weaknesses of the organization. These questions include: What are our unifying values? What have we stood for over time? How do you organize your time? Is it spent on what you say is important? Whom do you depend on? What are you being paid for? How well do you practice teamwork, empowerment, service or whatever values you espouse? How do you convey difficult issues?

In *Stewardship*, Block (1993, p. 6) encourages a change in the traditional leadership hierarchy and suggests that the organization be centered on a commitment to serve the organization at all levels. Block feels that stewardship “begins with the willingness to be accountable for some higher body than ourselves—an organization, a community.” Stewardship is defined as allowing people to define purpose and to engage in dialogue with others having joint accountability.

Total Quality Management (TQM) is a management philosophy driven by a focus on customer needs, continuous improvement, accurate measurement and empowerment of employees (Deming, 1988). Scholtes (1999) spelled out leadership competencies based on a review of the works of Dr. W. Edwards Deming. He cites:

- Competency 1. Thinking systems and leading systems.
- Competency 2. Understanding variability
- Competency 3. Leading the Learning
- Competency 4. Understanding Human Behavior
Competency 5. Interactions and Interdependencies.

Competency 6. Giving the Organization Direction and Focus.

Total Quality Leadership (TQL) tenets suggest that the focal point of any organization should be on the customer or client, and that customer satisfaction should be the benchmark for successful organizational. According to reviews of police practices, the community relation efforts of the past were designed to ensure that the public liked the police, but did little to allow for citizen involvement in decision-making. Harrison (1996) feels that TQL is grounded in the works of Barnard, who argued that authority is not imposed from above but granted by employees based on trust of the leader, as well as performance and capabilities.

In the Taiwanese Pharmaceutical Industry, a study using the LEAD survey instrument as found that high performance leaders preferred to utilize the participative style of leadership for effectiveness with a high degree of flexibility (Lee, 1999). In the study, low performing leaders opted to use a “selling and telling” style of leadership.

Using the Ohio State studies as a basis, the Managerial Grid was conceived (Blake & Mouton, 1964,1994). A grid was set up, using four quadrants focused on task behavior and relationships. The researchers found five different styles of leadership based upon the leaders concern for production (task behavior) and concern for people (relationship behavior). The grid was determined by completion of a questionnaire by Blake & Mouton. The grid is intended to be an attitudinal model for the measurement of any predispositions of a manager or leader. The differing management approaches are termed as task management, country club management, impoverished management, middle of the road management and team management. In training provided for
management, Blake and Mouton (1964) favor a team management style or a middle-of-the-road style.

Studying the follower or subordinate, McClelland (1988) found that achievement-motivated people generally have characteristics in common. They have the ability to set high, but attainable goals and are concerned with personal achievement instead of rewards for success and a desire for task related feedback (how well am I doing?) instead of attitudinal feedback (how well do you like me?). This work served as a basis for the Situational Leadership model.

The development of the Situational Leadership theory was formulated on the premise that all people are different. Since the needs, motives and experiences of each employee is different, they should be treated differently by managers. Situational leadership is based on the theory that each individual is at differing stages of readiness and willingness.

In the Situational Leadership model, the readiness of the follower is used to determine the level of leader interaction or attention. As the readiness and ability of the follower increases, there can be a reduction in the manager’s task oriented behavior.

High task/low relationship leader behavior is referred to as “telling”. This style is characterized by one-way communication (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969, 1996).

The dual-factor theory comes from the work of Herzberg, et al (1959) and, focused on the belief that one has two sets of needs—motivator needs and hygiene needs. Theory X and Theory Y are two humanistic organizational leader styles that were raised through the works of McGregor (1960)

The first model developed using the leadership contingency theory had three
situational variables. Leader-member relations, task structure and position power were constructs identified by Fiedler (1964). Fiedler (1964) developed the first leadership contingency model. Fiedler (1967) presented the contingency theory with the concept that the leadership style that one uses should depend on the situation. The Fiedler model has three situational variables: 1) personal relations with members of the group (leader-member relations) 2) degree of structure in the task that has been assigned (task structure), and 3) power and authority the position provides (position power). In the 1970’s, the contingency theory dominated discussion and study.

That is the way one leads a group of people will depend on whom one is working with, and what one is doing. A person will lead a group making sandwiches differently than one will lead a group making nuclear bombs. According to this theory, the effectiveness of the style depends on the specific situation.

Cohen (2000) identified eight fundamental tactics that a leader may use in any situation to influence others, regardless of the leader’s style. They include direction, persuasion, negotiation, involvement, enlistment, redirection, and repudiation.

Boulgarides and Cohen (2001) revisited their early work on leadership style. They theorized that leaders developed a leader style model that encompassed four basic styles: directive, analytic, conceptual and behavioral. This theory has a conceptual framework similar to the situational leadership theory. They developed a matrix to detail patterns of behaviors, shown as Table X.
Drucker (1998) cautions that dated policies and practices are often at odds with reality and counterproductive. Most assumptions that led to earlier practices become outdated and few policies can survive or remain valid. Few policies can survive for more than 20 or 30 years without revision. Drucker refutes differences in management citing that application is different rather than the principle, which can be generalized (Drucker, 1992). According to Drucker, whether the organization is a retail outlet or a Catholic diocese, the differences are negligible. For instance, executives of all organizations spend a similar amount of energy dealing with people problems. Drucker (1998) cautions that behavioral science has repeatedly sought the “one best way” for organizational structure and management approach. Drucker espouses the need of having only “one master.”

Seminal Theorists and Leadership Studies

The literature on management dates back to Frederick Taylor (1911), who studied scientific management, and Fayol (1916), who wrote that the manager’s role was to plan, to organize, to command, to coordinate, and to control. Taylor’s (1911) work included a proposal of four underlying principles of scientific management: 1) a need to develop a

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STYLE</th>
<th>THINKING</th>
<th>PRIMARY MOTIVATION</th>
<th>DECISION PROCESS</th>
<th>ACTIONS UNDER STRESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Directive</td>
<td>Focused</td>
<td>Power &amp; Status</td>
<td>Follows Rules</td>
<td>Loses Self Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analytic</td>
<td>Logical</td>
<td>Challenge</td>
<td>Analysis &amp; Insight</td>
<td>Follows Established Rules/Procedures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conceptual</td>
<td>Creative</td>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>Intuition &amp; Judgment</td>
<td>Becomes Erratic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral</td>
<td>Emotional</td>
<td>Acceptance</td>
<td>Feeling &amp; Instinct</td>
<td>Attempts to Avoid Situation</td>
</tr>
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Table X—Patterns of Behaviors Dependent on Leader Style—Boulgarides & Cohen JAME, Spring 2001
“science of work” 2) to replace “rule of thumb” methods, 3) selection of workers through “scientific” methods and 4) training each to be “first class” at a specific task.

Weber (1924), a German sociologist, was the first to utilize the term “charismatic leadership.” Weber’s early 19th century study of charisma indicated that charismatic authority is found in personal qualities of individual leaders. He found that leader’s are selected by their followers based on a belief that the leader is extraordinarily gifted. Weber’s theory of charisma contains five elements: 1) an individual with extraordinary abilities, 2) a crisis, 3) a revolutionary answer, 4) followers who are attracted to the leader because they feel they are somehow linked to him, and 5) confirmation of the leader’s abilities in repeated experiences of success.

Stodgill’s (1948) initial work included an analysis of more than 100 studies of leader characteristics and traits. The Handbook of Leadership, 3rd Edition, by Bass (1990) refers to more than 5,000 separate leadership studies that included descriptions of leadership ideas, constructs, principles and theories. Most of these studies were focused on some dimension of transactional leadership. There were, however, few studies that focused on leadership in policing. The authors concluded that a successful leader had above average abilities in the following traits: intelligence, dominance, and self-confidence, level of energy and activity, and task-relevant knowledge.

The investigation and study of leadership began with researchers looking at leaders to identify personality traits, which aided their ability to lead. Leadership studies attempt to illuminate the elements required for the emergence of leadership or with the nature of leadership and its consequences. Theories attempt to show the interrelationships among the elements believed to be necessary.
Some studies focused on traits such as intelligence, birth order, socioeconomic status, and child-rearing practices. Early studies conducted by Stodgill (1948) and Bass (1960) enumerated several factors associated with leadership. Stodgill (1974) listed capacity, achievement, responsibility, participation, status, and situation as dimensions of leadership. The trait approach concentrated on leadership traits or attributes. Attitudinal or behavioral approaches to leadership studies are typified by the Ohio State University and Michigan State University leadership studies in the 1940’s.

In an effort to identify the dimensions of leadership behavior, the Ohio State University initiated studies in 1945, which eventually narrowed the description of leader behavior as initiating structure or consideration. These studies were based on observed leader behaviors.

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) was developed by the Ohio State staff to allow subordinates to describe how often their leaders engage in certain behaviors based on their observations. Characteristics and behavior related to the dimension of consideration (relationship behavior) include: 1) leader finding time to listen to group members, 2) leader is willing to make change, 3) leader is friendly and approachable. Characteristics and behavior related to the dimension of initiating structure (task behavior) include: 1) leader assigns members particular tasks, 2) leader asks members to follow standards and regulations, 3) leaders lets members know expectations (Scott, Ohio State University 1956).

The Michigan Leadership studies dealt with the observed behavior of managers and their interaction with subordinates and the relationship to job satisfaction and productivity. This observed behavior took place in both a business and industrial setting.
The three dimensions of leader behavior that were found to affect productivity included; assumption of the leader role, closeness of supervision, and an employee orientation (Katz and Kahn, 1950).

