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A Study of Rural Police Leadership Behaviors in Kentucky: A Full Range Perspective

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A FULL RANGE PERSPECTIVE

By

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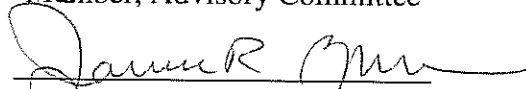
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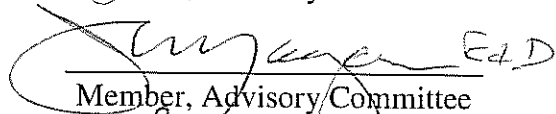
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A STUDY OF RURAL POLICE LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS IN KENTUCKY:

A FULL RANGE PERSPECTIVE

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the brave men and women of Law Enforcement

who protect and serve the citizens of their communities.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank the many people who contributed to my successful completion of the doctoral program at Eastern Kentucky University. First, I want to thank my wife, Demita, for her unwavering support of my pursuit of this degree. I could not have made it if it were not for her patience, understanding and constant encouragement. To my daughter Alexandra and my son Nick, thank you for your support and understanding of my commitment to complete this degree. To Frank, Sr. and Janet Kubala, my parents, thank you for your steadfast belief in my ability to succeed and always encouraging and supporting my dreams. To the rest of my family, your prayers and encouragement helped me more than you know.

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To Bill Sullivan, thank you for attending this program step by step with me. Your strength, commitment and untiring desire to pursue this degree motivated me to drive on alongside of you. I am very proud of your accomplishment and value our friendship.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the leadership behaviors of rural police chief's in Kentucky through their self-perceptions and the perceptions of their subordinate officers utilizing the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5X Short. The author assessed differences in the leadership factors of the Full Range Leadership Model and leadership outcomes between rural police chiefs and their subordinate officers. The sample included 47 rural police chiefs from 4 different regions of Kentucky and 94 of their subordinate officers.

The results indicate that 8 out of the 9 leadership factors differed between the self-reported ratings by the rural police chiefs and the ratings of their subordinate officers. The only leadership factor on which chiefs and their subordinates agreed was management by exception-active. Rural police chiefs in Kentucky report using transformational and contingent reward more frequently than management by exception-active, management by exception-passive and laissez-faire leadership both at more significant level than were reported by their subordinate officers. Kentucky rural police chiefs perceive themselves as using engaging and motivating leadership behaviors more often than their subordinate officers perceive them using them. Further, rural chiefs perceive themselves as using corrective, passive and avoidant leadership styles less frequently than reported by their subordinate officers.

Rural police chiefs and their subordinates differed significantly on all three leadership outcomes. Rural police chiefs perceive themselves more strongly than do subordinate officers as influencing followers to give extra effort. Chiefs feel they are

perceived as effective leaders by their followers and chiefs feel that their followers are satisfied with them as leaders at higher rates than do subordinate officers as groups.

The rural police chiefs self-report data that suggest a relationship between the 5 factors of transformational leadership, transactional contingent reward and the 3 leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction. Chief's perceptions, however, revealed no relationship between idealized influence-attributed and the 3 leadership outcomes. Research consistently shows a strong relationship between all factors of transformational leadership and the 3 leadership outcomes. However, no relationship in this study was found between management by exception-active, management by exception-passive, laissez-faire leadership and the 3 leadership outcomes although previous research consistently shows a strong negative relationship.

The subordinate officers report data that show a strong relationship between the 5 factors of transformational leadership and the 3 leadership outcomes. Additionally, they report data that show a strong negative relationship between management by exception-passive and Laissez-faire leadership and the 3 leadership outcomes.

Based on these findings, rural police leaders at all levels should be trained in the use of transformational leadership and transactional contingent reward. These leadership factors appear to motivate extra effort, and stimulate followers to view their leaders as effective, and sources of higher job satisfaction.

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CHAPTER 1

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Leadership in many kinds of organizations has been studied extensively for hundreds of years. Innumerable studies have been conducted to measure leadership effectiveness (Yukl, 1989). Nearly all institutions, public or private, crave a leader who can influence their personnel beyond what is normally expected and get them to do what is best for the organization. Research advocates that leaders should have the capability to guide attitudes, abilities, and beliefs of their personnel to accomplish organizational goals (Bass, 1985; Burns 1978; Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Stodgill, 1974). While leadership research and its importance have been prominent over the past several decades, effective leadership is more crucial today than ever before because of major shifts in societal norms (Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Yukl, 2006).

Law enforcement is an ever changing profession internally and externally. Constant changes in social norms, laws, criminal procedures, police tactics, and technology demand that a police leader meet community and organizational needs. Law enforcement leaders have substantial influence within their organizations and communities. Their position requires that they balance basic and conflicting values in competitive and explosive situations (Miller, Watkins, & Webb, 2009). In order for a police leader to survive these conditions, he or she must possess the ability to constantly adapt to the changing pressures, mandates and spotlight that is thrust upon them (Miller, Watkins, & Webb, 2009). The research on leadership across organizations is abundant. However, there is little in the area of leadership training and theory for law enforcement (Haberfield, 2006).

In a study by Girodo (1998), police leaders from across the world were surveyed regarding the style of leadership. Most of them reported using a "Machiavellian model" that emphasized the exploitation of followers to achieve the leader's ends. Some of the leaders did report using other styles such as transformational, bureaucratic and social contact. The paramilitary structure of police departments is responsible for the continued use of the Machiavellian leadership style. Police leaders are characteristically controlling and avoid participatory management (Girodo, 1998).

Law enforcement leadership is usually associated with the utilization of authoritarian and bureaucratic models of leadership. However, these practices are being confronted and police leaders are being challenged to adopt more modern approaches (Engel, 2001). Law enforcement agencies are highly structured with well-defined organizational charts that describe the roles of each position (Hughes, 2010). This system accentuates the top down communication that accompanies authoritarian and bureaucratic leadership styles. Further, these styles lack the ability for better communication networks, participative decision-making, and ethical leadership (Hughes, 2010). A police organization often should have a flexible structure that will better facilitate the fast paced change associated with law enforcement, as well as flowing communication and leadership firmly embedded in the design (Hughes, 2010).

Police chiefs feel it is important that police leaders be honest and transparent in dealing with followers, set a good example of performance and integrity, be a change agent who moves the agency forward, and support and honor the performance of their orders (Fischer, 2009). Additionally, there is a need for chiefs to be optimistic role models who instill confidence to their agency and community (Isenberg, 2010). An

inclusive style of leadership is vital to organizational success. The current literature on police leadership focuses on the relationship between leaders and followers. Recent studies on police chiefs indicate the success of an inclusive and humanistic approach to police leadership (Fischer, 2009).

Transformational leadership has become one of the most researched, current and popular leadership styles over the last forty years. Transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978) is the ability of a leader to engage and motivate followers to go beyond their personal goals for the betterment of the organization (Bass, 1996). Originally, transformational leadership was introduced in 1978 by James MacGregor Burns, and it differentiated between two types of leadership: transformational and transactional. Burns (1978) described transactional leadership as an exchange of rewards and promises of reward for the desired level of effort. On the contrary, transformational leaders engage the full person recognizing the unfulfilled needs of their followers. This theory encourages followers to exceed their self-interests for the sake of the team, organization, or larger policy (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Transformational and transactional leadership styles are usually described as two separate theories; however, they may be exhibited by the same leader, in different amounts and situations (Bass, 1985).

The Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM) was developed by Avolio and Bass (1991) and grew out of the early work of Bass' (1985) transformational and transactional leadership. The Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM) includes transformational, transactional and passive/avoidant leadership styles. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire was originally designed by Bass in 1985 to measure transformational and transactional leadership styles. The most current version of the Multifactor Leadership

Questionnaire is made up of questions that measure behaviors for the transformational, transactional and passive avoidant leadership factors, and their outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction with leaders (Avolio & Bass, 1994, 2004).

Rationale for the Study

Over the last one hundred years, leadership has been studied extensively, creating numerous theories and models that advocate effective leadership abilities. Most of these theories and models have been adapted to systematically research police leadership styles. Additionally, research that has been done with respect to law enforcement leadership has been performed in the urban policing environment. Little or no research has been conducted on rural police leadership styles. Thus, this study is intended to address a significant gap in the research base on police leadership styles.

The United States Department of Justice defines small and rural law enforcement police departments as those having 50 or fewer officers or those with a service population of 50,000 people or less (Romesburg, 2007). Of the more than 17,000 police agencies in the United States, approximately 89% of them have less than 50 officers. American policing tends to study urban policing and tries to apply those findings to rural policing. Rural policing is distinctly different than urban policing, and their strategies need to be adapted to them (Romesburg, 2007).

To address this void in the literature, this study, utilized the Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM) to assess the leadership behaviors that are considered most desirable to rural law enforcement officers. The framework for this study includes transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant behavior of rural police leaders through the use of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5X Short. As

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noted earlier, the Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM) was developed by Avolio and Bass (1994, 2004) and extended the early work of Bass' (1985) transformational and transactional leadership. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was originally designed by Bass in 1985 to measure transformational and transactional leadership styles. The MLQ has evolved over the last twenty-seven years with the latest version Form 5X Short possessing the ability to measure the full range of leadership styles including transformational, transactional and passive-avoidant leadership styles (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the leadership behaviors of rural police chiefs in Kentucky through their self-perceptions and the perceptions of their subordinate sworn officers by utilizing the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5X Short (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The MLQ uses an extensive variety of leadership behaviors to measure transformational, transactional, and passive avoidant leadership, as well as the organizational outcomes of extra effort, leader effectiveness, and satisfaction with leaders. This study assessed whether the leadership factors of transformational, transactional and passive avoidant and the organizational outcomes of extra effort, leader effectiveness, and satisfaction with leaders differ between the self-perceptions of the rural police chiefs and the perception of their subordinate officers. Correlations between leadership factors and organizational outcomes based on the perceptions of both groups also were examined.

Research Questions

This study addresses the following questions:

1. Are there differences in the self-reported leadership factors between rural police chiefs and their subordinate officers?

2. Are there differences in the self-reported leadership outcomes between rural police chiefs and their subordinate officers?

3. What are the relationships between the self-reported leadership factors of rural police chiefs and leadership outcomes?

4. What are the relationships between the subordinate officers' ratings of the rural police chiefs' leadership factors and chiefs' leadership outcomes?

Theoretical Framework

The framework for this study is based on the Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM) of transformational, transactional, and passive avoidant leadership behaviors. The framework includes 3 leadership outcomes: extra efforts, effectiveness and satisfaction are assessed in this study.

Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM)

The Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM) was developed by Avolio and Bass (1994, 2004) out of the earlier work of Bass' (1985) transformational and transactional leadership. The FRLM was developed to increase the range of leadership styles being examined by researchers to include not only charismatic and inspirational leadership but a "full range" to include non-leadership behaviors (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Research suggests that it is important to include the FRLM when measuring and assessing leadership styles (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership was popularized by James MacGregor Burns (1978) and included two types of leadership styles: transformational and transactional. According to Burns (1978), transactional leaders motivate followers by exchanging rewards for services, while transformational leaders influence followers to exceed their self-interests to further the objectives of the team or organization (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Transformational leadership utilizes five behavior factors (Avolio & Bass, 2004):

1. Idealized Influence (Attributed)—The leader is admired, trusted, and respected. He or she go beyond their self-interests for the good of the organization (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

2. Idealized Influence (Behaviors)—The leader exhibits a strong sense of purpose and high morals and ethics (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

3. Inspirational Motivation—The leader is motivational and optimistic about the future, and expresses and supports an exciting vision (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

4. Intellectual Stimulation—The leader influences followers to be innovative and creative, resisting the status quo (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

5. Individual Consideration—The leader acts on the individual's need for achievement and growth, and serves as a coach and mentor (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

An autoenthnographic study of a large Canadian metropolitan police department by Murphy (2008) showed that police officers connected emotionally with transformational leaders. Murphy found that transformational leaders were able to challenge the dominant authoritarian police leadership paradigm until they made upper

management feel insecure. Transformational leadership has been studied extensively and observed across organizations ranging from industrial, educational, government, and military settings (Avolio & Yammarino, 2003; Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1995, Avolio & Bass, 1994; Deluga, 1988). It is understudied in the rural law enforcement setting.

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership is the other leadership style originally found in Burns' (1978) work. A transactional leader influences personnel by exchanging rewards for services; such leadership is considered a temporary process. After the exchange occurs, the leader and follower can go their separate ways because they are not bound together in the pursuit of higher commitment (Burns, 1978). The Transactional leadership model includes the two key leadership styles of contingent reward and management-by-exception (active), both of which encompass organizational rewards and penalties. Contingent reward is a positive form of leadership that defines expectations and encourages performance to achieve these expectations. Management-by-exception (active) is a corrective form of transactional leadership where the leader sets the standards of compliance, as well as the behaviors that establish ineffective performance and may punish those that are out of compliance with those standards (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Passive/Avoidant Behavior

Passive/avoidant leadership is another model of leadership in which the leader does not respond to situations and problems thoroughly. It includes Management-by-Exception Passive (MBEP) and Laissez-faire (LF) leadership styles. Management-by-Exception Passive leaders tend to react to problems only after the problems have

manifested themselves as serious enough to warrant corrective action, and such leaders may avoid making decisions at all. Laissez-faire leadership is the absence of leadership and the avoidance of any kind of intervention methods with subordinates. They are usually not present to deal with problems when they arise. Passive/Avoidant leaders do not provide specific goals, descriptive job expectations, or standards to be accomplished by followers. This style of leadership has been shown to have a negative impact on anticipated follower outcomes (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Management-by-Exception Passive is similar to Laissez-faire leadership since both exemplify the idea of "No Leadership" and have a negative impact on subordinates (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Outcomes of Leadership

Research has consistently shown that transformational and transactional leadership are related to the accomplishments of the group; however, transformational leadership generally produces higher follower effectiveness and satisfaction than transactional leadership, with the most effective leaders utilizing a Full Range of Leadership Styles (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1985, 1998; Bass & Avolio, 1993). Leadership outcomes are measured by the use of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), and effectiveness is defined by the extent to which raters perceive their leaders to be motivating, collaborative at the different levels of the organization, and how well leaders work with others (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Leadership outcomes include extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction with the leadership. Extra effort represents the concept of getting others to do more than is expected, which is a foundational principle of transformational leadership. Additionally, it enhances other's need to be successful and encourages others to try harder.

Effectiveness embodies the concepts of meeting followers' job-related needs, leading a

group well, and meeting organizational obligations. Lastly, satisfaction with leadership is

based on the use of effective leadership styles and the leader's ability to work effectively

with others (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Significance of the Study

Law enforcement is the conduit that society expects to shield them from evil. Law

enforcement protects and serves their communities through the emphasis of effective,

moral and ethical leadership at all levels. The significance of this study is that it expands

the understanding of leadership styles utilized in law enforcement and minimizes the gap

that exists between urban and rural law enforcement leadership style research. It utilized

the strength of the Full Range Leadership Model and the Multifactor Leadership

Questionnaire to quantify the expected leader behaviors. Further, it identified leader

behaviors expected by rural officers that may improve extra effort, leader effectiveness,

and satisfaction with the leader of that group.

This study and its findings may be used to enhance law enforcement leadership

training in rural communities. Further, the results may be used to enhance other

emergency service leadership in rural settings by expanding a very limited body of

research. Finally, this study may be used to encourage future studies by other researchers

in the area of law enforcement leadership from different contexts such as federal agencies

or corrections.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this chapter is to investigate and review the scholarly literature related to the concept of leadership. Leadership is a complicated and varied field of information making understanding the concepts a daunting undertaking. Leadership has been studied for more than a century; many of its theoretical foundations are powerfully grounded in research.

Although the concept of leadership has been around since the beginning of time, it remains a complicated term that researchers and scholars have a difficult time defining. There have been many attempts to provide a formal definition of leadership, almost as many as those who have attempted to study the concept (Bass, 1990). Leadership theories are developed from the topics that researchers have investigated such as leader traits, leader behaviors, leader influences, and interactions between leaders and followers (Yukl, 1989, 2002).

The Study of Leadership

Over the past several decades, the study of leadership has moved from focusing on the leader to investigating a number of variables and their interactions. Since the late 1940s, the emphasis on leadership studies has shifted from a scientific theory model to one based on observation and experiment focusing on interpersonal dynamics between leaders and followers in various contexts and situations. The study of leadership has progressed from a historical position to many different views such as sociological, psychological, and political standpoints. Leadership studies started with the "Great Man

Theory" and evolved to an examination of traits, styles, behaviors, situations, and numerous other variables and sets of variables (Immergart, 1988).

Impact of Leaders and Leadership

The focal point of most leadership discussions emanates from the question of whether leadership or leader behavior makes a difference in any context of the subject. If leadership and leader behavior make a difference, then the value of research on the subject is relevant and purposeful. In a review of literature by Baetz (1978), he summarized a list of studies that support the hypothesis that leadership does have an impact. Several of these studies showed that leadership styles and specific groupings of behaviors have a significant effect. Furthermore, those studies examined effectiveness at lower and higher levels of organizations and established that change in leader behavior paved the way for effective organizational outcomes. Conversely, several of the studies challenged those findings and several others found an inverse relationship between leader behavior and outcomes. Leader behavior is a result of or can be associated with other variables to include group dynamics (Immergart, 1988). However, leadership has been found to be effective in some conditions but not under others (Baetz, 1978). Enough evidence exists to suggest that leadership and leader behavior are important factors to organizational outcomes.

Precursors to Transformational and Transactional Leadership

The following leadership theory descriptions serve as a foundation for transformational and transactional leadership culminating with the development of the Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM).

Traits of Leaders and Leadership

Trait approaches monopolized the early years of leadership research. The concept of trait-based leadership has a long history dating back more than one hundred years. Trait theory is based on the assumption that there are traits inherited in people that distinguish leaders from non-leaders, readily referred to as "Great Man Theory" (Galton, 1869; Day & Zaccaro, 2007). Trait theory has been debated throughout its examination, and some evidence against it has been discussed. Nonetheless, a strong steady relationship has been shown that links certain traits to leaders in leadership situations. When reviewing several studies, the strength of each trait varies depending on whom and how the analysis was performed (Baetz, 1978; Jago, 1982; Stodgill, 1974). The traits of intelligence, dominance, self-confidence, and high energy/activity level have been discussed and agreed upon throughout research (Immergart, 1988).

Since the work of Baetz (1978), more recent reviews have confirmed the correlates of effective leadership (Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 1986; Judge, et al., 2002). The most recent reviews distinguish between two categories of traits that are related to effective leadership: distal traits (motives, traits, and abilities) and proximal (knowledge and skills) (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Mumford, et al., 2000; Yukl, 2006; Day & Zaccaro, 2007; Zaccaro, 2007). The repeated strength of traits and their relationship to effective leadership is well grounded in reviews (Hoffman, et al., 2011).

Style of Leaders and Leadership

Style is another area of leadership that has been studied over the years and denotes the leader's treatment toward followers, or set or pattern of behaviors, exhibited by a leader in a leadership setting (Immergart, 1988). There have been many different

conceptualizations of leadership styles that have been examined. They take a number of different appearances from fictional flawless groups like heroes, princes, and supermen (Jennings, 1960), to classification styles such as highly participative, mildly participative, and non-participative (Bass & Valenzi, 1974), to the categorization of the constant styles of initiating structure and consideration (Stodgill & Coons, 1957), to democratic and autocratic leadership (White & Lippitt, 1960).

During the 1950s, studies at the University of Michigan and Ohio State University categorized two dimensions of leadership: consideration and initiating structure (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Stogdill & Coons, 1957). Consideration is centered on employee-oriented leadership, and initiating structure refers to production oriented leadership. These two dimensions were studied by others (Likert, 1961), but there were many inconsistent findings. In fact, many of the findings found that leadership was contingent on various situations. Researchers began to look at effective leaders as utilizing several different styles of leadership depending on the task and situation (Jago, 1982; Stogdill, 1974).

Contingency and Situational Leadership Theories

The contingency leadership theory was proposed by several scholars in the 1960s. They argued effective leadership styles depend on situational contingencies such as the nature of the task, specifically how certain or uncertain it is. Contingency theory relies on the inferences that there is no single best leadership style and the most effective leadership style depends on the multi-faceted array of situations a leader may face (Northouse, 2007). The most common contingency theory models are Path-Goal Theory, Situational Leadership Theory, and Fiedler's Contingency model.

Situational leadership theory recognizes four different leadership styles centered on how a leader applies task and relationship-oriented behaviors: (1) telling, (2) selling, (3) participating, and (4) delegating (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969). A leader who utilizes the telling style gives detailed directions to followers and carefully oversees their performance, while a selling leader explains and simplifies the requirements of the tasks and decisions. A participative leader involves followers in the decision-making process, and a delegating leader includes followers in problem solving. Situational leadership theory supports the philosophy that there is no single best way to lead followers.

Charismatic Leadership Theory

Charismatic style leadership dates back to the work of Max Weber (1964) where he defines charisma as the gift of grace. Weber (1964) uses this idea to illustrate that leaders who are self-appointed are followed by people who are in misery and need to follow the leader because they consider him to be extremely qualified. The charismatic leader displays actions that are passionate to a cause, and with that passion, comes a following that is excited in a communal sense. Charismatic leadership often results from times of turmoil when the basic morals, foundations, and authority of the organization are brought into question. Among the consequences of charismatic leadership are the "dark side" of behavior, wherein leaders like Adolph Hitler, Charles Manson, and Jim Jones are referred to as destructive charismatic leaders.

Transformational and Transactional Leadership

Transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978) is the ability of a leader to engage and motivate followers to go beyond their own personal goals for the betterment of the organization (Bass, 1996). The term transformational leadership originated in the

work of political sociologist James Burns in 1978. Burns linked a leader's ability to embrace the motives of followers in order to fulfill the roles of both parties. In this early work, Burns distinguished between two types of leadership: transactional and transformational. Burns (1978) described transactional leadership as a manner of social exchange where leaders use organizational rewards and punishments in exchange for increased performance of followers. Transactional leaders influence their followers to work toward specific objectives using role and task obligations as a means of rewards and punishments. Transactional leaders stress assignments, job specific standards, and task-oriented objectives.

