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A Quantitative Cross-Sectional Study**
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Kingson Njoku, Ph.D., MBA, FIIAS; Frederick Nwosu, Ph.D., MBA, FIIAS
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RESEARCH ARTICLE

**Examining Main and Interaction Effects Between and Among Command Ranks of Police Professionals on Perceived Leadership Characteristics:
A Quantitative Cross-Sectional Study**

Kingson Njoku, Ph.D., MBA, FIIAS;

Director and Founder

Leadership Circle International

Frederick Nwosu, Ph.D., MBA, FIIAS

Principal Research Scientist

Center for Academic Research and Educational Sustainability

Abstract

Effective leadership roles of police professionals in America today are critically difficult (Fine, Padilla, & Tapp, 2019; Meares, 2017). The purpose of this research was to determine if and to what degree perceived effective leadership attributes are affected by predictor variables of police professionals when adapting to critical situational environments. Leadership attitude test data of 182 officers (134 men and 48 women) was conducted. An approximate normal distribution was evident for the M , Cronbach's α and Test-retest Stability μ composite score data to confirm suitability for parametric statistical analyses. Factors were extracted using principal component analysis (PCA) to generate description of results. A 5-way independent MANOVA with the Bonferroni post hoc test was used to calculate differences between groups. Results suggested that differences exist in main and interaction effects between and among predictor variables of police officers on effective leadership characteristics, expanding Kouzes and Posner's (2002) model as a theoretical framework. Linear discriminant analysis revealed factors that shaped predictor variables. Factor loadings after Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization rotation showed the eigenvalue of the CAL Scale reduced to 18 items and three components explained 63% of the variance. *Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices* revealed statistical significance for *Purpose-driven* subscale, $p = .040$, and *Reason over Emotion* subscale, $p = .004$ ($p < .001$). The subscale group effects demonstrated that *Purpose-driven* and *Reason over Emotion* leadership attribute subscales influenced police professionals. The study supported previous research results and submitted recommendations for future research and practice on leadership characteristics for police professionals.

Introduction

The effective leadership role of law enforcement professionals in present-day America is critically difficult (Brown, 2011; Fortenberry, 2016; Meares, 2017; Sekhon, 2017). Law enforcement is a strenuous career profession, and like many demanding career professions, law enforcement professionals constantly endure uncertain experiences, wrestle with fast-changing permissible environments, and function within increasingly complex settings to complete work assignments (Chaney & Robertson, 2013; Hoch, 2014; Mak & Muller, 2000). As a result, the need for leaders with distinctive characteristic capabilities to respond to these challenges is imperative. Rifai, Juandi, Sulistyarin, and Lubis (2015) posited that leadership has an important role in organizations, since leaders oversee supervision and control the direction of organizations. Zuech Schneider, and Jones (2017) argued that the ability to lead in mobilizing and empowering employees affects the performance of organization members.

Effective leadership behavior has a significant impact on the attitudes, behavior, and performance of employees (Cornelius, 2016; Wolfe, Rojek, Manjarrez, & Rojek, 2018). Several studies have called for high leadership capabilities among law enforcement professionals to handle and deal with the fluidity of emerging terrorist activities (Black, 2004; Moir, 2016; White, Mazerolle, & Chalk, 2014). Leaders with high ethical and moral values, capable of investing in the values of integrity, honesty, coaching, and emotional intelligence are needed in present-day law enforcement efforts (Tahamont, 2018; Northouse, 2015). A chronicle of provocative shootings by police on unarmed civilians have increased threats of terrorism in many American cities, influencing leadership in law enforcement to address ethical and governance challenges for officers to effectively carry out their sworn duties. Effective leadership is imperative when taking decisions that surround protecting human life, security, and building solid community relation between the police and the community they serve. The increasing conflicts, rift, and disloyalty from civilians and other members of society has been attributed to reckless police actions of their operational job activities (Braga, Sousa, Coldren, & Rodriguez, 2018). Records of police-officer shooting events in Baltimore, Charlotte, Chicago, Ferguson, and other cities in the United States are few, but many examples of issues have generated tension and stained relationships between the police and the community they serve. Leaders with the capabilities to properly handle issues that provoke emotional reactions which may undermine the legitimacy of the police is core to keeping America safe bearing in mind that circumstances surrounding most of these events are complex, confusing, and hydra-headed (Bejan, Hickman, Parkin, & Pozo, 2018). The threats of terrorism have presented more complexities to the challenges of police agencies. Varied phases of terrorism will demand strategic leadership, logical thinking and a new mindset involving transformational leadership.