Much of the focus has been on power-influence, leader behavior, or situational factors that interact with behavior traits or power (Yukl, 1989). Heifetz and Laurie (1997) feel that leaders need to unlearn several of their skills or approaches to leadership. They suggest that the CEO should stop providing the answers and instead ask “tough” question of his/her staff to encourage adaptive change. The authors suggest six principles in leading adaptive change: “getting on the balcony,” identifying the adaptive challenge, regulating distress, maintaining disciplined attention, giving work back to the people and protecting the voices of leadership from below.

Kanter (1999) conducted research in the area of empowerment bureaucracy, the characteristics of resistance to change and change management. Kanter identified innovation, entrepreneurship and the development of "participative management" skills as keys to corporate renaissance. She posits the any opportunity to reflect real change requires an adjustment to their behavior. Because of the forces of globalization, information technology and industry consolidation many organizations have been forced to change. Kanter (1999) identified three key attributes for leaders engaged in changing their organization: 1) the imagination to innovate and develop new concepts, 2) the professionalism to perform and develop competence, 3) the openness to collaborate though making connections. The author also makes suggestions for executives to take charge of change rather than merely reacting to change. These constructs include: tuning into the environment, challenging the prevailing organizational wisdom, communicating
a compelling aspiration, building coalitions, transferring ownership of solutions to a working team, learning to persevere and making everyone a hero through recognition and rewards (Kanter, 1999).

**Motivation Theories**

There are several theorists who studied motivation. Maslow (1954) developed a theory based on a hierarchy of needs. Herzberg (1959) two-factor, or Motivation-Hygiene Theory states that the basic needs of survival and security function are dissatisfiers or maintenance factors. McClelland’s (1988) theory of human motives deals with how the motives of achievement, power, and affiliation affect behavior. According to McClelland, achievement and power are positive factors that lead to high performance.

Skinner (1988) explored the theory of reinforcement. This theory holds that the consequences of a person’s behavior determine the level of motivation and that behavior, when reinforced, will be repeated. MacGregor (1977) focused on the relationship between motivation and behavior. MacGregor believes that managers motivate employees using two different approaches, coined by McClelland as theory X and theory Y. In a traditional approach, theory X managers must coerce, control or threaten employees to motivate them. Under theory X, money and fringe benefits are motivating factors. Theory Y manager’s believe that people are capable of being responsible and self-directed. These theories are capsulated as: 1) people seek security, 2) people seek social systems, and 3) people seek personal growth.

The contingency theory was conceived by Fiedler (1967). In Fiedler’s view, the effectiveness of task-oriented and relations-oriented leaders is contingent upon the
demands imposed by each differing situation. Fiedler emphasizes the benefit of placing the need to place into situations they are best suited for.

Using the Ohio State studies as a basis, the Managerial Grid was conceived (Blake & Mouton, 1964). A grid was set up using four quadrants focused on task behavior and relationships. The researchers found five different styles of leadership based upon the leaders concern for production (task behavior) and concern for people (relationship behavior). The grid was determined by completion of a questionnaire by Blake & Mouton. The grid is intended to be an attitudinal model for the measurement of any predispositions of a manager or leader. The differing management approaches are termed as task management, country club management, impoverished management, middle of the road management and team management. In training provided for management, Blake and Mouton favor a team management style or a middle-of-the-road style.

The development of the Situational Leadership theory was formulated based on the premise that all people are different. Since the needs, motives and experience of each employee is different, each should be treated differently by managers, based on readiness level of the follower and ability.

Studying the follower or subordinate, (McClelland, 1988) it was found that achievement-motivated people generally have characteristics in common. They have the ability to set high, but attainable goals and are concerned with personal achievement instead of rewards for success and a desire for task related feedback (how well am I doing?) instead of attitudinal feedback (how well do you like me?). This work served as a basis for development of the Situational Leadership model.
In the Situational Leadership model, the readiness of the follower is used to determine the level of leader interaction. As the readiness and ability of the follower increases, there can be a reduction in the manager’s task oriented behavior and interaction.

High relationship/high task relationship leader behavior is referred to as “telling”. This style is characterized by one-way communication. High relationship/high task is referred to as “selling.” In situations where there is high relationship/low task, it is an indicator of an able but unwilling subordinate suggesting a participative leadership behavior. In situations where there are low relationship/low task a delegating leadership behavior is recommended (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996).

It is easier for a manager to get people involved in an organizational change, a project, or process when they have an understanding of the purpose, the reasons behind a task and mission, and have input. Because the line worker is closer to the delivery of services, he or she can often make significant contributions to improved service (Sussman and Deep, 1995).

Einstein (2001) writes of the catalysts for motivation and presents a model of motivation. The author professes that all people problems are based as motivational issues. Yet, Einstein cautions that the majority of performance problems are not “people problems,” but instead are rooted as “process related” issues. A leader’s proactive attitude can help remove administrative roadblocks and become a pathfinder. The leader is responsible to: 1) make performance tasks and standards clear, 2) establish a proactive attitude, 3) understand that clear goals are plans expressed as measurable results achieved, 4) have positive power to reward and punish.
Burns (1978) described the characteristics of leaders as they influence followers as either transactional or transformational. Burns described managers as transactors and leaders as transformers. Burns felt that transactional leaders influence followers based on contingent reward systems. However, he felt that a transformational leader recognizes follower needs thereby attempting to meet the follower’s higher needs to more fully engage that follower. Bass (1985) continued the work of Burns by focusing on the characteristics of a transformational leader. Bass (1990) contended that prior to Burns’ (1978) work on transformational versus transactional leadership, the study focused on democratic, autocratic, or laissez-faire leadership. Bass and Avolio (1993) identified four components, known as the 4 - I’s of Transformational Leadership: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration. Bass and Avolio point out that there is constant interplay between culture and leadership. Fisher (1994) feels that transformational leadership is the only style supported by empirical data.

According to Bennis (1985, 1989, p. 18), “leaders are people who do the right thing; managers are people who do things right.” One trait that Bennis finds in exemplary leaders is an ability to “draw others to them, not just because they have a vision but because they communicate an extraordinary focus on commitment” (Bennis, 1989, p. 19) Bennis believes the management controls, arranges, does things right; leadership unleashes energy, sets the vision so people do the right thing.

Bennis (1989) set forth several ingredients that make a leader. The ingredients of a leader include having a guiding vision, having integrity, curiosity, daring, candor, maturity, and trust.
Bennis (1989, p. 45) also composed a list comparing and contrasting managers and leaders.

The manager administers; the leader innovates. The manager is a copy; the leader is an original. The manager maintains; the leader develops. The manager focuses on systems and structure; the leader focuses on people. The manager relies on control; the leader inspires trust. The manager has a short-range view; the leader has a long-range perspective. The manager asks how and when; the leader asks what and why. The manager has his eye always on the bottom line; the leader has his eye on the horizon. The manager imitates; the leader originates. The manager accepts the status quo; the leader challenges it. The manager is the classic good soldier; the leader is his own person. The manager does things right; the leader does the right thing.

While these contrasts may seem simplistic, upon close examination, the comparisons take on distinct differences. Clearly, transformational leaders exercise several of the constructs laid out by Bennis for leaders.

Bennis (1999) feels that an executive’s role is to generate intellectual capital. This can be accomplished by selecting the right people, allocating capital resources and spreading ideas quickly.

Bennis points to research that have identified several essential leadership attributes that provide a guide for leading knowledge workers. These include: technical competence, conceptual skills, history of achieving results, people skills, ability to identify and cultivate talent, judgment and character.

Bennis (1999) writes that there cannot be trust without candor. Therefore, exceptional leaders create an organizational climate that removes fear and the barriers
that generally cause employees to keep bad news or ideas from the manager. The concept of developing and retaining intellectual capital is important to organizational strategy and leadership development. Good leaders believe they have responsibility to encourage employee growth and allow for constant learning.

Hersey and Blanchard (1974, 1982) developed the life-cycle theory, currently referred to as Situational Leadership. This theory holds that differing situations require differing types of leader responses or practices. This theory suggests that dependent on the situation, a leader may use more or less direction (task behavior) more or less support (relationship behavior) based upon the level of maturity displayed by the follower/subordinate.

After studying CEO’s and reviewing previous management studies, Mintzberg (1975) concluded that managerial work involved interpersonal, informational and decisional roles. Each of these roles requires a number of skills by the manager including negotiating, motivating and decision-making with minimal information. Mintzberg postulates that the job of managing does not breed reflective planners, rather they are conditioned by their jobs to prefer live, more instant, action to delayed action.

Transformational and Charismatic Leadership Theories

The genesis of transformational leadership stems from the works of Weber (1924/1947), House (1979) and his work on charismatic leadership, and Burns (1978) who wrote of the transforming leader. Bass (1988) and others expanded this work as they looked at the constructs of transformational leadership. Bass has worked in the area of leadership for more than fifty years. Bass (1999) created several measurement tools and most recently wrote of the importance of ethical behavior from the leader. Since the
measurement instrument is intended to measure transformational and transactional leader styles, the transformational leadership theory will be explored more fully later in this chapter.

House’s Path-Goal Theory (1971) included the interaction between leadership behaviors and situational characteristics to determine the leader’s effectiveness. House (1977) conducted further study in the area of charismatic leadership. His theory shows that the leader traits that are perceived as charismatic include having a strong need for power, high self-confidence, and strong convictions. According to House, behaviors that are common in charismatic leaders involve role modeling, creating impressions of competence and accomplishment, clarification of ideological goals, expressing high expectations, and displaying confidence in follower’s ability to build their self-confidence.