Burns (1978) describes his theory on transformational leadership as influencing followers by inspiring them to obtain higher standards and moral principles. Consequently, transformational leadership takes place when a person or group of people participate with others in a way that leaders and followers elevate each other's motivational level. Transformational leaders have a clear vision for the future of their organization and are capable of creating change and movement to align with their vision. Transformational leaders work to transform the leadership ability of their followers enabling them through empowerment.

Bass (1985) worked to improve and expand upon a version of transformational leadership mostly based on the work of Burns (1978). Bass expanded Burns' work by looking at the follower's needs, not just the leader's. Bass concentrated on the emotional elements and charismatic aspects of leadership implying that charisma is an important part of transformational leadership.

Bass' (1985) work suggests that transformational leadership inspires employees to perform above expectations in three ways: (1) elevating employee's knowledge about the purpose and benefit of organizational goals; (2) getting employees to work together to eliminate their self-interest; and (3) allowing employees to work on other higher organizational needs. In a meta-analysis of 39 studies of transformational leadership, Lowe, Kroeck, and Sivasubramaniam (1996) found that leaders who implemented the factors of transformational leadership were seen as more effective leaders with better work production by their followers. These findings held true at both mid and high levels of management for both public and private organizations. It is a style that emphasizes charismatic and affective elements of leadership as described by all levels of managers from around the world when they were asked to describe the characteristics and behaviors of the most effective leaders they had worked for in the past (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Transformational leaders apply practical and innovative methods to make effective and successful changes within an organization; they also influence their followers to make the same changes within themselves (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Transformational leaders assist followers to initiate and attain higher ambitions, and determine what is important to them and the organization so they may reach their potential (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Avolio & Bass, 2004). Transformational leadership has been observed at all levels of various corporate, industrial, educational, government, and military settings (Avolio & Yammarino, 2003; Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1996; Avolio & Bass, 1994; Deluga, 1988). Transformational

leaders have been observed amid many levels of leadership within an organization

including low level and high ranking managers.

Antonakis, Avolio, and Sivasubramaniam (2003) suggest that "Transactional

leadership is an exchange process based on the fulfillment of contractual obligations and

is typically represented as setting objectives and monitoring and controlling outcomes"

(p. 265). Transactional leaders do not pursue change either inside the organization or for

their followers, but rather they look to continue the type of work that already exists

within the organization. Transactional leaders do not expect or try to lead their followers

to go above established goals and objectives; they merely expect them to maintain

established goals (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass, 1985; Levasseur, 2005).

Bass (1985) reasoned that a proficient transactional leader can be very efficient in

a steady and predictable organization where sustaining mundane daily activities is vital.

He further claimed that transactional leaders can be successful in organizations where

explanation of procedure and offering rewards can create confidence in followers to

execute their responsibilities and achieve mutually agreed upon goals. If a follower

achieves the agreed upon goal, they will receive a reward; if not, they will receive

punishment. Several studies show that although transformational leaders sometimes will

act transactional when the situation fits, transactional leadership is a more appropriate

prescription for lesser levels of execution or non-meaningful change (Bass & Avolio,

1993; Avolio & Bass, 1988).

Research suggests that transactional leadership is not successful when companies

are in need of change. Change in an organization often comes with stress to employees

and a lack of motivation to complete the process rendering the contingent reward

relationship useless (Bass, 1985). In order for effective change to take place, an organization must have an influential leader that can motivate and gain the confidence of the followers. The leader must have the members of the organization aligned in attitude and belief of the change in order for it to manifest.

Transformational leaders influence their followers much differently than transactional leaders. He or she seeks different ways to accomplish organizational goals, look for ways to grow, and are much less likely to encourage status quo behavior (Bass, 1985). Leaders, that are transformational and display charisma produce inspirational motivation, deliver intellectual stimulation, and provide followers with individualized consideration, influencing their employees' to attain their full capabilities and higher levels of performance (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

Transformational and transactional leadership has been examined extensively through research with regard to personal and organizational outcomes. Transformational leadership has been shown to be positively correlated with personal outcomes (Hater & Bass, 1988; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996) and organizational outcomes (Boerner, Eisenbeiss, & Griesser, 2007; Zhu, Chew, & Spangler, 2005; Howell & Avolio, 1993). Yammarino, Spangler, and Bass, (1993) found that transformational leadership significantly related to leader outcomes including extra effort, leader effectiveness, and leader satisfaction. Transformational leadership has a cascading effect on followers. Specifically the success of a transformational leader is shown in not only personal and organizational performance but by how well a leader has developed followers into effective transformational leaders (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Theoretical Framework: Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM)

The "Full Range Theory of Leadership" emerged from the work of Avolio and Bass (1991) with the expectations of fully addressing issues uncovered in research concerning the need to incorporate several models within Transformational Leadership theory. The phrase "full range" was used to further develop what establishes the most comprehensive possible range of leadership beliefs, values, perspectives, and styles. By recognizing and accepting the idea that a leader should display a wide array of leadership behaviors, Bass and Avolio (1994) incorporated the components of transformational and transactional leadership behaviors into the same model. The Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM) is comprised of nine leadership behaviors that are characterized in three main leadership styles: transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidant leadership. Avolio and Bass (1994) developed the model "based on the belief that transformational leadership and transactional leadership are not ends on a single continuum but rather are leadership patterns that all leaders possess and use in differing amounts" (p. 211).

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership theory (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978) is defined by the ability of a leader to influence followers to surpass their own personal goals for the overall betterment of the group (Bass, 1996). This give and take relationship rests on the ability of the leader to be an idealized influence, generate inspirational motivation, deliver intellectual stimulation, and display individualized consideration to followers (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1990). There are the four I's of transformational leadership. Bass and Riggio (2006) have further subdivided idealized influence into two separate

components: idealized influence attributed and idealized influence behaviors. This essentially leads to five components of transformational leadership.

Transformational leadership encourages followers to far exceed expectations normally expected of them. These leaders do this by showing followers the kind of sacrifices that you should make in order to achieve the mission. Leaders who are transformational also attempt to influence their followers to achieve higher levels of moral and ethical values. They identify with the mission being practiced and the encouragement they receive to accomplish the mission. They become inspired to exceed their own self-interests and become team players for the betterment of the organization (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Idealized Influence (Attributes and Behaviors)

Leaders that exhibit idealized influence are revered, appreciated, and trusted by their followers who want to emulate their leaders (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Leaders with idealized influence consider the organization's needs above their own and act in ways that build others' respect. To have idealized influence, a leader must display a consistent stance in word and action that is in agreement with the commonly held values and beliefs of the organization (Murphy & Drudge, 2003).

Idealized Attributes

Leaders that impart pride and professionalism in others for being connected with them possess idealized attributes. These leaders are altruistic believing that acting for the benefit of others is the right way to lead. This type of leader will perform in ways that allow followers to trust and respect him or her. Additionally, these leaders possess and present a feeling of power and confidence.

Idealized Behaviors

Considering the moral and ethical consequences of decisions and stressing the value of having a collective sense of mission are hallmarks of idealized influence behavior (Bass & Avolio, 2004). These leaders are seen by their followers as being remarkably competent, tenacious, and unwavering (Bass & Riggio, 2006). These leaders can walk the walk and talk the talk (Avolio, 2005).

Inspirational Motivation

Leaders that use inspirational motivation constantly appeal to followers' sense of mission and values. These leaders are enthusiastic and optimistic about the objectives of the organization and provide a workplace that has meaning and challenge. They leave no doubt in the mind of followers that organizational goals will be met or exceeded. "Transformational leaders get followers involved in envisioning attractive future states; they create clearly communicated expectations that followers want to meet and also demonstrate commitment to goals and shared vision" (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p. 6).

Intellectual Stimulation

Leaders that practice intellectual stimulation see the benefit of uniting followers with a variety of backgrounds. They understand that by bringing diverse backgrounds together innovation and new ideas are created. The objective of intellectual stimulation is to cause extraordinary heights of originality from followers (Avolio, 2005). These leaders do not ridicule new ideas from followers but rather encourage risk-taking when necessary to transcend organizational goals. Intellectual stimulation leads to shared-decision making with regard to the employer-employee relationship, elevating the followers' organizational commitment level. They inspire followers to question their old standards,

principles, and viewpoints that may be obsolete for solving current problems (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Individualized Consideration

Leaders that use individual consideration pay attention to each individual's need for achievement and growth by acting as a coach and mentor (Bass & Avolio, 2004). These leaders create environments for employees to grow through achievement and training. Each individual's needs and desires are recognized treating them as an individual instead of as a member of a group. This type of leadership involves teaching and coaching followers to higher levels of potential (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Individualized consideration is evident by leader behavior that is enabling (Ross & Offermann, 1997), that is, a manner of relating to others that is helpful but gently corrective. They establish a personal relationship with each follower and have the capability to identify when a follower needs more reassurance, autonomy, or stricter guidelines.

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leaders either reward or reprimand their followers based on their performance at given tasks (Bass, 1998). This type of leader uses an exchange accord with their followers. If the results are favorable a reward is given or punishment is rendered if the results are not acceptable. Transactional leadership has two components: contingent reward and management-by-exception (active) (MBEA) (Bass, 1985).

Contingent Reward

Transactional contingent reward leadership explains what is expected of followers and provides rewards when the agreed upon goals are met. Giving clear expectations and

providing rewards when goals are met usually leads to individuals and groups reaching organizational goals and attaining desired levels of performance. Contingent reward leaders provides others with support in exchange for their efforts, provide specific terms and allow followers to understand who is responsible for attaining performance goals, draw a definitive line of what a follower can expect to receive when the goals are met, and voice approval when followers meet goals and expectations (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Management-by-Exception: Active (MBEA)

This type of leader outlines clear criteria for compliance, in addition to what establishes ineffective performance, and could punish followers for not fulfilling those performance goals. Management-by-exception active (MBEA) is a corrective form of leadership wherein the leader monitors the followers closely for nonconformities, errors, and mistakes. When the MBEA leader recognizes these actions they take immediate corrective action to put followers back on the desired path. These leaders focus their full attention on handling mistakes, complaints, and letdowns, and document all mistakes (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

<div align="center">

Passive/Avoidant

</div>

Passive/avoidant leadership is another form of management-by-exception in which response to problems is more passive and reactive. These leaders do not respond to situations or problems with an organized approach. Passive leaders lay no groundwork for expectations, goals, and standards and avoid making agreements with followers. Passive/avoidant leadership has been compared to laissez-faire styles (No leadership) in part because both types of leadership are not active have a negative impact on followers.

Therefore, both styles are grouped together as passive-avoidant leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Management-by-Exception: Passive (MBEP)

Management-by-exception passive leaders tend not to deal with problems until they have become significant. These leaders wait for things to go wrong before they take action relying on the ideology that "If it ain't broke, don't fix it." Further, they avoid making transactions and agreements with followers leaving them with no clear set of goals or standards. Management-by-exception passive leaders do not interfere with problems until they are serious, wait for things to go wrong before acting, and exhibit behavior that allows problems to become chronic before acting on them (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Laissez-faire

Laissez-faire leadership refers to a lack of leadership or "non-leadership". These leaders do not act as leaders; they avoid contact on a daily basis and do not get involved when important issues arise. Moreover, they are unwilling to make decisions and exercise their authority, put off actions and disregard their leadership responsibilities. Furthermore, they afford little or no direction, make no effort to please their followers, and do not develop themselves or their followers (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Outcomes of Leadership

Research has shown transformational and transactional leadership is mutually correlated to the success of a group and leader effectiveness (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) measures the success of the leader by how often the raters perceive their leader to be motivating, how

effective raters perceive their leader to be interacting at different levels of the

organization, and how satisfied raters are with their leaders' methods of working with

others (Avolio & Bass, 2004). There are three leadership outcomes associated with the

Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM): extra effort, leader effectiveness, and satisfaction

with the leadership.