Ever since the 9/11 attacks, America has witnessed various versions of terrorism, including homegrown assaults from citizens, cyber-attacks from international entities, as well as different violent incidents at home and on foreign soil against Americans. Several studies have called for high leadership capabilities among law enforcement professionals to handle and deal with the fluidity of the emerging terrorist activities (Black, 2004; Moir, 2016; White, Mazerolle, & Chalk, 2014). Can, Hendy, and Berkay (2017) posited that in these times of increased tensions between police officers and their communities, there is the need for effective police leadership. Previous research has advocated for transformational leadership attributes among

most police officers, with supervisors who are good communicators, trustworthy, effective at training officers for changing times, and able to create a shared cooperative vision. Can, et al. (2017) called for use of transformational police leadership scale (TPLS) to assess superior leadership characteristics. Leaders with high ethical and moral values, capable of investing in the values of integrity, honesty, coaching, and emotional intelligence are needed in the present-day law enforcement efforts (Brown, 2007; Murphy & Ortmeier, 2005; Tahamont, 2018). Human factors such as social characteristics, knowledge, practical skills, behaviors, psychological traits, latent creative potential of people in a society, organization or community has been associated to the functioning of all organizations irrespective of their type, size and nature (Butorac, Orlovic, & Zebbec, 2016).

Background

Law enforcement is a dangerous profession (Brandl & Strohshine, 2012). The threats faced by officers during duty-related activities expose them to accidents, illnesses, as well as intentional assaults that result in injury or death. According to Obvert (2017), the evolution of federal law enforcement in America dates to 1870. Given the nature of the law enforcement profession, the tenets of collaboration and deputation were necessary to secure communities from acts of terror, violence, and trouble making, using common law processes to arrest citizens.

The burden of law enforcement professionals as guardians of society is absolute (Fekedulegn, Burchfiel, Ma, Andrew, Hartley, Charles, & Violanti, 2017; Schouten & Brennan, 2016). Bodily harm, psychological encounters, or death in the line of duty, owing to catastrophes or intentional acts of violence, is a professional risk (Price, 2017). Over the years, the incidence and prevalence of targeted assaults on police officers are problematic with significant implications for society overall. The unbridled frequency and intensity of these activities spurs leaders with high ethical values to handle and manage terror acts and accompanying crises. Significant literature on police activities has focused on an increased examination of predatory rather than reactive attacks of policing acts and their causes (Gonzales, Schofield, & Herraiz, 2005; Jaqua, 2016; Sekhon, 2017).

The social conditions of police officers in the U.S. has transformed dramatically over the years (Nangung, 2018; Vick, 2015). The new dynamic includes activities such as police-community relations, the social impacts of police shootings across the country, as well as the attitudes of various law enforcement officials towards body camera laws and community policing (Peirone, Maticka-Tyndale, Gbadebo, & Kerr, 2017). Training of law enforcement professionals is inadequate to develop leadership potential of officers for expected performance (Davis, National Institute of Justice, & Rand, 2010). The scarce resources make it hard for law enforcement professionals to execute their sworn duties with distinction properly (Brooks, Ward, Euring, Townsend, White, & Hughes, 2016).

The history of terrorism dates back several centuries and has persisted until date (DHS, 2017; Nalbandov, 2013). Nalbandov (2013) noted that the phenomenon of new terrorist activities is not limited to suicide terrorism. Long before the cold war era, examples of similar activities occurred when Japanese Kamikaze fighters crushed into Pearl Harbor during World War Two (WWII); when Jewish resistance operatives terrorized persons in the wake of the State

of the Israel; and when Tamil group from South Asia modernized suicide terrorism in the 20th century. New versions of terrorism continue to emerge to pose leadership challenges in the profession of law enforcement. The most recent self-radicalized Boston bombers; the Tsarnayav brothers, are among the many examples (Nalbandov, 2013). Since 9/11 events, resources in technology, training, leadership, and coordination to stop further attacks have been invested (Biddle, 2013; Peterson, 2005; Yin, 2009). More efforts to mitigate the issues of terrorism continue to emerge (DHS, 2017).

The invisible hand of cyberterrorism has become an emerging security challenge with no defined solution to the threat (Mayers & Mayers, 2003). Jang-Jaccard & Nepal (2014) have associated the cyber risk to the exponential growth on internet interconnection. Judging by the fluidity of terrorism, adequate leadership among law enforcement professionals becomes imperative. Marcus, McNulty, Dorn, and Goralnic (2014) explained that current training methods among law enforcement professionals have not been sufficient to mitigate future attacks. Reorganizing the need for adequate and directed leadership is a duty to counter-terrorism. The National Preparedness Leadership Initiative (NPLI), a joint program of the Harvard School of Public Health, and Harvard Kennedy School of Government for Public Leadership, conducted a study about the broader leadership crisis and lessons soon after the Boston Marathon bombing response activities (Marcus, et al. 2014). The role of leadership in management has drawn attention from leadership and organizational management scholars and practitioners (Crossan, Mazutis, Reno & Rea, 2017; Day & Antonakis, 2017; Marcus, et al. 2014; Sampson & Daft, 2012).

Leadership as a discipline continues to be commented on by leadership constructs, scholars, and theorists with the emergence of new knowledge. A synopsis of 211 leadership definitions from the 1920s to 1990s showed that leadership had the same meaning (Day & Antonakis, 2017). Leadership was about directing other people to do complete tasks. However, this definition differed on how leaders motivate their followers, their relationship to followers, who has a say in the goals of the group or organization, and what abilities the leader needs to have to get things done.