Twenty-five years after House formulated the path-goal theory of leadership, he wrote a retrospective. The path-goal theory focuses on leader behaviors as independent variables. In 1974, House and Mitchell identified and defined four kinds of behavior: directive, path-goal clarifying leader behavior, 2) supportive leader behavior, 3) participative leader behavior, 4) achievement oriented behavior.

Bass conceived the concept of transformational leadership in 1985. Over the next fifteen years, the constructs of transformational leadership were studied, refined, and validated by a number of researchers. Bass made efforts to extend his work to include educators, military, and industrial workplaces. In recent years, studies have reflected on the kind of leader and leadership required to bring about change, termed transformational leadership.
The review of leadership literature reflects Bass’ evolution from organizational theory and psychology to his current area of interest, that of leadership. Since the Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire, developed by Bass (1988, 1995) was utilized in this study, focusing on law enforcement leaders, the works of Bass and allied researchers were extensively reviewed, described, and discussed in detail.

In Transformational Leadership: Industrial, Military and Educational Impact Bass (1998) presented the data and findings of recent studies that included extensive work for U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences. Because meta-analyses of transformational/transactional leader behaviors were found to be valid as predictors of effectiveness the MLQ was modified slightly to accommodate the distinct differences of the military organization. Bass and Avolio (2000) conducted a study aimed at platoon leader/officers (Second Lieutenants) and platoon sergeants for eighteen (18) platoons in the United States Army. The results of this study were in line with Bass & Avolio’s previous work on the full range model of leadership. The study concluded that where platoon leaders used transformational leader behaviors, their platoons were seen as being more effective in training and in field exercises.

Waterman (1986) suggests that empowerment is one of the eight themes in renewal organizations. He cites that within broad boundaries, individuals are given responsibility to produce results in their own way as well as the opportunity to show initiative, participate in decisions affecting themselves and becomes a source of valuable information.

Another piece was written to assist in identifying steps for effective leadership. Clawson (1996) suggests that a leader must: 1) clarify ones center, 2) clarify what is
possible, 4) clarify what others can contribute, 4) support others so they can contribute, 5) be relentless, and; 6) measure and celebrate progress.

Couto (1999) discusses the differences between Burns’ “transforming leadership” theory and Bass’ “transformational leadership.” Using Bass’ terms, transformational leaders—transform followers. The direction of influence is primarily unidirectional in transformational leadership. Bass’ work includes the leader’s capacity to expand the follower’s portfolio of needs and wants.

Ackoff (1999) cites that most people use the terms administration, management, and leadership interchangeably. He believes that understanding the differences can lead to improved leadership and help shape organizational transformation. According to Ackoff, it takes courage to envision and lead change. It requires injecting inspiration and instilling courage in others. Ackoff postulates that leadership is an aesthetic activity, and as such cannot be taught. Transformational leaders are driven by ideas and not by the expectations of others. Ackoff writes that transformational leaders are skillful at “beating the system,” not surrendering to it. Transformational leaders thus must understand systems and how transformation differs from transition.

Bass (1990) sets forth below, as exhibit 1, the characteristic of two types of leaders, transformational leader and transactional leader.

Figure 2

Characteristics of Transformational and Transformational Leadership

Transformational Leader

Charisma: Provides vision and sense of mission, instills pride, gains respect and trust.
Inspiration: Communicates high expectations, uses symbols to focus efforts, expresses important purposes in simple ways.

Intellectual Stimulation: Promotes intelligence, rationality, and artful problem solving.
**Individualized Consideration**: Gives personal attention, treats each employee individually, coaches, and advises.

Transactional Leader  
**Contingent Reward**: Contract exchange of rewards for effort, promises rewards for good performance, recognizes accomplishments.  
**Management by Exception (active)**: Watches and searches for deviations from rules and standards, takes corrective action.  
**Management by Exception (passive)**: Intervenes only if standards are not met.  
**Laissez-Faire**: Abdicates responsibility, avoids making decisions.  
Bass, Organizational Dynamics (1990)

As is evident in Figure 2, there are distinct differences between the two types of leaders. The transformational leader is more apt to delegate, and have faith in the employee. Those working under a transformational leader thereby are given the opportunity to create or devise new work approaches. It is more likely that innovative approaches will take shape under a transformational leader.

Bass utilizes the term “transformational leadership,” which is comprised of four dimensions. He identified the Four I’s; idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized concern. Transformational leaders are seen as charismatic, caring, and mentoring leaders. The transformational leader is able to communicate a vision for the future.

Most recently, Bass wrote an article entitled: **Ethics, Character and Transformational Leadership** (1999). In this piece, Bass postulates that truly transformational leadership must be grounded on moral foundations. Much of the literature by Bass reinforces the premise that “the best of leadership is both transformational and transactional.” The two styles of leadership are not mutually exclusive. A transformational leader must exercise some characteristic traits of transactional leadership. Bass speaks of pseudo-transformational leaders versus authentic
transformational leaders. He writes, “critics of transformational leadership attribute manipulative, deceptive and other such behaviors to transformational leaders.”

However, Bass (1999) blames such behavior on the so-called pseudo-transformational leaders. These are leaders who operate under the guise of transformational leadership, but are primarily concerned for their own self-interest. Bass writes that authentic transformational leaders must have concern for the common good and exercise moral, ethical behavior in their interactions and decision. Bass asserts, “When leading, character matters.” In this most current article, Bass attempts to expand upon his theory of transformational leadership, and answers the critics by injecting and discussing the need for ethical and moral dimensions in leadership.

As detractors to the works of Bass, Tracey and Hinkin (1999) express their concern that Bass’ work is quite similar to that of Yukl. They found similarities between Bass and Avolio’s conceptualization and measurement of transformational leadership and at least four of Yukl’s management practices.

Ironically, Bass set forth his theory of transformational leadership in 1989, which is about the same time that Yukl published his Managerial Practices Survey (MPS). Tracey and Hinkin find that four of the managerial practices developed by Yukl—clarifying, inspiring, supporting, and team-building appear to be quite similar to several definitions offered by Bass and Avolio. There appears to be some overlap in the constructs set forth by both Bass and Yukl. However, Tracey and Hinkin (1999) find that there are significant distinctions with Bass and Avolio’s work. Unique elements of Bass and Avolio include risk-sharing, ethical behaviors associated with inspirational motivation, and behaviors associated with the intellectual stimulation dimension that
challenges the status quo and encourages non-traditional approaches to decision-making and problem-solving.

One question that comes to mind is “how different or distinctive does a theory have to be to be deemed unique and have efficacy, usefulness, or applicability?” Deep in this literature, it becomes apparent that the authors are actually competitors of Bass. Tracey and Hinkin have developed a similar instrument – a six-item scale to assess leader effectiveness. At the time of their research, Tracey and Hinken reviewed an early version of the MLQ. Tracey and Hinken recommend that future research should examine the process by which transformational leaders exert their influence. Since then, an updated version of the MLQ (From 5X) has been developed and validated by Bass and his associates.

Bass played a significant role in the development and validation of several survey instruments. Two of his most widely known surveys are the Leader Behavior Descriptive Questionnaire (LBDQ) and the Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). The MLQ uses scales to measure separate aspects related to transactional and transformational leaders, and is based on factor analysis. Posner and Schmidt (1982) conducted research that identified four leadership attributes that successful leaders demonstrate. According to Posner and Schmidt (1982), these attributes; honesty, forward-looking, inspirational, and competence are necessary to enlist others to join in a common mission and to commit to the achievement of strategic objectives. There were five leadership practices found to be common in successful leaders (Kouzes & Posner, 1982). They include: challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart. Kouzes and Posner (1988, 1988a)
later developed the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI), an instrument to measure leader styles.

Bennis (1984, 1989) conducted research to determine common traits among ninety effective leaders. Sixty of those studied were from the private sector, and thirty from the public sector. Bennis feels that American organizations are “under-led” and over-managed. In his work, Bennis defines four competencies—management of attention, management of meaning, management of trust and management of self. Bennis found that in organizations with effective leaders, empowerment is found in four distinct themes—people feel significant, learning and competence matter, people are part of the community, and work is exciting.

Heilbrunn (1994) raised questions as to whether leadership could be studied. The author critiques that many leadership studies focus too narrowly on positive traits of leaders, and rarely highlight or focus on negative traits that “flood” the leaders’ rolls.

Trait Theory

The trait theory originally was developed as a view of the “great-man” approach to leadership studies. These studies reflected on the traits of men in powerful positions in history. Leaders such as Alexander the Great and George Washington were believed to have been blessed with innate leader traits (Cawthon, 1996). Later, researchers concluded that leadership traits were not completely inbred, and that certain leader traits could be acquired through learning and education. As this perspective became accepted, research was initiated in a quest to identify and examine leader traits.

In House, et al (1974, p. 81), the path-goal theory of leadership contends that “leaders are effective because of their impact on subordinates motivation and ability to
perform effectively and satisfactorily. It focuses on how leaders influence their subordinates’ perceptions of their work goals, personal goals and paths to goal attainment.” The theory suggests that a leader’s behavior “is motivating or satisfying to the degree that the behavior increases subordinates goal attainment and clarifies the paths to these goals.”

Bennis (1999) feels that the modern leader must become the Chief Transformation Officer. Accordingly, there is opportunity and need for a renewed approach to the important services provided by police agencies. In order to meet the demand of citizens, a new and fresh approach to leadership is necessary.