Extra Effort

Extra effort is the phenomenon that occurs when a leader influences a follower to

perform well beyond original expectations (Bass, 1985; Avolio & Bass, 2004). Extra

effort is an important element to organizational success especially in times of change,

crisis, or turmoil. An effective leader understands which behavior to use when

attempting to get followers to do more than what is expected, increasing others desire to

succeed, and encouraging others to have a willingness to try harder (Avolio & Bass,

2004).

Effectiveness

There are four behaviors that an effective leader should use in order for a follower

to perceive them as effective: meeting the job-related needs of followers, expressing the

needs of followers to higher-level managers, creating an effective group, and making a

contribution to organizational effectiveness (Bass, 1985; Avolio & Bass, 2004)). Avolio

and Bass (1991) found the most effective leaders perform on the Full Range Leadership

Model (FRL) allowing followers to achieve high performance goals. Research has shown

that followers perceive their leaders as effective when they respect, admire and have

confidence in them (Avolio & Bass, 2004). In addition, he or she will be more likely to

undertake new ideas and transform their values, attitudes, and viewpoints into positive

ones (Hollander, 1995).

Satisfaction with the Leadership

According to Bass and Avolio (1990), a leader who uses the Full Range of

Leadership will have followers that are satisfied with their leader and perform at higher

than expected levels. Satisfaction with a leader refers to the followers' perceptions of

how the leader interacts with them, the type of method they use to lead, and how the

leader meets their overall expectations (Bass, 1985; Avolio & Bass, 2004). Satisfaction

with a leader is determined by whether or not they work with followers in an acceptable

manner (Avolio, 1999, 2005). When followers are satisfied with leaders, they will likely

be more committed to organizational and group goals.

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (5X-Short)

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire has been the principal measurement

tool for transformational and transactional leadership and more recently the Full Range

Leadership Model. The original questionnaire was developed by Bass (1985) using a

multi-step procedure of questions to a sample group. Out of that sampling, 73 items were

selected and laid out in a questionnaire to be given to 104 military officers with the intent

of them rating their senior level officers (Bass, 1985). Bass developed the first version of

the MLQ from this study by creating a five factor analysis of transformational and

transactional leadership. The MLQ has evolved in the number of measured leadership

factors over the years, mainly because of criticisms from research regarding an inability

to replicate the original factor structure (Hunt, 1991; Bass & Avolio, 1994, 1997). (see

Table 2.1)

Table 2.1 MLQ Versions

MLQ Versions			Transformational					Transactional			PA
			Charisma					MbE			
Author	Year	Version	IIa	IIb	IM	IS	IC	CR	MbA	MbP	LF
Bass	1985	1	x			x	x	x	x		
Bass, Avolio	1990	5R	x		x	x	x	x	x		x
Bass, Avolio	1993	5X	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Bass, Avolio	1995	5X short	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

Note. PA, Passive/Avoidant; IIa, Idealized Influence (attributed); IIb, Idealized Influence (behavior); IM Inspirational Motivation; IS, Intellectual Stimulation; IC, Individualized Consideration; CR, Contingent Reward; MbA, Management by Exception (active); MbP, Management by Exception (passive); LF, Laissez-faire (Felfe, 2002)

MLQ's first five factors consisted of 3 factors measuring transformational leadership: charisma, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation, and 2 factors measuring transactional leadership: contingent reward and management-by-exception (Bass, 1985). These factors were confirmed in a study by Hater and Bass (1988), in which they disseminated the survey to 362 military personnel that rated 56 senior officers. The linkage between satisfaction and conscious efficiency rated highest for charisma, and management-by-exception was rated lowest.

The MLQ-5R was the first revision of the original model (Bass & Avolio, 1990). This model added a laissez-faire scale in order to illicit the full range of leader's behavior, which permitted the inclusion of inefficient or passive behavior into the survey. Furthermore, the items concerned with the mediation of an inspirational vision were taken from the charismatic scale, and the scale of inspirational motivation was formed. The charisma scale was renamed idealized influence. The second version of the MLQ grew to a 7 scale model featuring 4 transformational factors: idealized influence,

individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, 2

transactional factors: contingency reward, and laissez-faire as non-leadership (Bass &

Avolio, 1990). The 4 transformational factors became known as the "four I's".

The MLQ-5X (Bass & Avolio, 1993) was formed as a response to several

criticisms of the MLQ-5R. Findings by several researchers found high correlations of

scales among each other, the blending of behavior and assignment, as well as replication

problems (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; House, Spangler, & Woycke, 1991; Hunt, 1991).

The MLQ-5X-Short (Bass & Avolio, 1995) made additional changes to the idealized

influence and management by exception scales creating a total of 9 scales.

Transformational leadership has 5 scales: idealized influence attributed, idealized

influence behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized

consideration. Transactional leadership has 2 scales: contingency reward and

management-by-exception active. Passive/avoidant or non-leadership has 2 scales:

management-by-exception passive and laissez-faire. Additionally, the scales of extra

effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction were added to measure outcomes of leadership

(Bass & Avolio, 1995; Avolio & Bass, 2004).

The MLQ-5X-Short form has confirmed through four meta-analyses of military

and wide-ranging organizational psychology literature that the relationship between

transformational leadership and rated and independently measured performance are

stronger and more positive than transactional styles of leadership and the non-leadership

factors of passive/avoidant leadership (Dum dum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2002; Gaspar, 1992;

Fuller, et al., 1996; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubraniam, 1996). Lowe, Kroeck, and

Sivasubraniam (1996) reviewed 33 independent empirical studies that used the MLQ and

additionally found that passive/avoidant leadership negatively correlated with outcomes to leadership. Overall, the strength of the MLQ's ability to measure its intended scales is intact.

Law Enforcement Leadership

Law enforcement research on leadership began in the 1970s in North America in response to the civil unrest of the 1960s and a move to community oriented policing (Campbell & Kodz, 2011). This age of police leadership review got caught up in the period of academic research on leadership that had evolved from trait-based theories to behavior and style approaches to leadership. Consequently, police leadership research of that period started examining police agencies looking for new leadership styles and theories that could meet the needs of a changing social dynamic (Campbell & Kodz, 2011). Law enforcement research indicates that police leaders may use more than one behavior or style to influence their followers (Densten, 1999; Engel, 2001; Girodo, 1998; Kuykendall, 1977). While different leadership behaviors and styles should lead to reported outcomes of leadership as reported by subordinate officers, there is limited research available on the topic.

Autocratic and Bureaucratic Models

The early police leadership research focused on testing for the popular assumption that police leaders operated under authoritarian, bureaucratic, and impersonal styles of leadership (Campbell & Kodz, 2011). This research suggests that the traditional model of police administration is a system that is autocratic and bureaucratic in nature utilizing a quasi-military model to maintain control over line-level officers (Jermier & Berkes, 1979). Compliance by line level officers is demanded by a higher authority. Policy and

procedure manuals form the decision-making base and are developed by the leaders (DeParis, 1997).

Several studies have examined the bureaucratic model commonly used by police leaders. Archambeault and Weirman (1983) listed a synopsis of obstacles that faced American police departments at that time concerning bureaucratic leadership. They asserted that because of the bureaucratic model, police agencies have created an atmosphere that hinders work production, initiative, and personal commitment while it fosters the pursuit of individual self-interests destroying the morale of the agencies. Bureaucratic police models create an adversarial relationship between management and line-level officers; further, they nurture game playing and create an impersonal work environment. Working under these conditions has made police officers seek collective bargaining and join special interest groups such as the Fraternal Order of Police. The impersonal nature of bureaucracies aggravates people and may be effecting police recruitment and their ability to attract highly qualified applicants.

Hunt and Magenau (1993) continued the examination of the damaging effects of the bureaucratic model. Their study showed that police chiefs live in "the complete political arena" where conflict is out of control, intense, and pervasive. The typical political response to something that goes wrong in a police agency is to fire the chief. Consequently, the chiefs that rely on the bureaucratic model tend to have an inflated sense of personal power and move quickly to squash any dissent amongst the rank and file. The chief will remove any threat to his command and restrict who is placed in his command staff to maintain a culture of compliance.

Girodo (1998) surveyed 197 police managers that were attending an 11-week leadership training course at the Federal Bureau of Investigations headquarters in Quantico, Virginia. These leaders represented 102 police agencies from North America, Europe, and Asia. They completed a questionnaire regarding what influence approaches they thought were important for leading people in their agencies. Most of them reported using a "Machiavellian model" that emphasized the exploitation of followers to achieve the leader's ends. Some of the leaders did report using other styles such as transformational, bureaucratic and social contact (Girodo, 1988).

Research on Police Leadership Styles

Police leadership research has investigated the various leadership styles and behaviors of police leaders and the subsequent expression of satisfaction by subordinate officers (Beito, 1999; Bruns & Shuman, 1988; Kuykendall & Unsinger, 1982; Legault, 2005; Stamper, 1992; Engel, 2001; Schafer, 2008). These studies reflect that no one leadership style exists within police leadership confines.

Kuykendall and Unsinger (1982) conducted one of the earliest studies on police leadership styles. They surveyed 155 police managers in California using the Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) survey developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1977). The LEAD survey measures leadership style in terms of four different categories: (1) telling, giving specific directions and closely monitoring subordinates; (2) selling, leader explains the need for their decisions and gives chances for clarifications; (3) participating, shared-decision making between leader and follower; and (4) delegating, low support and direction.

The outcomes of the study revealed that 45% of police leaders had no dominant style and 97% of them applied more than one style at least two times. Further, the study determined that the most effective leaders used telling and selling styles. The researchers asserted that the telling and selling styles may be less effective in developing followers because those leaders continually use the same styles, particularly when important decisions manifest themselves in crisis situations (Kuykendall & Unsinger, 1982).

Bruns and Shuman (1988) utilized a Likert Management Systems Scale survey to examine leadership styles within a police organization. The survey was distributed to 298 sergeants and lieutenants with the intent that they rate their senior leaders. The Likert survey was a continuum of four scales labeled as systems: system 1, Exploitive-Authoritarian style; system 2, Benevolent-Authoritarian; system 3, Consultative; and system 4, Participative-Group.

The outcomes of the study suggested that the supervisors prefer to see an overall leadership philosophy of participative-group. They indicated the department currently used a benevolent-authoritarian style with little decision-making by subordinates. This was interpreted to mean that these supervisors prefer the organization to use a leadership style that represents a mutual participation model (Bruns & Shuman, 1988).