Marcus, et al. (2014) explained that getting people to follow a leader is more important than a matter of rank alone. They argued that many exerted influences well beyond their authority and made quick decisions with immediate life and death implications. Masal (2015) has noted that policing today is much more about social work and community policing, requiring more supportive forms of leadership. Policing any community is challenging. The ability of leaders who understand the dynamics terrorist strategies is important to influence their subordinates through intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and individual consideration.

Theoretical Considerations

The theoretical framework of transformational leadership behaviors as defined by Kouzes and Posner (2012) supported this quantitative study. Burns (1978) defined a transformational leader as one who raises the followers' level of consciousness about the importance and value of desired outcomes and methods of reaching those outcomes (McCleskey, 2014). Leadership

literature has recorded a sustained top-down influence of a transformational leader on their followers through intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, and acting role models (Bass & Avolio, 1995). Transformational leaders positively influence followers' behavior, which in turn foster organizational performance.

The review of the literature on leadership practices in various law enforcement and other organizations provided sufficient data to determine the effect of leadership characteristics and its perception among law enforcement professionals. There is lack of literature on leadership characteristics as a standalone construct (Hanges, Aiken, Park, & Su, 2016; Phillips, 2015; Rudolph, Rauvola, & Zacher, 2018). Evidence from leadership literature has indicated both positive and negative organizational outcomes from leadership perception (Paul, 2017). Kuhn (1996) suggests that loyalty, duty, respect, selfless service, honor, integrity, ethics, and personal courage are values that govern the basis for effective leadership in the military.

Transformational Leadership

Research on leadership has continued to record increasing knowledge on how perceptions of leadership influence followers' responses to leaders and their performance (Soane, Butler, & Stanton, 2015). Evidence from empirical study on intercollegiate athletes has associated transformational Leadership (TL) and leader-member relationship with organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior (Kent & Chelladurai, 2001). Current leadership development processes focus on followership and how followers' perceptions of leadership influence performance (Soane, et al. 2015). Bass and Avolio (1997) provided a taxonomy of leader behaviors' that are associated with effectiveness and performance (Landis, Hill, & Harvey, 2014; Paul, 2017; Soane, et al. 2015). The work of Bass and Avolio (1990, 2000) contended that transformational leaders are characterized with idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation.

Kouzes and Posner Leadership Model

Moir (2016) exerted that theoretical models are useful for the development of leader effectiveness. She examined a model that distinguished how observable behaviors become useful to solving complex leadership challenges. Kouzes and Posner (2002) established the leadership practice inventory theoretically based on transformational leadership model (Green, 2006; Green & Roberts, 2012; Posner, 2016). This model emerged from the analysis of multiple case studies of people's leadership experiences.

The five practices of Exemplary Leadership Model postulated that engagement, level of commitment, and satisfaction of those who follow are enhanced when the following methods are carried out: model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart (Posner, 2016). The practices provide the groundwork for organizational success, by recommending what behaviors and actions people need to do to become effective leaders. The work of Kouzes and Posner on the characteristics of the most or least admired leader provided the framework for the assessment leadership characteristics of the police admired leaders and other law enforcement personnel (Baker, 2006; Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Vito & Higgins, 2010).

Literature Review

Historical Content

Tseng, Tung, and Duan, (2010) noted that leadership is an important concept in the study of groups. The authors argued that leaders play an active part in development of role structure and goal direction as well as influence the existence and efficiency of the group. The challenges facing today's organizations make it imperative for the development of effective leaders who understand the complexities of the ever-changing global environment; who have the intelligence, sensitivity, and ability to empathize with others; in addition to motivating their followers for excellence (Cornelius, 2016; Dean & Gottschalk, 2013; Schafer, 2010).

Researchers like Friedman (1992), Jaeger (2017), and Skolnick (1966) asserted that police officers use vision in the same way as senior leaders in order organizations. The significance of the leader-follower relationship is imperative for followers to be aware of the importance and value of task outcomes (Murphy & Ortmeier, 2005; Nix & Pickett, 2017; Tseng, et al. 2010). Studies conducted by Reese (2005) and Schafer (2008) on effective leaders and leadership in policing stated that effective and ineffective leaders expressed opposite sets of traits, habits and virtues (Crossan, Mazutis, Reno, & Rea, 2017; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Sergiovanni, 2005). The study revealed that efficacy was strongly linked with integrity, work ethic, communication, and care for personnel. Ineffective leaders were characterized as failing to express these traits. Leadership development was cast as a process best achieved through a mixture of training, education, experience, and feedback (Cox, Marchionna, & Fitch, 2015; Dempsey, 2017; O'Neill, 2016; Schafer, 2009).