The works of Dr. Bass have helped to shape the current practice of management and leadership. While there are other researchers, the concept and theory of transformational leadership seem to have taken hold and show substantial promise. In many organizations, there has been a shift in the way that people are managed and motivated. The workforce of today is more educated, has access to more information, and was raised to challenge the status quo, ask questions and seek improvement. This challenges the leadership characteristics and practices of yesteryear.

Kotter (1990) attempts to help the reader understand the subtle differences between leadership and management. Kotter compares management as coping with complexity, whereas leadership is about coping with change. Kotter writes that by comparing and contrasting how organizations manage complexity through planning and budgeting, while leading focuses on setting direction. According to Kotter, managing achieves plans by organizing and staffing, while leaders align people. Management ensures accomplishment by controlling and problem solving while leadership uses
motivation and inspiration to achieve the vision. This comparison delineates the differences in mindset of executives who approach their job either as a leader or manager.

**Public Administration Literature**

Organizations should be viewed as systems that are composed of interrelationships and interactions among employees to achieve specified outcomes. Transformational leadership was applied to government, and defined using eight principles, as summarized below, in *Transformational Leadership in Government* (Koehler & Pankowski, 1997):

1. Leaders must be responsible for developing, implementing and communicating strategy.
2. Leaders must institutionalize a management system that everyone in the organization uses.
3. All employees should be developed and trained in the process of management.
4. Leaders empower individuals and teams to accept responsibility for improving the organizational processes.
5. Leaders must measure and control processes focusing on quality indicators.
6. Leaders must recognize and reward teams and let teams recognize individual effort.
7. Leaders must inspire continual change.


According to Kohler (1997), transformational leaders embrace change associated with advancements in technology and product development.

Deming (1988) set forth fourteen points for leaders. They include: create constancy of purpose, adopt the new philosophy, cease dependence on inspection to achieve quality, end the practice of awarding business on the basis of the price tag, improve constantly and forever the systems of production and service, institute training on the job, institute leadership, drive out fear so that everyone may work effectively for
the department, breakdown barriers between organization units, eliminate slogans, exhortations and targets for the workforce, eliminate work quotas, eliminate management by objectives management by numbers and numerical goals by substituting leadership, remove barriers that rob employees and managers from the right to pride of service and workmanship, institute a vigorous program of education and self-improvement, put everyone in the department to work to accomplish the transformation—the transformation thus is everyone’s job. Deming’s list of points, have significant relevance to the ideals of empowerment, vision, and transformational leadership.

In Reinventing Government, it is suggested that public organizations should be customer focused by meeting the needs of the customer, not the bureaucracy (Osbourne, 1992).

Transformational leader behaviors were found to be adaptable and promoted intellectual stimulation in a research environment. The transformational leader appeared to be viewed by subordinates as one who was willing to allow for alternative courses of action. This style was found to instill greater job satisfaction (Kessler, 1993).

Gehlken (1995) administered the LEAD self-survey to leaders and followers to determine the effective leader styles in a public service maintenance organization. The author found that “selling” rather than “telling” was the primary leader style exercised in this community. Using the constructs of situational leadership, it appeared that the supervisors in this research used the high task, high relationship style. Delegation and participative leader styles were rarely used in this setting.

An examination of leadership styles of Senior Executive Service (SES) in the federal government found that strategic leadership style is favored by male SES
personnel whereas the collaborative leader style is favored by female SES employees. The characteristics of age and tenure as an SES member showed no statistical significance; however, gender, years in government, and education did play a significant role in framing a leader style (Athanasaw, 1997).

In a review of the Pennsylvania Department of Transportation, Poister and Harris (1997) found that there was a correlation between job satisfaction and an employee’s empowerment and autonomy.

Scholtes (1999) spelled out leadership competencies based on a review of the works of Dr. W. Edwards Deming. He cites that there are six competencies for effective leadership, including: 1) thinking systems and leading systems, 2) understanding variability, 3) leading the learning, 4) understanding human behavior, 5) interactions and interdependencies, and 6) giving the organization direction and focus.

In a piece comparing and contrasting old public management to new public management, Riccucci (2001) recommends that transformationalists consider political considerations in the implementation of national performance review (NPR).

**Police Related Literature**

A collegial environment is crucial to developing better linguistic skills. In his work Muir (1977) recommended that law enforcement officers participate in college educational experiences. Muir found that the sergeant, rather than the chief has leverage over patrol officers and a significant effect on performance and satisfaction on the job.

Delattre (1990) espouses the need for law enforcement leaders to express high standards, improve training, insist on practices that engender citizen respect, and promote
ethical decision-making. The author describes some of the issues police executives have when dealing with union representation and civil service protections.

Harpold (2000) suggests the adoption of a medical model approach to community policing. He suggests that officers understand the anatomy of neighborhoods, learn the patient’s medical history, diagnosis and treat, prescribe, engage in intensive care, preventative medicine, health education and improve bedside manner. Just as doctors can detect cancer early, treat and prevent it, so to can officers. Harpold (2000) also suggests that signs of good health within the police agency include pride, quality of leadership, and comprehensive training regimens. Good policing thus is based on strong internal and external relationships.

As with Harpold, (2000) Sparrow (1992) finds relevance in comparing modern law enforcement officers to medical practitioners. The police officer, serves as a General Practitioner, having a general knowledge of the community and knowing what specialist to make referrals to. Because of the law enforcement officer’s accessibility and knowledge of available resources.

The question of professionalism in policing was explored by Wilson (1968). Characteristics of a profession include the exercise of widespread discretion in matters of great importance. The professional has the status conferred by a professional oversight board or association. The professional is willing to subject his/herself to a code of standards and ethics and a sense of collegial duty. Using this rationale, the law enforcement officer could be considered a professional because of the requisite training, continuing education, practice and high job expectations.
Even in traditional police agencies, with roots from the military model, the modern police officer should not be compared to an Army private, but instead to an Air Force pilot. Military pilots must exercise significant judgment and accept the potential that their actions could have grave consequences. Police officers, by contrast, should be considered the equivalent of a commissioned officer granted the requisite respect, authority and discretion (Meese, 1993).

Five important principles of leadership for law enforcement were identified as: 1) management by leadership, 2) vision and mission, 3) alignment, (e.g., adjusting vision) mission, and strategy for consistency with policy and procedure, 4) training and development, and 5) teamwork. The authors felt that the refusal of law enforcement managers and supervisors to accept and cultivate human resources, its people, is law enforcement’s greatest impediment (Alsabrook, et al, 2001).

Campus police agencies have changed over the past forty years. According to Sloan, et al, (2000), campus police departments were improved and upgraded following the uprisings related to the Viet Nam war and civil rights movements. As this occurred, the natural tendency was to adopt traditional model of policing. Sloan (2000) explored opportunities for campus police executives to explore the utility of community oriented policing (COP) as an organizational model for the unique constituency of campus police departments. The authors identify several distinct factors unique to the campus community and the four dimensions of COP. These dimensions include philosophical, strategic, tactical, and organizational.

Sloan, et al (2000) suggests that management of these organizations requires changes in leadership and supervision style. The authors suggest that campus police departments
strongly emphasize organizational culture and values while placing less emphasis on written rules, policies and discipline. The objective is to empower officers in such a way that they are encouraged to take risks and demonstrate imagination and creativity in their work. The authors found strong justification in their study to support implementation of COP in campus police departments in America.

The concept of Problem Oriented Policing (POP) was introduced by Goldstein (1990). The culmination of nearly 20 years of research, Problem-Oriented Policing outlines the basic elements of the problem-oriented approach to policing—in which police focus on the underlying causes of crime rather than just respond to calls for service. With the introduction of the S-A-R-A (Scanning, Analysis, Response, Assessment) model of policing, officers were provided training in the use of this model.

Carlan and Byxbe (2000) attempt to ascertain whether the higher education of police officers achieves the delivery of more humanistic services. They attempted to find out if efforts to raise the educational level of police officers contributed to a more humanistic approach towards citizens. They explored the current status of criminal justice programs in colleges and universities in the United States. Futurists feel confident that a degree requirement will be implemented by a majority of police agencies by 2015. Using a survey instrument, the authors delivered a self-administered questionnaire to police and other students in an attempt to identify differences in punitive positions by students for alleged crime. The study concluded that the police students are more punitive thinkers, but that their responses indicated a more humanistic approach to their job. The study questions the benefit of the current criminal justice curriculum and raises the continuing contention of traditional academics of the quality of such programs.
However, there are contentions that there is the liberalizing effect on police officers following a four-year college program (Carlan & Byxbe, 2000).

Enter (1991) examined the dimensions of change. Referring to issues facing police administrators, he cited the aging of America, the expanding role of women and growth of the teen population as issues to contend with in the future.

Another law enforcement related study was undertaken of the possible determinants in the job satisfaction of the U.S. Air Force Security Police. After looking at race, gender, age, education, and work assignment the study found the demographic characteristics of individuals played a minimal role. The research pointed to the public sector manager’s leadership and management activities as having a significant role for employee job satisfaction (Reiner and Zhao, 1999).

Policing Literature

History of Law Enforcement Organizations and Policing

The roots of modern municipal policing agencies can be traced to London, England, when Sir Robert Peele developed written principles as he prepared to seek permission from Parliament to reform policing and establish the Metropolitan Police. While serving as the Home Secretary for Great Britain, Peele introduced the Metropolitan Police Act in 1829.

Peele wrote the Nine (9) Principles of Policing that follow:

1. The basic mission for which the police exist is to prevent crime and disorder as an alternative to the repression of crime and disorder by military force and severity of legal punishment.
2. The ability of the police to perform their duties is dependent upon public approval of police existence, actions, behavior and the ability of the police to secure and maintain public respect.