Stamper (1992) conducted a study relating 52 police chiefs and 92 of their immediate assistants in designated U.S. large police departments. This was a qualitative study that examined the leadership and management styles of police leaders through an interview process. The chiefs were asked to list what they perceived as important leadership qualities, and their immediate assistants were asked to examine their chief's list for evidence that they were actually using those qualities. The chiefs reported that

they separated leadership from management functions and described using behaviors similar to transformational leadership: having a vision, being honest, developing employees, creating a friendly atmosphere, and motivating employees. In contrast, the immediate assistants reported that their chiefs were more managers than leaders and spent most of their time dealing with technical and managerial procedures rather than cultivating and inspiring subordinates.

Beito (1999) surveyed 421 officers using an instrument created to assess the leadership styles of authoritarian, democratic, laissez-faire and effectiveness. The purpose of this study was to specifically measure if leadership style can significantly predict leader effectiveness. The survey described an authoritarian as a leader who did not include subordinates in the decision-making process, whereas a leader who allowed shared-decision making and setting of their own goals was titled democratic. Laissez-faire leadership was described as a non-leader that was passive in nature offering no guidance or support. The researchers concluded that leader effectiveness was significantly and positively predicted by the democratic leadership style, but not the authoritative or laissez-faire styles.

Engel (2001) conducted a study using two different police departments for comparison. The Indianapolis Police Department (IPD) and the St. Petersburg, Florida Police Department (SPPD) were used as participants in a survey at the patrol supervisor level to assess which leadership styles they used. Four factors were used on the surveys that were found in an exploratory factor analysis conducted at each agency. The four factors were identified as: traditional, innovative, supportive, and active. Results revealed that a significant difference existed between the two departments with reference to their

preferred styles. Sergeants from the SPPD used a traditional style most often (48%) while sergeants from IPD used it 16% of the time. Engel (2001) speculated that this difference was because the traditional style itself has an appeal of directing and demanding compliance of subordinates.

Legault (2005) conducted a study of preferred leadership styles using local government officials of the Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP). A survey instrument was constructed using the six leadership styles described in Goleman (2000): coercive, affiliated, coaching, democratic, pacesetting, and authoritative. The directions to the participants was to rank the leadership styles from least preferred to most preferred on a scale from 1-6.

The study revealed that the local government officials reported a preference to be led using authoritative style (34%), while the least preferred style was coercive (7%). Authoritative style was characterized as using self-confidence and empathy, whereas it was differentiated from coercion by self-control and initiative. A further result of the study showed that police leader's connections with subordinates and the community came in second to achieving organizational goals, alluding to the idea that police leaders should consider management functions as well.

Schafer (2008) conducted a study using command level officers attending leadership training at the FBI National Academy. A survey was administered to 330 participants from the United States and other countries representing Europe and Asia. The purpose of the survey was to gain an understanding of which leadership qualities were needed to be an effective police leader in the 21st Century. The majority of participants described qualities similar to that of transformational leadership: motivating

officers to achieve higher goals, demonstrating moral behavior, serving as a good role

model, valuing employees, and their input, empowering employees, and showing concern

for the well-being of employees. On the other hand, participants described ineffective

leaders as those demonstrating characteristics similar to passive avoidant and laissez-faire

leadership styles such as: motivating subordinates out of self-interests, lacking

interpersonal skills, showing little compassion, being unwilling to listen to new ideas, and

lacking inspirational motivation.

Use of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire in Law Enforcement Leadership

This section reviews the pertinent research on law enforcement leadership that

utilized the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) to measure transformational

and transactional leadership. The research is very limited in this area as is the use of the

MLQ 5X-Short in assessing the Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM). The researcher

did not find any studies reflecting the use of the MLQ or the FRLM to assess leadership

behaviors of rural police chiefs.

Singer and Singer (1990) conducted a study using New Zealand police officers.

The purpose of this study was to measure the police officer's perception of their leader's

leadership style and determine the preferred leadership style of the officers. The study

used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) to assess the leadership styles but

failed to use the Full Range Model, thus neglecting to measure for passive/avoidant style.

The study only sought to measure the transformational and transactional styles.

The study found that the leaders significantly displayed transformational

leadership style more frequently than transactional style and officers preferred their

leaders to use transformational leadership over transactional leadership. Furthermore, the

researchers determined satisfaction was positively correlated with three of the subscales of transformational leadership: charisma, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation. Singer and Singer (1990) suggested that it is not unusual for transformational leadership to be the favored style, and their study supported the belief that a relationship exists between subordinate satisfaction and transformational leadership.

Deluga and Souza (1991) performed a study of an East Coast police department employing 117 police officers. The purpose of the study was to measure the supervisor's leadership styles as they relate to influencing behavior of the subordinate officers in a law enforcement setting. The study used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire form-5 representing 3 scales of transformational leadership and 2 scales of transactional leadership. 53 subordinate officers completed the MLQ survey. Results of the study found that transformational leadership was more closely related with subordinate influencing behavior than transactional leadership.

Densten (1999) conducted a study of Australian police officers in an attempt to measure the leadership behaviors of their leaders. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire self-administered rater form was completed by 480 officers and assessed the frequency of leadership behaviors of their executive leaders. The results of the study revealed the police leaders used the transactional management-by-exception behavior significantly more than the norm while laissez-faire was utilized significantly less. Additionally, transformational leadership assessments were significantly lower than the norm signifying that these police officers do not view their leaders as role models, motivators, inspirational, or as intellectual stimulators. Further, Densten (1999) revealed

that officers did not give extra effort, viewed their leaders as ineffective, and were not

satisfied with leadership more than the norm.

       Morreale (2002) performed a study of leadership behaviors of police sergeants in

the New England states in which officers rated their immediate first-line supervisors. The

study utilized the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), and 177 police officers

completed the form for their sergeants. The officers in the study reported their sergeants

used transformational leadership more often (53%). Laissez-faire was utilized the next

most often (25.6%), and transactional was the least used (21%). Additionally, the study

reported positive correlations between transformational leadership and the leadership

outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction with the leader. Lastly, the study

uncovered a significant negative correlation between Laissez-faire leadership and all

three leadership outcomes. Overall, Morreale (2002) concluded that transformational

leadership should be thought of as a successful style of police leadership but cautioned

that his research needed to be duplicated to include all ranks of police leadership.

       Gozubenli (2009) conducted a study of leadership behaviors of police leaders in

the Louisville-Metro Police Department in Kentucky. The Multifactor Leadership

Questionnaire form 5 X-Short rater forms were completed by 219 sworn officers of

varying ranks. This study used the Full Range Leadership Model to measure the

leadership behaviors and the outcomes of leadership. The study found that the

subordinate officers reported that their supervisors exhibit all five subscales of

transformational leadership and the contingent reward scale of transactional leadership.

Additionally, the study showed that together transformational and transactional

leadership significantly and positively predicted outcomes of leadership beyond the

effects of other leadership styles in the model. Lastly, passive/avoidant leadership

negatively predicted outcomes of leadership.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methods this study used to examine the leadership behaviors of rural police chiefs in Kentucky and their effects on subordinate officers' willingness to exert extra effort, perceptions of leader effectiveness, and satisfaction with their leader. Specifically, this chapter outlines the context of the study, sampling, data collection, data analysis, and limitations of the study.

Context of the Study

Commonwealth of Kentucky

The research context for this study was rural law enforcement agencies in the Commonwealth of Kentucky. These agencies serve a population of 4,339,362 dispersed across Kentucky's 120 counties (US Census Bureau, 2010). The population demographics of Kentucky as reported in the 2010 Census Bureau are: White (87.8%), African American (7.8%), Hispanic (3.1%), Asian (1.1%), American Indian (0.2%), and other (1.3%). The median household income is $41,576 with 17.7% of the population living below the poverty level (Census Bureau, 2010).

Kentucky law enforcement is made up of 412 different agencies and 8,100 police officers consisting of: State Agencies, Sheriff's Departments, County Agencies, City Police Departments, Airport Police, University Police, Public School Police, and County Attorney Offices. The United States Department of Justice defines small and rural law enforcement police departments as those having 50 or fewer officers or those with a service population of 50,000 people or less (Romesburg, 2007). Of Kentucky's 412 police agencies, 95.5% meet the definition for the small and rural category with an

average agency size of 19.66 officers. These agencies are responsible for enforcing the law, investigating criminal acts, enforcing traffic laws, maintaining order, and providing basic emergency services, which are the same possibilities as any urban police agency.

Small and rural agencies utilize a hierarchical organizational structure that operates within a chain of command where positional authority increases at the upper level. The highest level in these agencies is usually a chief of police or sheriff. Ranks may include, patrol officer/deputy sheriff, sergeant, lieutenant, captain, major, and assistant chief/chief deputy depending on the size and structure of the agency.

Samples

The data for this study included chiefs and their subordinate officers from rural police departments in Kentucky. Police Chiefs from 47 different rural agencies completed a leader form survey, and randomly selected 10% of their subordinate police officers completed the rater form survey (N=94). A total of 48 police chiefs were contacted to complete the survey. The state was divided into 4 regions (See Figure 3.1): west, central, north and southeast. 12 agencies from each of the four regions were randomly selected for data collection.

Currently, Kentucky has 412 police agencies located throughout the 120 counties of the state. 18 agencies did not fit the definition of a rural police department and were eliminated from survey consideration. Another 63 agencies have only one police officer making it impossible to include them in the study because a rater for the single leader does not exist. Therefore, 331 agencies were considered to be included in the sample population.

The sampling method utilized for this study was random stratified sampling method. This method was employed because it allowed for a more diversified sample of all regions of the state. All participants that were chosen for the study met the Kentucky Revised Statutes definition of a sworn law enforcement officer. Only chiefs with more than 6 months in their position were surveyed.

Figure 3.1 Regional Division of Kentucky

Data Collection

Data for this study were collected utilizing the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) 5x-Short form. The MLQ 5x-Short form includes two forms: the MLQ 5 x-Short Leader forms that were filled out by the chiefs and the MLQ 5 x-Short Rater forms that were completed by their subordinate officers.

The surveys were administered to each participant by the researcher. The researcher visited each chief selected for the study at their respective agency to give and collect each survey. The chiefs were surveyed between January 1, 2013 and April 30, 2013. One chief from the North region did not fill out the survey form. The researcher

administered the survey to each subordinate officer at their annual in-service training

week at a location away from their agency and chief. Subordinate officer surveys were

administered between January 1, 2013 and April 30, 2013. All surveys were anonymous;

no names of agencies, chiefs or subordinate officers were used in the completion of this

study.

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (5X-Short)

Content

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (5X-Short) was used as the

instrument to assess the leadership behaviors of rural police chiefs that are identified in

the Full Range of Leadership Model (FRLM) (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Additionally, the

MLQ measures the three leadership outcomes that have been identified in research: extra

effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction with leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The MLQ

describes a fuller range of leadership behaviors, from Laissez-Faire to Idealized

leadership, while also differentiating ineffective from effective leaders (Avolio & Bass,

2004). The survey was purchased from Mind Garden.com.

The MLQ was chosen because it measures the theoretical constructs of the Full

Range Leadership Model (FRLM) at all organizational leadership levels (Avolio & Bass,

2004). Furthermore, the MLQ incorporates leadership behaviors and outcome

measurements that allow researchers to link leadership behaviors with leadership

outcomes using the same instrument (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The MLQ is easy to use and

understand possessing clearly written instructions and sample elements (Avolio & Bass,

2004). It is a licensed survey that has been widely used for the past 30 years in more than

300 research studies surveying various organizational populations and leadership levels (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

The MLQ (5X-Short), Third Edition is the most recent version (2004) of the MLQ first developed by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass. The MLQ (5X-Short), Third Edition leader and rater forms were used in this study. The leader form asked the rural police chiefs to rate themselves and the rater form asked their subordinate officers to rate their chiefs.