Despite the array of literature on leadership and organizational efficacy, police leaders and leadership in law enforcement remain understudied within existing criminal justice scholarship (Bass, 1990; Miller, Watkins, & Webb, 2009; Schafer, 2010). Aguilar (2015), Alimo-Metcalfe, and Aban-Metcalfe (2008) and Schafer (2010) noted that organizational and individual outcomes are commonly attributed, at least in part, to leadership or its absence. An examination of instances in which organizations have experienced some level of failure in the form of corruption, misconduct, inefficacy, or ineptitude can often be partially linked to the level, quality, and style of leadership (Prenzler, 2009; Rudolph, Rauvola, & Zacher, 2018; Schafer, 2010).

Densten (2002) and Dean and Gottschalk, (2013) found in another study on senior police leadership that each rank of senior officers had unique sets of leadership behaviors that influenced the perception of leader effectiveness and motivation to exert extra effort (O'Connor, 2005; Obert, 2017; Oh, DeVlyder, & Hunt, 2017). The author argued that police leaders, like all leaders, needed to use a range of behaviors to influence their followers. Kubala (2013) and Yukl and Van Fleet (1982) observed that such influence could change behaviors by activating the higher-order needs of followers and encouraging followers to transcend self-interest for the sake of the organization.

Empirical evidence suggested that follower transformation is in part determined by the transformational leadership behaviors of senior managers and leaders (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Ferreras Méndez, Sanz Valle, & Alegre, 2018; Ghasabeh, Soosay, & Reaiche, 2015; Yukl, 1998; Masal, 2014). The authors explained that understanding how senior police officers reacted to transformational leadership behaviors elucidated important insights into leadership at the most senior levels of police organization (McCleskey, 2014; Shao & Webber, 2006; Soane, Butler, & Stanton, 2015). However, the most rated barriers, practices, and characteristics of effective leaders are not fiscal, but cultural, structural, and political (Adebayo, 2005; Bass, Waldmann, Avolio, & Bebb, 1987; Schafer, 2009).

De Vries (1997) and Effelsberg, Solga, and Gurt (2014) conducted studies that revealed various organizational work settings in Netherlands to observe moderator effects of relationships between leadership characteristics and outcomes. Evaluating a group of 345 insurance agents, it was discovered that the need for leadership was found as an enhancer of relationships between human-oriented leadership and followers' satisfaction. On the other hand, task-oriented leadership and commitment was negatively related to followers' commitment. The need for leadership was a positive predictor of followers' commitment. Several studies from different industries disclosed mixed results about the effects of leadership on outcomes (Galante & Ward, 2017; Metra, Davison, Gimpelewicz, Carubelli, Felker, Filippatos, & Teerlink, 2018; Roberts-Turner, Hinds, Nelson, Pryor, Robinson, & Jichuan, 2014).

Transition from Managing to Leading in Law Enforcement

A well-regarded police service is a prerequisite for the positive perception of law enforcement and justice (Dean & Gottschalk, 2013, Gottschalk, 2011; Schafer, 2009). Management is one of many elements required for integrity and accountability in policing, but how to generate and maintain professional leadership is a difficult question (Dowell, 2017; Dukanovic, 2016; Wolfe, Nix, & Campbell, 2018). However, Prenzler (2009) stated that when it comes to ethical policing, inspiring good conduct by example is unlikely to be sufficient. Good leaders need to be good managers, with a detailed knowledge of the workings of their organization, facilitating and driving the successful pursuit of organizational goals (Mintzberg, 1994). Leadership is a key element for ensuring integrity and accountability in policing, originality, and value (Dean & Gottschalk, 2013; Wolfe, Rojek, Manjarrez, & Rojek, 2018).

Distinction between management and leadership has attracted scholastic discussions (Whisenand & Ferguson, 1996). The manager-management and leader-leadership distinction is generally defined as managing "what" a leader does, and leading "how" they do it (Dean & Gottschalk, 2013). The ability to influence people towards attainment of organizational goals can involve both what a manager does and how the manager does it. The authors noted that in practice, this definitional boundary is more blurred. Yukl (1998) argued that managers are more oriented towards stability and leaders are oriented toward innovation; managers get people to do things more efficiently, whereas leaders get people to agree about what things should be done.

Bennis (2007) and Bennis (2009) stated a clearer difference between managers and leaders by stating that managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing. In line with this assertion, Whisenand and Ferguson (1996) noted that a

competent manager gets the most out of resources, whereas a competent leader points their energy in the right direction, known as “leadership dance” (Knowles, 2001, p.126). Competency becomes an important characteristic of effective leadership that law enforcement personnel must have (Ramirez, 1999; Tepe, 2008). Police leadership roles (Dean & Gottschalk, 2013) include personnel leader, resource allocator, spokesperson, entrepreneur, liaison, and monitor. Some of the leadership role dimensions are more important in some situations than others, consuming more time involvement and task requirements than others do. Change is difficult to implement and often not desired within police culture (Cohen, 2017; Gardner, 2015; Dean & Gottschalk, 2013). Achieving effective leadership in police requires setting example for other officers by showing how to police in a manner that is fair, service oriented, professional, and within the standards and expectations of the community (Bowers, 2017; Jiao, 2015; Schafer, 2008).