3. The police must secure the willing cooperation of the public in voluntary observance of the law to be able to secure and maintain public respect.

4. The degree of cooperation of the public that can be secured diminishes, proportionally, the necessity for the use of physical force and compulsion in achieving police objectives.

5. The police seek and preserve public favor, not by catering to public opinion, but by constantly demonstrating absolutely impartial service to the law, in complete independence of policy, an without regard to the justice or injustice of individual laws; by ready offering of individual service and friendship to all members of the society without regard to their race or social standing; by ready exercise of courtesy and friendly good humor; and by ready offering of individual sacrifice in protecting and preserving life.

6. The police should use physical force to the extent necessary to secure observance of the law or to restore order only when the exercise of persuasion, advice and warning is found to be insufficient to achieve police objectives; and police should only use the minimum degree of physical force which is necessary on any particular occasion for achieving a police objective.

7. The police at all times should maintain a relationship with the public that gives reality to the historic tradition that the police are the public and that the public are the police; the police are the only members who are paid to give full-time attention to duties which are incumbent of every citizen in the interest of the community welfare.
8. The police should always direct their actions toward their functions and never appear to usurp the powers of the judiciary by avenging individuals or the state, or authoritatively judging guilt or punishing the guilty.

9. The test of police efficiency is the absence of crime and disorder, not the visible evidence of police action in dealing with them.

This was clearly a call by Peele for the police agency to be pro-active rather than being reactive. The tenants set forth by Peele in the 1800's still have relevance as the next millennium begins.

In the mid-1960's, President Lyndon B. Johnson initiated the President’s Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. The commission’s findings were released as the Task Force Report: The Police (1967). The 35 findings focused attention on community relations, personnel, organization and operations and pooling resources and services. Congress allocated funds to create the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA) and the Law Enforcement Education Program (LEEP). These government-funding programs were aimed at raising the educational level of police officers throughout the United States. As with the GI Bill for returning American veterans, this funding raised the educational level of police officers around the U.S. Certainly, the program helped to groom better police executives. LEAA also helped to provide technological advancements for police agencies nationwide. These technological advances improved communication, transfer of information, and officer safety.

More recently, the U.S. Department of Justice (1998) held a symposium to revisit the recommendations of the report and ascertain whether the commission was effective in
implementing long-term change. The report indicated that the 1968 commission had success in several areas.

**Traditional Model of Policing**

In many traditional law enforcement structures, police administrators feel they had all the answers, and did not need the participation or interference of the general citizenry. They remained cloistered and insulated. Many law enforcement managers felt that laypeople could never understand the difficulty of their job. They resisted outside input into the internal function of the agency. This attitude is slowly changing, as more and more officers and managers seek outside help to improve the departments. In order to “get back to the basics” of policing espoused by Peele, several questions need to be raised and answered for policing agencies. What do police do? What do police do well? What can be outsourced? What are the important relationships to insure the organization will function as effectively and efficiently as possible?

It takes a strong leader to ask these questions. The challenge is to find the answers to these questions, and then chart a course for the future of the organization.

The traditional model of policing is structured as a top down, para-military organization. Oftentimes, the system is autocratic and closed. Law enforcement agencies typify the traditional, bureaucratic, mechanistic management model. Traditional line authority is demanded, much like the military model. Generally, the communication style is straight line — up and down. Police agencies historically have featured a centralized authority, hierarchical decision-making structure, a high degree of division of labor and specialization with formalization and standardization. Systems are developed and in place to define communications mechanisms and reporting.
requirements. Measures of a law enforcement agency are the relationships within and outside the organization.

Goldstein (1990, p. 27) noted:

The dominant form of policing today continues to view police officers as automatons. Despite an awareness that they exercise broad discretion, they are held to strict account in their daily work—for what they do and how they do it . . . Especially in procedural matters, they are required to adhere to detailed regulations. In large police agencies, rank and file police officers are often treated impersonally and kept in the dark regarding policy matters. Officers quickly learn, under these conditions, that the rewards go to those who conform to expectation—that non-thinking compliance is valued.

There are basic roles and responsibilities in each police agency. Some of these functions have been outsourced, such as lockouts, animal control, parking enforcement and medical assists. However, agencies are expected to perform the basic functions including dispatch, investigations, patrol, administrative support, and internal affairs.

Goldstein (1990) feels that there has been a preoccupation with means over ends, with operational methods, process and efficiency over effectiveness in dealing with the substantive policing issues. Goldstein feels that time and talent of rank and file officers has been squandered by ineffective police management in the past.

“The high priority given to organizational matters gets in the way of delivering police services” (Goldstein, 1990, p. 16). Problem Oriented Policing calls for adopting a proactive stance. The author proposes strengthening the decision making processes and increasing accountability and problem identification along with considering alternative solutions.
In his call for the adoption of Problem Oriented Policing, Goldstein (1990) proposes three changes:

1. Police leaders must articulate the basic values with which they approach the police task and which influence their management technique;

2. They must have a strong commitment to problem solving as a core of policing;

3. More broadly, they must make fundamental changes in the most common type of relationship that exists between leadership and rank and file in a police agency.

According to Sparrow, et al (1990) the main purpose for standard operating procedures or policy and regulations in traditional policing is control. Tight control through unambiguous rules and fearsome disciplinary systems became the norm and stemmed from the reform era of policing.

Sparrow, et al (1990) cites the need for citizens and police to get beyond 911. The notion that the police are merely around to respond to calls is passé. The authors point to successes through openness and accountability and the nurturing of partnerships. Citing the need for renewal or revolution, Sparrow calls for the professional independence of police agencies. The authors suggest the encouragement for innovation.

Sparrow writes:

The dominant form of police management, like the dominant police values, represents a steep hurdle for any new policing. Nobody, from the greenest recruit to the most eminent chief, can expect a department to risk any new approach, however promising, when the entire structure is poised to attack at the first sign of error or failure. Creativity, innovation, and experimentation—individual or departmental—are all stifled. If policing is to change and
progress, police management, like police culture, must change (Sparrow, et al, 1990, p.57).

Sparrow, et al (1990, p. 51) described police culture and the beliefs that seem to lie beneath the surface. The authors feel that the undercurrents caused, if left unchanged, will continue to guide behavior and attitudes of police officers. The strongest of these police beliefs follow:

1. We are the only real crime fighters, Crime fighting is what the public wants from us. Other agencies, public or private, only play at it.

2. No one else understands the real nature of police work. That is, no one outside the police service—academics, politicians, and lawyers, in particular—can comprehend what we have to do. The public is generally naïve about police work.

3. Loyalty to colleagues counts above everything else. We have to stick together. Everyone else—including the public, politicians and especially senior officers—seems to be out to make our job difficult.

4. It is impossible to win the war against crime without bending the rules. We are hopelessly shackled by unrealistic constraints foisted on us by civil liberties groups, thanks to the fecklessness of politicians.

5. Members of the public are basically unsupportive and unreasonably demanding. They all seem to think they know our job better than we do. They only want us when they need something done.

6. Patrol work is the pits. The detective branch and other specialties are relatively glorious, because they tackle serious crime. Patrol work is only for those who aren’t smart enough to get out of it.

Jones (1998) writes that the task for police leaders is clear: drive and manage change or be driven by it. Jones found that in the 1990’s when the British Government’s attention was focused on policing it was determined that the police service was held as a
This realization jolted the British police service from complacency, causing a number of reforms. The public demanded access to information and wanted a say in the decision-making process of the police service. The police service adopted an approach using TQM.

Historically, law enforcement officers had a “beat,” knew the area residents. With a more mobile and transient society, many agencies evolved into reactive entities. In earlier years, agencies did not have the benefit of radio communications, computer aided dispatch or mobile communications. The corner call box and whistle were the only means of communication. Today, the mobile patrol force, radio and electronic communications have enhanced the police agencies ability to respond and perform.

**Law Enforcement Training and Education**

Policing traditionally has been structured in a para-military fashion. More recently there has been a call for reform in law enforcement, much like that of the call for educational reform. However, infusion of money for programs does not seem to address the systematic needs of an agency to initiate and sustain long-term changes. Many police training academies have reached out to academia, community groups, and business to assist in the upgrading of the academy curricula. Many training regimes have been revamped to focus more on the community policing philosophy and less on para-military discipline. Many of the courses have had this philosophy integrated throughout.

The Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) totally revised their recruit training academy regimen to better reflect the community policing approach and problem-solving model to modern policing. According to published RCMP fact sheets (2000), the RCMP
created a set of core values and guiding principles that include accountability, honesty, professionalism, compassion, respect and integrity.

**Police Leadership**

There is an abundance of literature focused on leadership and management, however, very few researchers have paid attention to the issue of leadership in law enforcement. This study, therefore, has the potential for significant contribution to the body of literature and knowledge surrounding leader styles, particularly the effect of leader behaviors on productivity and job satisfaction in law enforcement agencies. The result of this research should serve to assist future leaders of law enforcement agencies to enhance the development of their leadership and management styles and behaviors.

Leadership in law enforcement organizations have been defined as “the process of influencing the members of an organization to employ appropriately and willingly their energies in activities that are helpful to the achievement of the police department’s goals.” (Swanson, Territo and Taylor, 2000, p. xx)

DeParis (1997) contends that police leader styles have been largely developed within a traditional bureaucratic structure. The author writes that:

Management is concerned with the efficient utilization of department resources through the processes of planning, organizing and controlling. Leadership—particularly organizational leadership—involves influencing followers toward the attainment of organizational goals (DeParis, 1997, p. 75).