Format

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (5X-Short) is a short but complete survey of 45 items that identify and measure key leadership behaviors that have been identified in prior research to be strongly associated with individual and organizational success (Avolio & Bass, 2004) . Of the 45 items on the MLQ (5X-Short), there are 36 items that represent the nine leadership factors in the Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM) and 9 items that measure the three leadership outcome scales (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The 45 items are answered by the raters using a five-point Likert scale to rate their frequency. The rating scale anchors are: 0=not at all; 1=once in a while; 2=sometimes; 3= fairly often, and 4=frequently, if not always (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Psychometrics

Research has proven the MLQ to be a reliable and valid instrument (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Antonakis & House, 2002; Avolio & Gibbons, 1988). Avolio and Bass (2004) presented that the construct validity and the reliability of the instrument have been verified by examining 14 independent samples that included 3,786 participants. The Cronbach's Alpha (α) score of internal consistency for the scales on the

MLQ (5X-Short) ranged from .74 to .94, which meets the standards for reliability (DeVaus, 2002). According to Creswell (2005), reliability of an instrument is measured by Chronbach's Alpha (α). If a Chronbach's Alpha score is close to 1, then the instrument is consistently measuring what it is intended to measure. Creswell (2005) clarified that the subscales of an instrument have a suitable internal consistency if the Cronbach's Alpha score is greater than .70. The MLQ is used extensively in research and has been proven to be an effective predictor of leader performance across a large range of corporations at different levels and in different national cultures (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996).

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Based on the Full Range of Leadership Model the following research questions and hypotheses were used:

Research Question 1: Are there differences in the self-reported leadership factors between rural police chiefs and their subordinate officers?

Hypothesis 1: There will be no significant differences between the self-reported leadership factors of rural police chiefs and the subordinate officers.

Research Question 2: Are there differences in the self-reported leadership outcomes between rural police chiefs and their subordinate officers?

Hypothesis 2: There will be no significant differences between the self-reported leadership outcomes of the chiefs and the subordinate officers.

Research Question 3: What are the relationships between the self-reported leadership factors of rural police chiefs and leadership outcomes?

Hypothesis 3: There will be no significant relationships between the chiefs' self-reported leadership factors and leadership outcomes.

Research Question 4: What are the relationships between the subordinate officers' ratings of the police chiefs' leadership factors and chiefs' leadership outcomes?

Hypothesis 4: There will be no significant relationship between the subordinate officers' rating of the rural police chiefs' leadership factors and leadership outcomes.

Variables

The variables for this study are contained in the Full Range Leadership Model. The variables used for questions 1 were the nine factors of leadership described in the model.

Question 1: Are there differences in the self-reported leadership factors between rural police chiefs and their subordinate officers?

The dependent variables are the nine factors of the Full Range Leadership Model: Idealized Influence Attributes, Idealized Influence Behaviors, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, Individual Consideration, Contingent Reward, Management by Exception (Active), Management by Exception (Passive), and Laissez-Faire. The independent variable is the officer's role (1=police chief, 2=subordinate officer)

Question 2: Are there differences in the self-reported leadership outcomes between rural police chiefs and their subordinate officers?

The dependent variables are the three outcomes on the survey: extra effort, effectiveness of the leader, and satisfaction with the leader.

Question 3: What are the relationships between the self-reported leadership factors od rural police chiefs and leadership outcomes?

The variables assessed in this question are the 9 factors of the Full Range Leadership Model and the 3 outcomes noted above.

Question 4: What are the relationships between the subordinate officers' ratings of the police chiefs' leadership factors and chiefs' leadership outcomes?

The same variables assessed in question 3 are measured in this question with the only difference being this question utilizes the subordinate officers' ratings, while question 3 was limited to the police chiefs' ratings.

Data Analyses

The data that were collected by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) for this study were analyzed for the two respondents groups: chief's self-perception and subordinate officer's perception of their chiefs. The mean scores of the nine leadership factors and three leadership outcomes for each group were analyzed using Independent Sample T-Tests. These tests were run to determine if the means between the two groups for the nine leadership factors and three leadership outcomes differed. Bivariate correlations were used to determine the association between the mean scores of the leadership factors and leadership outcomes. All data were analyzed using SPSS (V. 21) The Statistical Software Package for the Social Sciences.

Both non-parametric and parametric analyses were used in this study. Frequencies were examined for all 45 question of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire using non-parametric analysis. The Likert scale model of the MLQ represents a rank order of numbers with no clear numerical interpretation. The non-parametric method was used to analyze the frequencies out of simplicity when examining the questions that make up each leadership factor of the Full Range Leadership Model. Parametric analyses were

used to compare differences in the self-reported leadership factors between rural chiefs and their subordinate officer's. Additionally, they were used to examine relationships between self-reported leadership factors of rural police chiefs and leadership outcomes as well as the relationship between the subordinate officer's ratings of the rural chief's leadership factors and chief's leadership outcomes.

Cronbach's Alpha scores were calculated for each of the variables to determine their reliability. Tables 3.1-3.12 show the reliability for the variables: Idealized Influence-Attributed (.775), Idealized Influence-Behavior (.775), Inspirational Motivation (.852), Intellectual Stimulation (.789), Individualized Consideration (.745), Contingent Reward (.755), Management by Exception- Active (.678), Management by Exception- Passive (.690), Laissez-faire Leadership (.766), Extra Effort (.894), Effectiveness (.856), and Satisfaction (.832). All scores were above the acceptable level of .70 with the exception of Management by Exception-Active and Management by Exception-Passive, which fell slightly below.

Although, Creswell (2005) recommends that the subscales of an instrument have a Cronbach's Alpha rating of .70 and higher for internal consistency other researchers suggest that lower scores do not seriously affect reliability or validity (Schmitt, 1996). Schmitt (1996) reports that a Cronbach's Alpha score as low as .50 does not critically weaken the reliability of a subscale especially when intercorrelations are being considered within the research.

Table 3.1

Scale: Idealized Influence-Attributed

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.775	4

Table 3.2

Scale: Idealized Influence-Behavior

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.775	4

Table 3.3

Scale: Inspirational Motivation

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.852	4

Table 3.4

Scale: Intellectual Stimulation

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.789	4

Table 3.5

Scale: Individualized Consideration

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.745	4

Table 3.6

Scale: Contingent Reward

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.755	4

Table 3.7

Scale: Management by Exception-Active

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.678	4

Table 3.8

Scale: Management by Exception-Passive

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.690	4

Table 3.9

Scale: Laissez-faire Leadership

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.766	4

Table 3.10

Scale: Extra Effort

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.894	3

Table 3.11

Scale: Effectiveness

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.856	4

Table 3.12

Scale: Satisfaction

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.832	2

Limitations of the Study

This study was a cross sectional study meaning the data collected was done so at a single moment in time. It captured only one occurrence of the subordinate officer's perceptions of their chiefs. A longitudinal study would be helpful in studying a change of perception over time for the variables that were assessed in this study. More studies would be needed to further corroborate the outcomes of this study.

Second, the leader survey used in this study was a self-perception model that may have led to another limitation. Donaldson and Grant-Velone (2002) suggest that a self-perception bias may exist with a self-perception survey because research participant's want to respond to questions in a way that makes them look favorable. Respondents are

not always truthful, and reality to them may not be reality to others. The survey method used in this study was one of anonymity for both sets of respondents, eliminating the need for the leaders to be concerned with putting themselves in a more favorable light.

Another limitation of the study was its use of a sample limited to one specific geographic area in the United States. The study was limited to the state of Kentucky, which represents only one of the available 50 states in the United States. Demographically, 89% of the United States' law enforcement agencies fit the definition of rural. It is possible that the groups of rural chiefs and subordinate officers would not be representative of rural leadership throughout the United States.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Overview of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the leadership behaviors of rural police chiefs in Kentucky through their self-perceptions and the perceptions of their subordinate sworn officers. This study assessed whether the leadership factors of transformational, transactional and passive avoidant and the organizational outcomes of extra effort, leader effectiveness, and satisfaction with leaders differ between the self-perceptions of the rural police chiefs and the perception of their subordinate officers.

The data for this study were collected using the MLQ (5X-Short) leader and rater forms. The data for both groups were collected between January 1, 2013 and April 30, 2013. The leader forms were used to provide data from the rural police chiefs (n=47), and the rater forms provided data from their subordinate officers (n=94). The 47 police chiefs represent a (98%) response rate, and the 94 subordinate officers represent a (100%) response rate.

Analyses of Data

Descriptive statistics are reported for each item on the survey. Independent Sample T-Tests were run to compare the rural police chiefs' and subordinate officers' means for the 9 variables of the full range leadership model and the 3 outcomes of leadership. The MLQ (5X-short) has 45 questions that measure the 12 variables. The MLQ (5X-short) has a copyright limitation on the presentation of the survey questions within this dissertation. The agreement allows up to 5 sample questions and limited wording of the remaining questions for display. The following is a breakdown of the

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number of questions per variable: Idealized Influence-Attributed (4), Idealized Influence-Behavior (4), Inspirational Motivation (4), Intellectual Stimulation (4), Individualized Consideration (4), Contingent Reward (4), Management-by-Exception-Active (4), Management-by-Exception-Passive (4), Laissez-faire Leadership (4), Extra Effort (3), Effectiveness (4), and Satisfaction (2).

Idealized Influence-Attributed- Item Frequencies

Tables 4.1 through 4.4 reflect the frequencies of responses for the four questions from the MLQ (5x-short) that make up the Idealized Influence-Attributed factor. The four questions include the following themes: (1) instills pride, (2) beyond self-interest, (3) builds respect, and (4) power and confidence. Table 4.1 shows that (39%) of officers report perceiving theirs chiefs to instill pride fairly often, while (40%) of chiefs report instilling pride fairly often. In table 4.2, (31%) of officers perceive their chiefs going beyond self-interest frequently, if not always, whereas (53%) of chiefs report the same. In table 4.3, (48%) of chiefs report building respect frequently, if not always. However, (31%) of the officers perceive their chiefs at the same level. Table 4.4 represents the responses for power and confidence. Specifically, (40%) of the officers observe this frequently, if not always, while (17%) of chiefs report using it frequently, if not always.