Empirical Research: Leadership Skills

The job of the law enforcement personnel, like other traditional careers, requires some skills to be effective. Empirical evidence on leadership recognize the importance of management and human skills as important characteristics for leaders at every level of an organization, ranging from front-line supervisors to top management (Girodo, 1998; Mencl, Wefald, & van Ittersum, 2016). Empirical literature on leadership skills are examined to review the important role of leadership skill in the job of law enforcement.

An empirical study on transformational leader attributes, interpersonal skills, and engagement evaluated the relationship between emotional skills, work engagement, and transformational leadership using participants in managerial position (Eberly, Bluhm, Guarana, Avolio, & Hannah, 2017; Mencl, et al. 2016). The complete research model offered an integrative, individual framework of what leaders can do (interpersonal skills) and what leaders want to do (work engagement) to affect their transformational leadership behaviors. The study also examined job satisfaction as an outcome.

Mencl and others stated that the development of political skills is necessary for managers to be transformational. High levels of interpersonal skills are important when leaders lack personal energy in their work (2016). Leonard (2017) presented an approach that provided a framework for developing a strategy for applying leadership skills and competencies to achieve organizational objective in a variety of situations and contexts. The development of good leadership skills is important in building organizational competencies. They are best achieved when the teachable models of leadership are introduced using pedagogical principles that (a) employ inductive, inquiry based and discovery learning that emphasizes “homegrown” theories; (b) provide opportunities for realistic and real-world practice, (c) provide opportunities for real-time feedback and process debriefing and ensure participant accountability (Leonard, 2017; Rowe, 2001). Leadership in all organizations including law enforcement must embrace commitment to getting results and achieving strategic goals.

Investigation of military leaders’ level of adaptability to unexpected situations found two aspects of adaptive leadership (Halpin, 2011; Hyllengren, 2017). One involves how subordinates handle structure to follow rules versus their own initiatives to initiate freedom of action. The other is related to the balance between individual decision making versus group input in making

decisions. Compared with existing research, the model implied a more comprehensive framework for understanding military leadership at some lower hierarchical levels during unexpected, threatening events (Halpin, 2011; Obolensky, 2016). Compared with civilian contexts, the rapidly changing and potentially threatening conditions for military leaders call for embracing these kinds of traits and abilities (Yasir & Mohamad, 2016). Emotional stability and inner moral compass were strongly related to relationships-oriented leadership behavior (David, 2016; Sy, Horton & Riggio, 2018). These individual characteristics are relevant to the softer, relationship-oriented side of leadership.

Methodology and Design

An expectation of quantitative research methodology is for threats to internal validity to be minimized. As such, the principal investigator will focus on the threat of history, instrumentation, and experimental mortality (Cahit, 2015; Campbell & Stanley, 1963). Recognizing this threat is key to determining potential influences of parallel characteristics of law enforcement professionals on the conclusions of the study. For that reason, the principal investigator selected study participants at random, using simple random sampling to serve as homogenous representative subset. All study participants had identical opportunities and selected to participate in the study grounded on their exclusivity among the representative subset (Creswell, 2009).

Furthermore, quantitative research methodology similarly requires a review of external validity (Cook & Campbell, 1979; Dyrvig, Kidholm, Gerke, & Vondeling, 2014). As in the critique of internal validity, the principal investigator concentrated on interaction effects of selection biases and multiple treatment interferences as threats to external validity. The findings of the study were not generalized by the principal investigator, requiring future researchers to test the effectiveness of the current study results using previous or future occurrences (Creswell, 2017).

A researcher considers the most appropriate research method based on the type of information to be collected and how collected data is analyzed. The principal investigator selected cross-sectional design as the most appropriate design for the study (USCL, 2016), using survey to measure differences between and among law enforcement professionals to describe patterns of leadership characteristics in relation to command ranks, education, age, gender, and length of service characteristics variables. The study gauged through the lens of cross-sectional research to evaluate data at a specific point in time. Cross-sectional designs offer an indication of the outcome of the study as a result of measuring variables. Accordingly, the principal investigator exercised a reflexive approach to make relating suggestions based on the results of the findings. Cross-sectional designs are noted for their generalization of studies by drawing suggestions from existing differences between and among variables.

Another potential research design that could have been used for this study is descriptive design (USCL, 2016). Descriptive designs capture the most up-to-date information guiding the status of events. They concentrate on research problems that address associated questions of who, what, when, where and how. The principal investigator would have chosen descriptive designs if the intention of the study was to determine the extent to which quantitative research

designs are used, providing important insight as to which variables are merit testing quantitatively to address research questions.

Research Questions/Hypotheses

To determine suitability of inquiry, a primary research question and three sub questions were established. The sub questions were answered, analyzed, guided by null and alternative hypotheses.

RQ1: What are the main and interaction effects between and among command ranks, education, age, gender, and length of service of law enforcement professionals on perceived effective leadership characteristics?

SQ1: Do differences exist in the main and interaction effects between and among command ranks, education, age, gender, and length of service of law enforcement professionals on perceived effective leadership characteristics?