Resources should be managed; people should be led. The result is that most police agencies are over-managed and “under-led” (Bennis, 1989). Decisions are made at the top and institutionalized as rules and regulations that prescribe—and proscribe—officer’s behavior. Thereafter, managing the organization is a matter of enforcing the
rules and doing things the right way. Such rigidity complements a bureaucratic structure and can be effective in a stable environment. Under current practice, few law enforcement agencies will survive the changes. Because of a short-term approach to funding, and planning when funding runs out, most agencies will revert back to the old way of conducting business. It thus will require extraordinary leadership to sustain the efforts of the past decade. No matter what the outcome, there will be some remarkable changes that will be lasting.

In order to achieve long lasting effect, a change in organizational philosophy from the top must be adopted. Long-term commitment is necessary for community policing to succeed. Only while working towards incremental change will lasting improvements survive. It would serve many agencies well to adopt business practices. Very few police agencies routinely seek input from its customers.

Leadership should push decision making downward to the point of delivery and flatten the organizations. Only leaders willing to listen to employees, leaders with vision and persistence will be successful. Police agencies need to make use of its most important resource, the employee. Those who work on the front-line have insight into solutions for many of the problems threatening each community. This employee-centered concept threatens deeply entrenched middle management in the law enforcement organization. As a result, many middle managers fear losing control (Geller, et al, 1995). Perhaps as a result of previous paramilitary structure and mindset, many managers are reluctant to ask their subordinates for suggestions. By involving everyone in the organization, taking a team approach, new processes can be designed to improve job performance.
Police officers today are better trained and educated than those in the 1960's. Police officers are given tremendous latitude and discretion in the performance of his or her duties. With all of this talent, there is still a lack of trust and empowerment in many situations. In some jurisdictions, a police officer has the power and authority to decide whether to arrest an individual, but a sergeant has to be called to approve of towing a vehicle.

Policing is a monopolistic service. Virtually no other entity can provide the service that a police agency is authorized. While a police agency can out-source certain tasks including parking enforcement, lockouts, emergency medical service, burglar alarm response, only police have the authority to make arrests.

Services also include assisting people in time of need. A police agency provides information and service. Some of these services include: traffic accident response, domestic disturbances, civil disputes, medical response, criminal investigations, and traffic enforcement and crowd control. While the list of services provided is finite, there are some expansions of service. Victim/Witness Services are gaining attention and being provided in concert with routine police services.

Agencies have a tendency to think and communicate compartmentally. A shift towards systems thinking and cross-functional groups can help to improve communications. Each separate division in a police department has bearing on another division. Patrol actions impact on the records management division and often on investigations and the motor pool. Investigations division has a reliance on records and administration and the prosecution division. Similar to most bureaucracies, police organizations have traditionally operated in a vacuum. With the advent of community
policing, it is time to consider systems thinking for law enforcement agencies, particularly among law enforcement leaders.

The current organizational structure of most police agencies is horizontal; yet the aim should be towards a more vertical organization to get closer to the customers. This approach would require the agency to flatten the organizational structure. Many agencies are pushing decisions downward. This recognizes the shift from a mechanized workforce to a staff of knowledge workers. This decentralization attempt recognizes that a customer focus is imperative. (Trojanowicz, 1994).

Koehler (1997) focused his work on government leaders rather than government administrators. The author suggests that government employees be empowered and the leader “rethink their role” in running government agencies. In order for transformational leadership to take hold in government organizations, managers have to let go of their “positional power” concerns. Leaders have to be concerned for improving government services rather than managing people if the constructs of transformational leadership are to take hold in government and police agencies.


More than 30 years ago, Reddin, a police chief, (1966, p. 16) reminded his professional colleagues in an essay:

Actually, law enforcement does a pretty good job of stifling creativity and encouraging conformity. A strong body of opinion exists that the conformist in the one who gets ahead . . . It appears that one would almost be a fool to experiment, encourage creativity, suggest changes and in doing so perhaps
risk his reputation. But, as the doctrine of an organization, conformity can spell stagnation and a descent into mediocrity.

Stamper (1992) conducted survey research to understand the values and leadership characteristics of big-city police executives and their assistants. A key dimension of police executive leadership is (Stamper, 1992, p. ix):

…that the leader is an activist, a doer, and one who inspires a shared vision of the future and establishes expectations for the kind of behavior that is expected from all employees. The leader’s behavior communicates integrity and credibility. The police chief executive, as a leader, lets agency personnel know they are important and never forgets the purpose of the agency is to protect and serve the community.

In his work focused on police management, Stamper (1992) created a new model of police leadership. He cites nine factors that were the underlying concepts of the Police Leadership Practices Survey (PLPS). These factors include four leadership dimensions: 1) modeling expected behavior, 2) exhibiting interest and concern, 3) serving the community, 4) valuing openness and diversity. The remaining five management dimensions are: 1) setting standards, 2) keeping promises, 3) thinking and behaving rationally, 4) demonstrating fiscal responsibility and, 5) maintaining technical competence. This work intimates that each police executive must be both a manager and a leader and that there are different skill sets for each.

Stamper, (1992) uses the terms leader-manager and manager-leader dependant upon the activity and style that the executive favors.

In contrast to police manager-leader or leader-manager models, the pure police manager is a controlling manager whose time is spent almost exclusively in his or her office, which serves as the command center for
the organization. The lion’s share of the agency’s paper originates from and returns to this office. The manager personally manages spreadsheets, maintains statistics in most organizational /managerial processes. Coordination and control are accomplished principally by telephone, computer and memoranda. The manager sees him or herself, and is seen by others, as very analytical and dispassionate. He or she does a great deal of reading, most of it directly related to the indices of organizational effectiveness and efficiency. New ideas are of interest, if they are perceived as valuable in controlling the management process, intuitive and creative are often rejected with disdain. The traditional manager is seen, by those in the know, as the one who controls resources and who has answers to most questions about the organization’s past. Nonetheless, this manager’s orientation is in the present, getting the job done today (Stamper, 1992, p. 169).

Research was conducted to identify desirable and undesirable performance indicators and leadership styles of police chiefs. Municipal managers with oversight of police executives completed surveys. In this study, seventy (70%) of chiefs were promoted from within (Krimmel and Lindenmuth, 2001). The authors found that police chiefs that did not attend the FBI National Academy (FBINA) received significantly lower scores of negative leadership. The FBINA is an 11-week police leadership program, sponsored by the FBI at Quantico, Virginia for police and sheriff’s officers from around the world at the sergeant or higher ranks. Some of the negative indicators included betrayal of personal trust, inability to delegate responsibility, failure to accept responsibility for mistakes. The study concluded that police chiefs receiving better performance and leadership ratings, had educational attainment, was promoted from within, worked in a union environment, and was groomed for leadership potential.
Community Policing Literature

The body of literature that focuses on police leadership is somewhat limited and sporadic. In recent years, much of the police leadership literature has focused on Community Policing. The promise of federal funding has focused and encouraged change among law enforcement agencies of the United States. The infusion of funds has swelled the ranks of agencies with new officers and guidelines have caused agencies to change the way they do business. In some instances, agencies have used the opportunity to look at the application of business practices in the law enforcement arena. However, many chief executives have been reluctant to make wholesale changes to their organizations. Few agencies will sustain the changes unless a strategic plan is adopted, incremental change is made and a long-term approach is taken. Otherwise, agencies will revert to the old way of conducting business. These changes require strong leadership from law enforcement executives and present significant challenges for the future.

Research was conducted by the Department of Justice, National Institute of Justice (2000) into police organizations that received federal funding for police personnel. While the review served as an audit of services received, two areas of particular interest to this study were reviewed. The review attempted to assess the effect of the Community Oriented Policing Services (COPS) grants on the style of policing, whether there was an adoption of community policing in the United States and whether there were enhancements in the use of problem solving partnerships in the communities receiving the COPS grants.

Community policing represents a radical departure from the status quo in law enforcement agencies (Eck and Rosenbaum, 1994). Several authors (Goldstein, 1993,
Sparrow and Moore, 1990, Roberg 1994) show concerns that the classical management style of police administrators may actually hinder and inhibit the introduction, implementation and other innovative approaches.

The philosophy of the community policing model represents a tremendous shift away from traditional law enforcement. Recent research has not always found the requisite change in management and leadership. Rather than reinventing or focusing on Business Process Improvement to implement community policing, many organizations choose to add or overlay community policing to traditional organizational arrangements. Klockars (1988) felt that police agencies adopt the moniker of community policing as a means of gaining legitimacy without having to undergo any substantive organizational change. This lack of organizational change is wrought with problems for law enforcement in the future. Without proper planning and sustained attention, any business improvement will revert to the old way of “doing business.”

Cowper (2000) sought to dispel the myth of the usefulness of a military model of leadership in law enforcement. The author feels in many instances there has been a misapplication and misunderstanding of the military model. Given changes in the military over the past twenty years, Cowper contends that there have been false assumptions about military leadership, structure and doctrine. This misunderstanding has caused problems in police organizations. The author suggested a fresh look at current military concepts and methods. The yelling, screaming, ordering, dictatorial practices of old have been replaced with empowerment and decision sharing. The introduction of these practices can enhance the delivery of police services.
Garner (1993) points to the importance of leadership and direction on the success or failure of an organization. He cites a critical need for police administrators to engage in regular strategic planning. Garner feels that many police administrators become so preoccupied with current problems they fail to plan for the future. Garner (1993) encourages law enforcement executives to “steer the organization rather than row it.” Many administrators and managers focus on the delivery of services rather than guiding, or steering, the agency. Garner reports the importance of developing and communicating a vision, mission and values statement. He suggests that empowering personnel includes enabling others to participate in the process of change in the organization.