Frequency Tables: Idealized Influence-Attributed

Table 4.1

I instill pride…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	8	8.5	8.5
	Once in a while	7	7.4	16.0
	Sometimes	11	11.7	27.7
	Fairly Often	37	39.4	67.0
	Frequently, if not always	31	33.0	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Once in a While	1	2.1	2.1
	Sometimes	12	25.5	27.7
	Fairly Often	19	40.4	68.1
	Frequently, if not always	15	31.9	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.2

… beyond self-interest…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	7	7.4	7.4
	Once in a while	16	17.0	24.5
	Sometimes	15	16.0	40.4
	Fairly Often	26	27.7	68.1
	Frequently, if not always	30	31.9	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Not at All	1	2.1	2.1
	Once in a While	1	2.1	4.3
	Sometimes	4	8.5	12.8
	Fairly Often	16	34.0	46.8
	Frequently, if not always	25	53.2	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.3

… build others' respect…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	3	3.2	3.2
	Once in a while	17	18.1	21.3
	Sometimes	12	12.8	34.0
	Fairly Often	32	34.0	68.1
	Frequently, if not always	30	31.9	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Not at All	1	2.1	2.1
	Once in a While	2	4.3	6.4
	Sometimes	4	8.5	14.9
	Fairly Often	17	36.2	51.1
	Frequently, if not always	23	48.9	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.4

I display a sense of power and confidence

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	2	2.1	2.1
	Once in a while	7	7.4	9.6
	Sometimes	14	14.9	24.5
	Fairly Often	33	35.1	59.6
	Frequently, if not always	38	40.4	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Once in a While	3	6.4	6.4
	Sometimes	13	27.7	34.0
	Fairly Often	23	48.9	83.0
	Frequently, if not always	8	17.0	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Idealized Influence-Behavior-Item Frequencies

Tables 4.5 through 4.8 display the frequencies of responses for the four questions from the MLQ (5x-short) that make up the Idealized Influence-Behavior factor. The four topics that represent this factor are: (1) values and beliefs, (2) sense of purpose, (3) moral and ethical, and (4) emphasize mission. In Table 4.5 (85%) of the chiefs perceive themselves exhibiting clear values and beliefs fairly often or frequently, if not always, whereas only (57%) of the officers perceive them doing so at the same frequency. Table 4.6 shows that (33%) of officers perceive their chiefs as displaying a sense of purpose frequently, if not always, while (40%) of chiefs' report the same. As displayed in Table 4.7, (74%) of chiefs report being moral and ethical frequently, if not always, but only (37%) of their officers recognize this frequently, if not always. When it comes to emphasizing mission, table 4.8 shows that (61%) of officers see their chiefs doing this fairly often or frequently, if not always, while (89%) of chiefs report the same level. All four tables indicate that the officers' percentages spread fairly equally between sometime, fairly often and frequently, if not always whereas the chiefs higher percentages are limited to the highest or next highest frequency.

Frequency Tables: Idealized Influence-Behavior

Table 4.5

…values and beliefs…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	5	5.3	5.3
	Once in a while	9	9.6	14.9
	Sometimes	26	27.7	42.6
	Fairly Often	28	29.8	72.3
	Frequently, if not always	26	27.7	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Once in a While	3	6.4	6.4
	Sometimes	4	8.5	14.9
	Fairly Often	22	46.8	61.7
	Frequently, if not always	18	38.3	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.6

…sense of purpose…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	3	3.2	3.2
	Once in a while	3	3.2	6.4
	Sometimes	28	29.8	36.2
	Fairly Often	29	30.9	67.0
	Frequently, if not always	31	33.0	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Sometimes	3	6.4	6.4
	Fairly Often	25	53.2	59.6
	Frequently, if not always	19	40.4	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.7

…moral and ethical…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	3	3.2	3.2
	Once in a while	5	5.3	8.5
	Sometimes	22	23.4	31.9
	Fairly Often	29	30.9	62.8
	Frequently, if not always	35	37.2	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Sometimes	4	8.5	8.5
	Fairly Often	8	17.0	25.5
	Frequently, if not always	35	74.5	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.8

…emphasize mission…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	2	2.1	2.1
	Once in a while	8	8.5	10.6
	Sometimes	26	27.7	38.3
	Fairly Often	35	37.2	75.5
	Frequently, if not always	23	24.5	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Once in a While	1	2.1	2.1
	Sometimes	4	8.5	10.6
	Fairly Often	24	51.1	61.7
	Frequently, if not always	18	38.3	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Inspirational Motivation- Item Frequencies

Tables 4.9 through 4.12 reflect the frequencies and percentages by which the chiefs and officers responded to the four questions that make up the Inspirational Motivation factor. The themes of the four questions are as follows: (1) talk optimistically, (2) talk enthusiastically accomplished, (3) compelling vision, and (4) I express confidence that goals will be achieved. As shown in table 4.9, the chiefs and the officers report the highest percentages of answers to the question in the fairly often and frequently, if not always categories. However, (91%) of the chiefs' report talking optimistically fairly often or frequently, if not always. By comparison, (74%) of officers indicated the same frequency of the behavior. Table 4.10 indicates that that (55%) of the chiefs report talking enthusiastically frequently, if not always, while the officers' perceptions are divided within the sometimes, fairly often, and frequently, if not always ratings. Table 4.11 reveals that (17%) of the officers believe that their chiefs have a compelling vision only once in a while or not at all. By comparison, none of the chiefs reported having a compelling vision not at all or once in a while. The results for the topic of expressing confidence that goals will be achieved are shown in table 4.12. (100%) of the chiefs perceive themselves as expressing this either fairly often or frequently, if not always. In contrast, almost 1 out of 4 officers reported that this behavior is demonstrated by their chiefs sometimes or once in a while.

Frequency Tables: Inspirational Motivation

Table 4.9

…talk optimistically…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	3	3.2	3.2
	Once in a while	7	7.4	10.6
	Sometimes	14	14.9	25.5
	Fairly Often	29	30.9	56.4
	Frequently, if not always	41	43.6	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Sometimes	4	8.5	8.5
	Fairly Often	23	48.9	57.4
	Frequently, if not always	20	42.6	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.10

…talk enthusiastically accomplished…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	1	1.1	1.1
	Once in a while	8	8.5	9.6
	Sometimes	20	21.3	30.9
	Fairly Often	32	34.0	64.9
	Frequently, if not always	33	35.1	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Sometimes	4	8.5	8.5
	Fairly Often	17	36.2	44.7
	Frequently, if not always	26	55.3	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.11

…compelling vision…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	4	4.3	4.3
	Once in a while	12	12.8	17.0
	Sometimes	16	17.0	34.0
	Fairly Often	32	34.0	68.1
	Frequently, if not always	30	31.9	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Sometimes	5	10.6	10.6
	Fairly Often	30	63.8	74.5
	Frequently, if not always	12	25.5	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.12

I express confidence that goals will be achieved

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Once in a while	2	2.1	2.1
	Sometimes	21	22.3	24.5
	Fairly Often	36	38.3	62.8
	Frequently, if not always	35	37.2	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Fairly Often	25	53.2	53.2
	Frequently, if not always	22	46.8	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Intellectual Stimulation-Item Frequencies

The responses to the four questions that make up the Intellectual Stimulation factor are exhibited in tables 4.13 through 4.16. The topics covered by these four

questions include: (1) reexamine critical assumptions, (2) seek differing perspectives, (3) many different angles, and (4) suggest new ways. The responses to the question involving reexamining critical assumptions are presented in table 4.13. (83%) of the chiefs responses are found in the fairly often and the frequently, if not always categories, whereas (60%) of the officers perceive their chiefs as doing the same. Table 4.14 indicates that (56%) of the officers perceive their chiefs as seeking differing perspectives sometimes or less frequently, while 17 of the chief reported the same frequencies of the behavior. As reported in table 4.15, (35%) of officers observe their chiefs involving them in problem solving fairly often. In contrast, (59%) of chiefs report this type of involvement at the same frequency. Finally, (80%) of chiefs report that they fairly often or frequently, if not always suggest new ways as displayed in table 4.16. (61%) of officers see their chiefs doing this sometimes or fairly often.

Frequency Tables: Intellectual Stimulation

Table 4.13

…reexamine critical assumptions …

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	5	5.3	5.3
	Once in a while	6	6.4	11.7
	Sometimes	26	27.7	39.4
	Fairly Often	40	42.6	81.9
	Frequently, if not always	17	18.1	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Once in a While	2	4.3	4.3
	Sometimes	6	12.8	17.0
	Fairly Often	21	44.7	61.7
	Frequently, if not always	18	38.3	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.14

…seek differing perspectives…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	7	7.4	7.4
	Once in a while	15	16.0	23.4
	Sometimes	22	23.4	46.8
	Fairly Often	36	38.3	85.1
	Frequently, if not always	14	14.9	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Not at All	1	2.1	2.1
	Sometimes	7	14.9	17.0
	Fairly Often	22	46.8	63.8
	Frequently, if not always	17	36.2	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.15

…many different angles…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at All	7	7.4	7.4
	Once in a While	16	17.0	24.5
	Sometimes	22	23.4	47.9
	Fairly Often	33	35.1	83.0
	Frequently, if not always	16	17.0	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Not at All	1	2.1	2.1
	Once in a While	1	2.1	4.3
	Sometimes	6	12.8	17.0
	Fairly Often	28	59.6	76.6
	Frequently, if not always	11	23.4	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.16

…suggest new ways…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	3	3.2	3.2
	Once in a while	15	16.0	19.1
	Sometimes	30	31.9	51.1
	Fairly Often	28	29.8	80.9
	Frequently, if not always	18	19.1	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Once in a While	1	2.1	2.1
	Sometimes	8	17.0	19.1
	Fairly Often	27	57.4	76.6
	Frequently, if not always	11	23.4	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Individualized Consideration-Item Frequencies

Tables 4.17 through 4.20 display the responses given by the chiefs and officers to the four questions that make up the Individualized Consideration factor. The following are the four themes that make up the scale: (1) teaching and coaching, (2) treats others individually, (3) different needs, and (4) help others strengths. In table 4.17, (85%) of chiefs report spending time teaching and coaching either fairly often or frequently, if not always; conversely, (39%) of officers perceive the same frequency of teaching and coaching. Furthermore, one-third of all officers indicated that their chiefs teach and coach only once in a while or not at all. Treating others as individuals is reported in table 4.18 in which (87%) of chiefs report doing this fairly often or frequently, if not always. (74%) of officers perceive chiefs doing this fairly, often or frequently, if not always. Both groups report more comparably on the frequency of this behavior compared to others.

65

(85%) of chiefs report considering the different needs of their officers fairly often or

frequently, if not always as shown in table 4.19. In stark contrast (58%) of officers

perceive this behavior sometimes or less frequently with (19%) of officers reported in not

at all category. Table 4.20 displays the results for chiefs helping others. (89%) of chiefs

report doing this fairly often or frequently, if not always while (46%) of officers perceive

this only sometimes, once in a while, or not at all.