H₁₀: No differences exist in the main and interaction effects between and among command ranks, education, age, gender, and length of service of law enforcement professionals on perceived effective leadership characteristics.

H_{1a}: Differences exist in the main and interaction effects between and among command ranks, education, age, gender, and length of service of law enforcement professionals on perceived effective leadership characteristics.

Data Collection

The principal investigator received approval from the Institutional Research Board (IRB) were sought before the study proceed. Thereafter, data were collected from law enforcement professionals who voluntarily participated in the process. The survey questionnaire was set up online on SurveyMonkey® website. Hard copy versions the LELCS survey (see Appendix A) were made available for participants that lacked computer skills. Participants were advised that they cannot change the responses on the survey after it was submitted. The data were saved electronically.

Data Analysis

The data were retrieved and analyzed using the 25th version of IBM SPSS software in a numerical, aggregate, and graphical data form. The analyses provided answers to the research questions and enabled a comprehensive investigation of related hypotheses in the proposed study. Each category of sections on the LELCS were filled by study participants. Computing using ordinal scales, the categories of officer, sergeant, captain, major, lieutenant colonel, and other were probed as “rank.” The other categories of bachelor’s, master’s, and other were probed as “education.” Age and length of service were assessed for ratio level of measurement scales. Age was probed using “18-30;” “31-60;” and “61 or older” sub-ranges. Length of service was evaluated using “0-1 year;” “2-5 years;” and “6 years or more” sub-ranges. The eligibility requirements questions for personal demographic variables for 6 questions were gender, age range, rank, unit/division worked, length of service, and education. Descriptive scores were examined for personal demographic variables, where the mean (*M*) and standard

deviation (*SD*) variables were examined. Differences in gender, age range, rank, unit/division worked, length of service, and education were computed.

A 5-way independent MANOVA with the Bonferroni post hoc test was used to calculate differences between groups. Results suggested that differences exist in main and interaction effects between and among predictor variables of police officers on effective leadership characteristics, expanding Kouzes and Posner's (2002) model as a theoretical framework. Linear discriminant analysis revealed factors that shaped predictor variables. Factor loadings after Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization rotation showed the eigenvalue of the CAL Scale reduced to 18 items and three components explained 63% of the variance. *Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices* revealed statistically significance for *Purpose-driven* subscale, $p = .040$, and *Reason over Emotion* subscale, $p = .004$ ($p < .001$). The subscale group effects demonstrated that *Purpose-driven* and *Reason over Emotion* leadership attribute subscales influenced police professionals.

Findings

Consolidated summarized results of data may be found in Appendix H. All output for demographics is found in Appendix H. Overall, when research questions and hypotheses were empirically tested, the results suggested that differences existed between and within groups. The components are as follows:

Participant status. Each participant in the study was asked to specify whether they were a current on-duty, off-duty or a retired officer of the law enforcement departments of two U.S. states: North and South Carolina. Of the 182 participants surveyed, 92% reported that they were worked as employees in North Carolina and 8.2% worked as employees in South Carolina. A report from Jones, et al, (2019) suggested that organizational affiliation of officers varied in terms of the overall number of officers that volunteer to fully partake in studies.

Gender. The voluntary participants were probed to specify their gender as male or female. Of the 182 surveyed, 74% were male officers and 26% were female officers. The present study concurred with current literature about the state of overall gender inequality in many U.S. police departments. As more female workers enter the law enforcement organizations, it is important for the criminal justice system to reexamine and update inequality patterns of gender to account for the changing gender characteristics within the law enforcement profession (Iris Luo, Schleifer, & Hill, 2019).

Age range. Participants were asked to indicate their age range on the questionnaire. Of the 182 participants, about 60% of the law enforcement participants were in the 31-60 age range, and 22% were in the 18-30 age range, agreeing with previous studies that differences in age range among law enforcement officers were not infrequent, requiring officers to be cognizant and tolerant about the nature and demand characteristics of law enforcement professionals (Lockie, Dawes, Kornhauser, & Holmes, 2019).

Command ranks status. Each participant was asked to indicate their rank of employment. The categories were "Officer;" "Sergeant;" "Captain;" "Major;" "Lieutenant Colonel;" and "Other." Of the 182 survey participants, 37.9% were Officers; 29.7% were Sergeants; 11.5% were

Captains; 2.7% were Majors; 3.8% were Lieutenant Colonel; and 14.3% were “Other” non-designated officers. There were 26 participants that specified their ranks as “Other” (Appendix H). In a study conducted in a southern state in the U.S., Reynolds and Helpers, (2018) asserted that the perceptions of police officers vary on many characteristics including rank, duty assignment and department size are interrelated with their work-related attitudes. The current study dynamics appear to align with these opinions.

Unit/division status. Law enforcement participants were asked to indicate the unit or division they worked in. Of the 182 participants surveyed, 8.2% worked at the Office of the Chief; 41.2% worked at the Field Office; 13.2% worked at the Investigative Services; 7.1% worked at Special Services; 18.7% worked at Administrative Services; 3.3% worked at Recruitment Services; and 8.2% indicated “Other.” 15 officers specified “Other” to the unit or division inquiry which ranged from 8th Infantry to Reserve Unit.