The author concludes that any leader who does not engage these constructs serve merely as a custodian to an antiquated bureaucracy focused on the preservation of the past and ignoring future potential.

Using factor analysis, Engel (2001) reviewed data obtained from an observational study from the Project on Policing Neighborhoods focused on two metropolitan police departments. Four distinct supervisory styles were identified including traditional, innovative, supportive and active. The study attempted to identify the attitudinal constructs considered important to the supervision of police personnel. Using Bass’ (1990) work on leadership as a base six attitudinal constructs were identified and measured.

Community Policing: The Attempt to Retool

The philosophy of the community-policing model represents a tremendous shift away from traditional law enforcement. Recent research has not always found the requisite change in management and leadership. Rather than reinventing or focusing on
process improvement to implement community policing, many organizations choose to add community policing to traditional organizational arrangements.

The focus on community policing has been heightened over the past ten years with increased federal funding which has become available. The concept of community policing is based on a philosophy and operational strategy to return to the basics of policing. This is law enforcement’s attempt to reform the profession.

There are several definitions of community policing. Three relevant definitions follow. The California Attorney's General Office (1992, p. 3) defined community policing:

Community policing is a philosophy, management style, and organizational strategy that promotes pro-active problem solving and police-community partnerships to address the causes of crime and fear as well as other community issues.

The U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Community Oriented Policing Services (1992, p.3) defined community policing as:

A policing philosophy that promotes and supports organizational strategies to address the causes and reduce the fear of crime and social disorder through problem-solving tactics and community-police partnerships.

Trojanowicz (1990, p. 5) founder of the National Center for Community Policing at Michigan State University, defined community policing:

Community policing is a new philosophy of policing, based on the concept that police officers and private citizens working together in related ways
can help solve contemporary community problems related to crime, fear of crime, social and physical disorder, and neighborhood decay.

The philosophy is predicated on the belief that achieving these goals requires that police departments develop a new relationship with the law-abiding people, allowing them a greater voice in setting local police priorities and involving them in efforts to improve the overall quality of life in their neighborhoods. It shifts the focus of police work from handling random calls to solving community problems.

In addition, with the assistance of its COPPS Advisory Committee, the California Attorney General's Office (1992, 2001) outlined Twelve Principles of Community-Oriented Policing and Problem Solving:

1. Reassesses who is responsible for public safety and redefines the roles and relationships between the police and the community.

2. Requires shared ownership, decision-making, and accountability, as well as sustained commitment from both the police and the community.

3. Establishes new public expectations of and measurement standards for police effectiveness (e.g., from solely 911 response time and arrest/crime statistics) ... to include quality of service, customer (community) satisfaction, responsiveness to community defined issues, and cultural sensitivity.

4. Increases understanding and trust between police and community members.

5. Empowers and strengthens community-based efforts.

6. Requires constant flexibility to respond to all emerging issues.
7. Requires an on-going commitment to developing long-term and pro-active programs/strategies to address the underlying conditions that cause community problems.

8. Requires knowledge of available community resources and how to access and mobilize them, as well as the ability to develop new resources within the community.

9. Requires buy-in of the top management of the police and other local government agencies, as well as a sustained personal commitment from all levels of management and other key personnel.

10. Decentralizes police services/operations/management, relaxes the traditional “chain of command” and encourages innovative and creative problem solving by all - thereby making greater use of the knowledge, skill and expertise throughout the organization without regard to rank.

11. Shifts the focus of police work from responding to individual incidents to addressing problems identified by the community as well as the police, emphasizing the use of problem-solving approaches to supplement traditional law-enforcement methods.

12. Requires commitment to developing new skills through training (e.g., problem-solving, networking, mediation, facilitation, conflict resolution, cultural competency/literacy).

Klockars (1988) felt that police agencies adopt the moniker of community policing as a means of gaining legitimacy without having to undergo real organizational change. This lack of organizational change is wrought with problems for law enforcement in the future. Without proper planning and sustained attention, any process improvement will revert to the old way of doing business.
Sparrow (1990, p. 57) suggests:

This dominant form of police management, like the dominant police values, represents a steep hurdle for any new policing. Creativity, innovation and experimentation—individual and departmental—are all stifled. If policing is to change and progress, police management must change also.

With the uniqueness of the law enforcement profession, an effective agency must integrate both a strong reactive and proactive response (Sparrow, 1992). The role of middle management is vital to the implementation of any changes in the delivery of police services. The middle manager needs to strike a balance using the limited resources available to react and respond in critical matters and afford officers the opportunity to be creative and innovative in the communities they serve and identifying and addressing problems with the affected citizens (Sparrow, 1992). The author recommends that it is important to change the mindset of policing from “controlling spaces” to “policing society” i.e.: people, community, individuals, families and institutions.

Because of the delay in seeing the results of any proactive work, it is often hard for executives to make the commitment and investment. According to Sparrow, (1992) many law enforcement executives do not see programmatic or strategy change as a capital investment regardless of the long-term gain.

Sparrow (1988, p.53) speaks of creativity in police agencies below:

The benefits to a department that runs many different experiments in different parts of the organizations are…numerous. One is that officers will see lots of apparently crazy ideas being tried and may, in time, realize that they have some ideas of their own that are slightly less crazy. Perhaps for the first time they will be willing to put their ideas forward knowing that they will not summarily be dismissed. The resourcefulness of police
officers, so long apparent in their unofficial behavior, can at least be put to the service of the department. Creativity blooms in an experimental environment that is tolerant of unusual ideas.

“Community policing is a philosophy of full service, personalized policing, where the same officer patrols and works in the same area on a permanent basis, from a decentralized place, working in a pro-active partnership with citizens to identify and solve problems” (Trojanowicz 1994, p. 3).

In many circumstances, the focus of community policing forces an agency to look inward. This process often has led to the first formal review of the agency and the operating procedures in several decades.

Trojanowicz (1990) cites that a police organization must strive for reliability, service, readiness, assurance, empathy, and tangibles if community policing is to work. As applied to law enforcement, these traits must be incorporated into the service delivery model. The police agency must maintain readiness for unusual events or incidents. They must be trained to handle hostage situation, assist in natural disasters, assist in medical emergencies. They are called on to be the on-scene doctor, counselor, cleric, social worker, and mechanic. This is a lot to ask of any mortal. More often, training for officers and staff includes diversity awareness and empathy. The agency has to have a way to communicate assurance that the agency stands ready to help the community.

Ortmeier (1996) sought to identify the competencies of leadership for Community Policing. These competencies were categorized under five banners, which included communications and interpersonal, problem solving, motivation, planning and organizing, and actuation/implementation competencies. While Ortmeier (1996) cited that police training provided adequate development in procedural and technical skills, he
felt that police education does little in the development of the non-technical competencies necessary for effective leadership. He states that police academy curricula generally lack the focus necessary to develop skills required for communication, human relations, critical thinking, leadership and problem solving.

Haarr (2001) studied the impact of training at the police academy, field training, and work environment levels. By following police recruits through academy training, regimen and field training, and through the one-year probation period, the study found that the community policing orientation provided in the academy had a positive impact. However, those attitudinal changes dissipated after police officers were exposed to field training, the daily work environment, and organizational culture. This study points out the need for organization-wide commitment to the philosophy of community policing as opposed to the segmentation of officers detailed to practice community policing.

McKee (2001) attempted to validate the reliability and structure of a survey instrument designed for police agencies to measure the effectiveness of community policing efforts. Since much of the literature on community policing, to date, tends to be qualitative in nature, the author attempted to build a survey instrument to quantitatively measure the efficacy of the Community Policing Evaluation Survey (CPES), a measurement instrument developed by McKee. He contends that such an instrument can be used by small and medium sized police agencies. The use of surveys by law enforcement agencies can help to identify and understand community needs and open lines of communication.

The opportunity of combining community planning with community policing efforts was explored by Rohe, et al (2001). In work focused on two southern
communities, the authors reviewed the benefit for the community when police engage with public planners and other government officials. Since community policing is often focused on problem identification and problem solving (Goldstein, 1990), it is natural for police officers to seek assistance from other city, county or state agencies to seek long-term solutions. The mutual benefit for the community is evident when planners and police work towards improvement in the quality of life for residents of neighborhoods.

There is a substantial concern that has surfaced in policing literature indicating that classical police management typology serves as a hindrance to community policing and other innovative policing approaches (Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux, 1990; Goldstein, 1993; Sparrow, Moore and Kennedy, 1990, Kennedy, 1993).

There is some misconception in the application of a community policing philosophy. Flynn (1998) attempted to define the “community” in community policing. Flynn suggests that police agencies look beyond the traditional geographical boundaries. The author hastens the reader to look at areas or groups with shared character or identity and those with common problems or concerns. Flynn points to ethnic, cultural, and racial communities as well as business, school employees, and parents. Most organizations engaging in community-policing attempt to develop relationships, identify issues, and problem solve through collaboration. Instead of using traditional measurements for success, i.e., arrest number, stolen goods recovered, drugs seized or motor vehicle citations written, police could change the measurement of success based on terms established in concert with the stakeholders of a community.

According to Flynn (1998), some police agencies have focused attention to reach out to non-traditional marine vessel community, the tourist community, or political
interest sub-groups. Each city, town, county, and state have numerous, unique communities that can be identified and serviced by the police agency.

Gianakis and Davis (1998) posed many questions as they relate to community policing and the organizations attempting to implement the philosophy. Does implementation of community-oriented policing entail changes to the traditional structure of local law enforcement agencies? To what extent are implementation and structural changes being supported by changes in operational policies and administrative systems?