Length of service status. Participants indicated the time they have worked as officers in their departments. 6.6% of the 182 participants surveyed indicated that they have worked within 12 months. 42.9% have worked between 2-5 years. About half of the officers (50.5%) have worked for 6 or more years in their respective department. The study suggested that majority of the participants have stable employment positions. Additionally, about 43% have worked between 2-5 years. In their seminal book; “*Law Enforcement, Police Unions, and the Future: Educating Police Management and Unions About the Challenges Ahead,*” DeLord and York (2017) warned that the stability that came with working in law enforcement over the past 40 years has seen drastic changes in current times, prompting criminal justice employees to readjust their futures regarding pay and benefit cuts, layoffs and more constricting working conditions.

Education status. Participants were asked to indicate the extent of their academic education. Regarding the extent of their formal education, 68% of the 182 participants surveyed had bachelor’s and master’s degrees, with another 47% of the law enforcement professionals with associate degree, vocational training and some college degree. 30.2% had some type of degree in the “Other” category. 1.6% preferred to not answer this question. For participants that specified “Other” in the education category, 55 officers specified their education status to include responses such as “High School Diploma” and “Some Master’s Degree.” Hilal, Densley, and Zhao, (2013) stated that although most states do not require higher education degree for law enforcement officers to be enrolled into the force, one in 3 officers believed that four-year degree should be mandatory and another 70% of officers would prefer this mandate to be a requirement. However, Francis (2019) emphasized that continuous learning improved officer’s overall skills to lead and supervise effectively. The current study positively correlated with both assertions, suggesting that the two departments are on the right track in fostering leadership opportunities through education for their law enforcement professionals.

Correlation results suggested that the age of an officer negatively influences their decisions about leadership irrespective of their gender. The age of an officer positively influences their leadership decisions regardless of their rank. To explain, the length of service an officer commits to the force is not determined by their level of education. In particular, the factor analysis revealed that police officers can work collaboratively with communities when perceptions of police leadership actions are positive.

The results showed that *Purpose-driven* and *Reason over Emotion* leadership attribute subscales influenced law enforcement professionals. A law enforcement officer can use their leadership skills to use reason over emotion when exercising leadership competencies to decide on why decision-making is important; use practical ways to assess citizens that are on the wrong side of the law; use decisive ways to intervene in employee grievances and fair decisions; and set a good example in the community as a role model.

When *Multivariate Tests* was run for the *No-nonsense* Subscale, the results indicated that officers valued the attributes of straightforward, forward-looking, imaginative, mature, inspiring, courageous, and intelligent leadership attributes irrespective of their ranks. Police professionals were also indifferent about their perceptions of straightforward, forward-looking, imaginative, mature, inspiring, courageous, and intelligent leadership attributes. Their perceptions did not vary notwithstanding the tenure of officers.

Male and female officers shared similar leadership attributes of straightforward, forward-looking, imaginative, mature, inspiring, courageous, and intelligent leadership attributes no matter how long they have served as law enforcement profession. Male and female officers rated the attributes of straightforward, forward-looking, imaginative, mature, inspiring, courageous, and intelligent indifferently regardless of their level of education. Officers respected the attributes of straightforward, forward-looking, imaginative, mature, inspiring, courageous, and intelligent leadership attributes irrespective of their level of maturity. Finally, the maturity and tenure of an officer determined their appreciation of leadership attributes that are aligned with straightforwardness, forward-looking, imagination, wisdom, inspiration, courage, and intellect.

When *Multivariate Tests* were performed for the *Purpose-driven* Subscale, the results showed that when matched by law enforcement professionals to indicate attributes that were important to them as benchmarks for effective leadership, “Determined” and “Independent” attributes exposed significant differences. Officers valued the attributes of determination and independence as leadership attributes irrespective of their ranks and their level of education. Male and female officers, regardless of their ranks, understood the leadership attributes of determination and independence as essential in law enforcement, and displayed comparable leadership no matter how long they have served as law enforcement profession. Also, officers held high esteem to the leadership attributes of determination and independence irrespective of their level of maturity.

When *Multivariate Tests* were run for the *Reason over Emotion* Subscale, the results disclosed that the age of an officer determined their level of fair-mindedness, honesty and loyalty to police work and associated responsibilities. Similarly, officers valued the attributes of fair-mindedness, honesty and loyalty as leadership attributes irrespective of their ranks. Furthermore, the tenure and level of formal education of an officer was shaped by leadership attributes of fair-mindedness, honesty and loyalty. Correspondingly, male officers were as good as their female counterparts when demonstrating comparable leadership attributes of fair-mindedness, honesty and loyalty to police work, no matter how long they have served as law enforcement professionals. Likewise, police professionals, regardless of their gender, rank and level of education, know that leadership qualities that incorporated fair-mindedness, honesty and loyalty served as key to law enforcement work.

Recommendations

Recommendations for Law Enforcement Professionals and Practitioners

The current study presented a comprehensive examination of the whether differences exist in the perception of leadership characteristics among groups of law enforcement professionals. The findings of the study add to the value of society allowing for the role law enforcement plays in improving communities by preserving the safety and welfare of community members. The study expands on empirical evidence to determine whether the perception of leadership characteristics exist within ranks of law enforcement professionals. The study was bolstered by Kouzes and Posner's (2002) model as a theoretical framework to examine the effect of age, gender, length of service, command ranks and education on perceived effective leadership characteristics of law enforcement professionals. This study was significant as a construct for a better appreciation of ethical attitudes and values that counter leadership challenges law enforcement professionals face regularly. This study revealed multiple insights about law enforcement leaders' perspectives and officers' viewpoint on relevant leadership characteristics. The study revealed that male and female officers, regardless of their rank and level of education, understand that leadership attributes such as fair-mindedness, honesty and loyalty are critical in law enforcement. The study also discovered that the maturity and tenure of an officer shapes their appreciation of leadership attributes that are associated with determination and independence. Furthermore, the study showed that officers respect the attributes of straightforward, forward-looking, imaginative, mature, inspiring, courageous, and intelligent leadership attributes irrespective of their level of education and rank.

With the limited study in this composite area, this study impacted the body and knowledge on leadership characteristics of law enforcement personnel at police departments at two southeastern U.S. states. Several implications for practice were discovered as a result of conducting this study. The significance of the study was demonstrated through output from in-depth summary statistical data.

Generally, the findings of the study exposed significant differences in the main and interaction effects between and among command ranks, education, age, gender, and length of service of law enforcement professionals on perceived effective leadership characteristics attitudes. Of the sworn officers that completed the survey, *Tests of Between-Subjects Effects* was one of the analytical techniques that assessed all the main effects and interactions of the variables. As a case in point, there were differences that accounted for factors that influenced the gender of an officer and how long they serve their communities as law enforcement officers. Gender and length of service factors had one of the most significant effects with *No-nonsense subscale* variables for Q19 (Straightforward). The present study validated previous research findings about the need for law enforcement organizations to recognize the average tenure of male and female police supervisors (Li & Brown, 2019).

The findings of the study showed significant relationship differences in between or among SPSS leadership characteristics questionnaire (LCAPL) item scores. Cherney, et al. (2019) used scientific evidence – like this study – to measure law enforcement leadership

effectiveness along the continuum. The current study validated previous research findings about feelings of how law enforcement professionals use emotional intelligence to deal with responsive suppression and uncertainty about crime incidents (Millar, Devaney, & Butler, 2019). For instance, Pillai's trace (V) test statistic determined a significant effect of command ranks on *Non-sense* subscales. The study revealed that officers value the attributes of inspiring, courageous, and intelligent leadership attributes to deal with critical situations irrespective of their rank. Based on filling gaps in the literature with guide from results from the current study, the principal investigator proposes four recommendations for future for law enforcement professionals and practitioners to include the following;

Practitioners can design training programs that fit within the context of occupational demands and use nontraditional training design for law enforcement officers to manage the efficacy of arrests such as the use of leadership skills to manage probable cause, police activities, patrol systems and community policing (Cohen, 2018; Myhill, 2019).

Practitioners can encourage a leadership culture that shares characteristics of distinction between sworn officers and the diverse community they serve (Manchak, Farringer, Anderson, & Campbell, 2019; National Police Foundation, 1AD 2019).

Practitioners can use person-centered leadership models to address sensitive issues that center around better intelligence for local emergency response systems to accomplish law enforcement responsibilities (Arredondo, Beletsky, Baker, Abramovitz, Artamonova, Clairgue, ... & Cepeda, 2019). Practitioners are encouraged to develop new paradigms of knowledge and skill that enforce efficient proactive policing aligned with organizational ethical values (Willis & Toronjo, 2019).

Conclusion

A 5-way independent MANOVA with the Bonferroni post hoc test was used to calculate differences between groups. Results suggested that differences exist in main and interaction effects between and among predictor variables of police officers on effective leadership characteristics, expanding Kouzes and Posner's (2002) model as a theoretical framework. Linear discriminant analysis revealed factors that shaped predictor variables. Factor loadings after Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization rotation showed the eigenvalue of the CAL Scale reduced to 18 items and three components explained 63% of the variance. *Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices* revealed statistically significance for *Purpose-driven* subscale, $p = .040$, and *Reason over Emotion* subscale, $p = .004$ ($p < .001$). The subscale group effects demonstrated that *Purpose-driven* and *Reason over Emotion* leadership attribute subscales influenced police professionals.

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Dr. Kingson Njoku is the Director and Founder Leadership Circle International, Independent Consultant on Homeland Security/Emergency Management, Police and Law Enforcement Leadership Analytics, and Fellow of the International Institute for African Scholars

Professor Frederick Nwosu is a Doctoral Faculty at Walden University, Principal Research Scientist and Co-Chair at the Center for Academic Research and Educational Sustainability, and President of the International Institute for African Scholars

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