These issues were addressed through a survey of local law enforcement agencies in Florida. The authors found that community-oriented policing manifests itself in a variety of forms, but they all seem to center on changing the officer rather than the organization. Even when structural change occurs, the impact on existing policies and systems is minimal. Because of this focus on the individual rather than the organization, the authors question the long-range prospects for this innovation.

The empowerment theory has surfaced in the professional setting of law enforcement agencies through Community Oriented Policing (COP). Many agencies, led by war era, “baby-boomers,” were set up using a paramilitary model. This organizational design relies upon strict rules and chain of command structure. In these organizational settings, the power, decision-making and control rest with the chief executive along with levels of hierarchy. “Typical leaders of empowered organizations remain unsatisfied with the status quo and never use the phrase “we’ve always done it that way.” Officers who are from Generation X (those born between 1963 and 1977) were raised in an era of quickly changing technology and instant information. They may be better suited for changes in flexible organizations (Reiter, 1999).
Trust and risk are important for successful programs. Reiter (1999) reminds skeptics that innovation experimentation is appropriate only where failure would not endanger public safety. When leaders make the distinctions clear, the empowered organization can be flexible to adjust to structure and rule compliance in tactical and dangerous circumstances.

Many of today’s police managers still lack the necessary leadership skills. These managers are found to be either commanders or stewards of their departments. Stewards simply believe their department requires no more than routine maintenance and no strategic changes are necessary. Commanders take a hands-on approach, and many times assume operational control. The idea of empowerment policing has been resisted by many tradition bound law enforcement agencies. Paramilitary organizations are composed of abundant rules and rigid command structure. In these paramilitary organizations, first-line supervisors have limited authority and are granted only a narrow view of the organization. As a result top management are burdened with a tremendous workload. While this work could be delegated, instead, in paramilitary structures, line personnel stand-by awaiting orders (Reiter, 1999). The author espouses the value of the empowered organization. He describes leaders of empowered police organizations as unsatisfied with the status quo, always attempting to push decision making to the line officer. Reiter (1999) describes the community oriented policing movement as a profession-specific application of the empowerment theory.

Bayley and Sherling (2001) review the contemporary restructuring of policing. The authors find that more often, many of the previous responsibilities of public policing have been shifted to private entities or privatized. The function of parking enforcement,
medical emergency, animal control and alarm response has been shifted to separate
government or private entities. Until recently, governments have accepted responsibility
for providing security to their citizens. The use of private security is utilized to protect
economic interests and property interests, cultural communities, and government
interests. This view is seen worldwide with private security patrols in businesses, gated
communities, and malls, shipping ports, airports and government buildings. The authors
contend that too much focus has been paid to governmental policing institutions and that
social scientists spend an inordinate amount of time focusing on public policy of the
police organization and little time on the potential for institutional variety in the delivery
of protective services from public and/or private organizations.

Another study looked at a specific police agency to assess the operational
effectiveness and methodology of management through analysis, interviews and
observation. The author concluded there was a need for updated management strategies
to accommodate the needs of the community and improve the effectiveness of services
(Jason, 1993).

The focus on Community Policing has been heightened over the past ten years
with federal funding which has become available. The concept of Community Policing is
based on a philosophy and operational strategy to return to the basics of policing. This is
law enforcement’s attempt to reform the profession. Community Policing is a philosophy
of full service personalized policing, where the same officer patrols and works in the
same area on a permanent basis, from a decentralized place, working in a pro-active
partnership with citizens to identify and solve problems (Trojanowicz, 1994).
In many circumstances, the focus of Community Policing allows an agency to look inwardly. This process often has led to the first formal review of the agency and the operating procedures in several decades.

Osborne and Gaebler (1993) feel that “the basic idea is to make public safety a community responsibility, rather than simply the responsibility of the professionals, the police. It transforms the police officer from an investigator and enforcer into a catalyst in a process of community self-help.” (Osborne and Gaebler, 1993, p. 50).

Bayley (1992) writes that community policing is an organization’s best defense for potential problems in the community. He sets forth a series of potential benefit for adoption of community policing practices. Bayley further suggests that adaptation, consultation and mobilization are the basic tenants of community policing. Bayley (1992) listed eleven philosophical considerations:

1. Community policing personalizes policing.
2. Community policing informs law enforcement.
3. Community policing minimizes overreaction.
4. Community policing allows police officers to target potentially violent people.
5. Community policing enhances responsiveness.
6. Community policing symbolizes commitment.
7. Community policing develops informal social control.
8. Community policing contributes to the improvement of the quality of physical life.
9. Community policing helps to nurture a sense of political efficacy.
10. Community policing positions police to monitor racial and ethnic tensions and perhaps mediate conflict.
11. Community policing can help deflect rumors.
The term empowerment has been utilized in much of the recent leadership and community policing literature.

Hammer & Champy (1993) finds that deep in the organization, people recognize the actual need for change. Employees become cynical when leaders fail to produce change. Moore (1994) feels that because community policing is so loosely defined that there is more opportunity for experimentation and this will help the concept grow and succeed.

Cunningham (1994) defined empowerment as a greatly enhanced version of delegation in which not only is the task delegated, but so are virtually all the decisions related to accomplishing the task. Cunningham feels that empowerment and community oriented policing go hand in hand. He feels that patrol was the backbone of any department.

Empowerment is one of the eight themes in renewal organizations. He cites that within broad boundaries, individuals are given responsibility to produce results in their own way, as well as the opportunity to show initiative, participate in decisions affecting them and become a source of valuable information.

Bennis wrote that the command and control mindset was passé (Bennis, 1996). The new paradigm for success has three elements: align, create and empower. He cited that in the post-bureaucratic world, the leader willing to allow healthy dissent, was ready to listen and unleashed others talents would flourish.

Turner (1997) reviewed the skills and abilities required for a transition from the professional model of policing to community policing. Turner analyzed management styles and types, motivational approaches, and leadership styles.
Villarreal-Watkins (2000) studied the factors of leadership, collaboration and indecisiveness and the relationship to age, tenure, rank, education and professional development of law enforcement officers. The author found that leadership style had a directly relationship to rank, educational and professional development, and that age, agency size, and tenure played only a limited role in the leaders style.

Generally viewed as a blue-collar job, accreditation is an attempt for law enforcement to make changes and seek social acceptance as a profession. Crowder (1998) sought to determine whether the process has helped to professionalize law enforcement.

Dissertation research looked at the relationship between participative leader behavior, education, work experience, job position and job satisfaction a Problem Oriented Policing environment. The study concluded that education and experience might not be significant leader antecedents to participative behavior. However, the findings supported a theoretical framework that views job satisfaction as an expression of the leader’s attachment to the organization. (Christopher, 1999)

A study was conducted using the leadership frame theory of Bolhman and Deal. This theory merged several different schools of leadership into four frames: structural, human resource, political and symbolic. Wolf (1998) found that campus safety chiefs favored the use of multiple frames, that most favored the human relations frame with the structural frame. The study revealed that tenure and experience as campus security chiefs influenced the utilization of human relations and structural frames.

Bohlman and Deal’s four structural leadership frames include the structural frame, based on Taylor’s works, human relations frame—grounded in Maslow’s work, the
political frame and the symbolic frame. Wolf (2001) writes of the multi-frame view that appears to allow leaders flexibility in dealing with the organization in a manner consistent with constructs of the situational leadership theory. These concepts were applied to campus security directors. The majority of campus police directors were found to use a multi-frame approach. This result contradicted previous works of Bohlman and Deal. The human resource frame was widely used most in the campus police director community. This approach is an indication that campus police directors utilize open communication, collaboration, and team building in their leader style.

Hartman (1981) suggests that empowerment is one of eight themes in renewal organizations. He cites that within broad boundaries individuals are given responsibility to achieve results in their own way, as well as the opportunity to show initiative, participate in decisions affecting them and become a source of valuable information.

Using the combination of two instruments, the Leader Behavior Descriptive Questionnaire (LBDQ-Form XII) and the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), a study was conducted to determine the relationship between turnover and leader style. (Stalliard, 1997).

Some police researchers have labeled community policing as a revolution (Trojanowicz, 1990 and Kelling, 1988). However, while the concept appears to be taking hold, it is uncertain as to the long-term organizational effect. Much of the reason departments have chosen to adopt the philosophy of community policing is due to the availability of federal and state funding enhancements. When the money goes, will the philosophy go with it? What happens when the agency over-promises and under-delivers? What if promises are broken because of funding? What about the heightened
expectations of customers? Will the popular bike patrol be eliminated? Will the “beat” officer be returned to the patrol car?

Kelling and Bratton (1993) discuss the three sources of resistance of community policing. They find that unions, detectives and mid-managers are cast as the villains in implementation. However, they cite the “administrative problem” to effective implementation of community policing. They offer that through experience, where mid-managers are involved in the process of planning for innovations they become more committed to working to achieve success with their subordinates.

Managers look to insure that their organization has the best, most up-to-date technology. Yet, do they ensure that their organization has the best in leadership? There is a substantial body of literature dedicated to a better understanding of leadership in general. However, there is a limited body of literature focused on leadership in law enforcement agencies, and what appears to work and what does not work. In the current era, much is expected of law enforcement agencies at the local, county, state, and federal level. The terrorist activities aimed towards the United States over the past fifteen years has forced law enforcement to respond in a substantial and dramatic manner.

This literature review was intended to look for effective leadership practices in other sectors, including in the corporate world and other public organizations. Given that there has been a concerted effort to reform or re-engineer law enforcement agencies in America, this literature should serve as a reference for law enforcement organizations.
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