Frequency Tables: Individualized Consideration

Table 4.17

…teaching and coaching…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	15	16.0	16.0
	Once in a while	16	17.0	33.0
	Sometimes	26	27.7	60.6
	Fairly Often	21	22.3	83.0
	Frequently, if not always	16	17.0	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Once in a While	2	4.3	4.3
	Sometimes	5	10.6	14.9
	Fairly Often	29	61.7	76.6
	Frequently, if not always	11	23.4	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.18

…treat others individually…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	4	4.3	4.3
	Once in a while	10	10.6	14.9
	Sometimes	10	10.6	25.5
	Fairly Often	36	38.3	63.8
	Frequently, if not always	34	36.2	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Not at All	2	4.3	4.3
	Once in a While	1	2.1	6.4
	Sometimes	3	6.4	12.8
	Fairly Often	15	31.9	44.7
	Frequently, if not always	26	55.3	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.19

…different needs…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	18	19.1	19.1
	Once in a while	11	11.7	30.9
	Sometimes	26	27.7	58.5
	Fairly Often	30	31.9	90.4
	Frequently, if not always	9	9.6	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Not at All	1	2.1	2.1
	Once in a While	2	4.3	6.4
	Sometimes	4	8.5	14.9
	Fairly Often	21	44.7	59.6
	Frequently, if not always	19	40.4	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

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Table 4.20

…help others strengths…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	7	7.4	7.4
	Once in a while	16	17.0	24.5
	Sometimes	21	22.3	46.8
	Fairly Often	28	29.8	76.6
	Frequently, if not always	22	23.4	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Sometimes	5	10.6	10.6
	Fairly Often	25	53.2	63.8
	Frequently, if not always	17	36.2	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Contingent Reward-Item Frequencies

The contingent reward factor responses from the chiefs and officers are shown in tables 4.21 through 4.24. Contingent reward has four questions that make up its description, and the topics are as follows: (1) exchange for efforts, (2) specific terms performance, (3) performance goals achieved, and (4) satisfaction meets expectations. Table 4.21 reveals that (74%) of chiefs report using an exchange for effort fairly often or frequently, if not always, while (57%) of officers perceive them doing this as often. One-half of the officers perceive their chiefs using specific terms for performance fairly often or frequently, if not always as portrayed in table 4.22. By comparison, (83%) of chiefs report giving specific terms for performance fairly often or frequently, if not always. As reported in table 4.23, (78%) of chiefs indicate they make it clear what to expect when performance goals are met fairly often or frequently, if not always, On the contrary, (50%) of officers report this occurs only sometimes or less frequently. (100%) of chiefs

report expressing satisfaction when expectations are met fairly often or frequently while

(27%) of officers perceive this only sometimes or less frequently. In addition, chiefs were

almost twice as likely to indicate that they engage in this behavior frequently, if not

always (61%) compared to officers (33%).

Frequency Tables-Contingent Reward

Table 4.21

…exchange for efforts…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	6	6.4	6.4
	Once in a while	11	11.7	18.1
	Sometimes	23	24.5	42.6
	Fairly Often	33	35.1	77.7
	Frequently, if not always	21	22.3	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Not at All	4	8.5	8.5
	Once in a while	3	6.4	14.9
	Sometimes	5	10.6	25.5
	Fairly Often	25	53.2	78.7
	Frequently, if not always	10	21.3	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.22

…specific terms performance…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	7	7.4	7.4
	Once in a while	12	12.8	20.2
	Sometimes	28	29.8	50.0
	Fairly Often	26	27.7	77.7
	Frequently, if not always	21	22.3	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Sometimes	8	17.0	17.0
	Fairly Often	25	53.2	70.2
	Frequently, if not always	14	29.8	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.23

…performance goals achieved…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	8	8.5	8.5
	Once in a while	11	11.7	20.2
	Sometimes	28	29.8	50.0
	Fairly Often	34	36.2	86.1
	Frequently, if not always	13	13.8	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Sometimes	10	21.3	21.3
	Fairly Often	24	51.1	72.3
	Frequently, if not always	13	27.7	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.24

…satisfaction meets expectations…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	3	3.2	3.2
	Once in a while	5	5.3	8.5
	Sometimes	18	19.1	27.7
	Fairly Often	37	39.4	67.0
	Frequently, if not always	31	33.0	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Fairly Often	18	38.3	38.3
	Frequently, if not always	29	61.7	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Management by Exception Active-Item Frequencies

The responses by the chiefs and officers for the questions that make up the factor management by exception-active are found in tables 4.25 through 4.28. This factor has four questions with the following themes: (1) focus attention mistakes, (2) full attention mistakes, (3) tracks all mistakes, and (4) attention toward failure. (63%) of chiefs' report focusing attention on mistakes sometimes or fairly often, while an almost identical percentage of officers (62%) perceive their chiefs doing the same as reported in table 4.25. Table 4.26 illustrates that (56%) of officers state their chiefs put full attention on mistakes fairly often or more frequently. However, (40%) of chiefs report doing so at the same rate. Table 4.27 depicts the responses to the tracking of all mistakes. As displayed, (51%) of chiefs say they do this sometimes and fairly often, and a comparable percentage of officers (57%) also say they do this sometimes and fairly often. Finally, as noted in Table 4.28, (73%) of officers describe their chiefs as putting their attention toward failure

sometimes or less often, while (68%) of chiefs reporting it at the same frequencies. There

tends to be greater agreement in ratings of management-by-exception-active by chiefs

and officers compared to other variables on the survey.

Frequency Tables: Management by Exception-Active

Table 4.25

…focus attention mistakes…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	7	7.4	7.4
	Once in a while	15	16.0	23.4
	Sometimes	20	21.3	44.7
	Fairly Often	39	41.5	86.3
	Frequently, if not always	13	13.8	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Not at All	3	6.4	6.4
	Once in a while	4	8.5	14.9
	Sometimes	15	31.9	46.8
	Fairly Often	15	31.9	78.7
	Frequently, if not always	10	21.3	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.26

…full attention mistakes…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	7	7.4	7.4
	Once in a while	14	14.9	22.3
	Sometimes	20	21.3	43.6
	Fairly Often	33	35.1	78.7
	Frequently, if not always	20	21.3	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Not at All	3	6.4	6.4
	Once in a while	15	31.9	38.3
	Sometimes	10	21.3	59.6
	Fairly Often	13	27.7	87.2
	Frequently, if not always	6	12.8	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.27

…track all mistakes…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	6	6.4	6.4
	Once in a while	20	21.3	27.7
	Sometimes	33	35.1	62.8
	Fairly Often	21	22.3	85.1
	Frequently, if not always	14	14.9	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Not at all	9	19.1	19.1
	Once in a while	8	17.0	36.2
	Sometimes	12	25.5	61.7
	Fairly Often	12	25.5	87.2
	Frequently, if not always	6	12.8	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.28

…attention toward failure…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	14	14.9	14.9
	Once in a while	19	20.2	35.1
	Sometimes	36	38.3	73.4
	Fairly Often	20	21.3	94.7
	Frequently, if not always	5	5.3	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Not at all	6	12.8	12.8
	Once in a while	11	23.4	36.2
	Sometimes	15	31.9	68.1
	Fairly Often	9	19.1	87.2
	Frequently, if not always	6	12.8	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Management by Exception Passive- Item Frequencies

Tables 4.29 through 4.32 present the responses from the chiefs and officers for the factor management-by-exception passive. This factor has four questions from the survey that are used to operationalize this leadership style. The four questions are as follows: (1) fail interfere serious, (2) wait to go wrong, (3) ain't broke, don't, and (4) problems chronic action. As displayed in table 4.29 (63%) of chiefs report failing to interfere until serious once in a while or never whereas (52%) of officers perceive their chiefs as doing this sometimes or more often. It is noteworthy that 5 chiefs (10%) answered fairly often. Table 4.30 reveals that (66%) of chiefs state they wait to go wrong not at all, but only (35%) of officers convey that their chiefs do this not at all. The theme ain't broke, don't fix it is presented in table 4.31, which reveals that (31%) of officers and chiefs report enacting this behavior sometimes. Chiefs and officers reported comparably on all

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frequencies for this item. In table 4.32, (55%) of chiefs state that they wait for problems

to become chronic not at all, while nearly twice as many (58%) of officers (55%)

perceive them as never doing this.

Frequency Tables-Management by Exception-Passive

Table 4.29

…fail interfere serious…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	24	25.5	25.5
	Once in a while	21	22.3	47.9
	Sometimes	23	24.5	72.3
	Fairly Often	17	18.1	90.4
	Frequently, if not always	9	9.6	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Not at all	11	23.4	23.4
	Once in a while	19	40.4	63.8
	Sometimes	12	25.5	89.4
	Fairly Often	5	10.6	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.30

…wait to go wrong…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	33	35.1	35.1
	Once in a while	32	34.0	69.1
	Sometimes	15	16.0	85.1
	Fairly Often	11	11.7	96.8
	Frequently, if not always	3	3.2	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Not at all	31	66.0	66.0
	Once in a while	9	19.1	85.1
	Sometimes	7	14.9	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.31

…ain't broke, don't…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	16	17.0	17.0
	Once in a while	22	23.4	40.4
	Sometimes	30	31.9	72.3
	Fairly Often	19	20.2	92.6
	Frequently, if not always	7	7.4	100.0
	Total	94	94	
Chief	Not at all	10	21.3	21.3
	Once in a while	7	14.9	36.2
	Sometimes	15	31.9	68.1
	Fairly Often	11	23.4	91.5
	Frequently, if not always	4	8.5	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.32

…problems chronic action…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	27	28.7	28.7
	Once in a while	29	30.9	59.6
	Sometimes	26	27.7	87.2
	Fairly Often	11	11.7	98.9
	Frequently, if not always	1	1.1	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Not at all	26	55.3	55.3
	Once in a while	14	29.8	85.1
	Sometimes	5	10.6	95.7
	Fairly Often	2	4.3	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Laissez-faire Leadership-Item Frequencies

Tables 4.33 through 4.36 present the survey responses for the chiefs and officers

for the factor laissez-faire leadership. This factor is measured in the survey by a set of

four questions that include the following descriptors: (1) avoids issues, (2) absent when

needed, (3) avoids decisions, and (4) delays responding questions. Seventy-six percent of

chiefs and (56%) of officers report avoiding issues not at all as shown in table 4.33. Table

4.34 presents the responses to the topic absent when needed. Specifically, (61%) of the

chiefs state they do this not at all, but (48%) of officers report the chiefs do this not at all.

Interestingly, 1 chief reported being absent when needed fairly often. As conveyed in

table 4.35, (56%) of officers describe their chiefs as avoiding decisions not at all.

Additionally, (13%) of officers indicated that their chiefs avoid decisions fairly often or

frequently, if not always while (74%) of the chiefs answered not at all. Table 4.36 shows

that the officers (46%) and chiefs (53%) answered not at all as their highest percentage to

delay responding questions.

Frequency Tables-Laissez-faire Leadership

Table 4.33

…avoid issues…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	53	56.4	56.4
	Once in a while	20	21.3	77.7
	Sometimes	14	14.9	92.6
	Fairly Often	5	5.3	97.9
	Frequently, if not always	2	2.1	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Not at all	36	76.6	76.6
	Once in a while	7	14.9	91.5
	Sometimes	3	6.4	97.9
	Fairly Often	1	2.1	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.34

…absent when needed…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	46	48.9	48.9
	Once in a while	28	29.8	78.7
	Sometimes	12	12.8	91.5
	Fairly Often	6	6.4	97.9
	Frequently, if not always	2	2.1	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Not at all	29	61.7	61.7
	Once in a while	14	29.8	91.5
	Sometimes	3	6.4	97.9
	Fairly Often	1	2.1	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.35

…avoid decisions…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	53	56.4	56.4
	Once in a while	18	19.1	75.5
	Sometimes	10	10.6	86.2
	Fairly Often	10	10.6	96.8
	Frequently, if not always	3	3.2	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Not at all	35	74.5	74.5
	Once in a while	9	19.1	93.6
	Sometimes	2	4.3	97.9
	Fairly Often	1	2.1	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.36

…delay responding questions…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	44	46.8	46.8
	Once in a while	22	23.4	70.2
	Sometimes	13	13.8	84.0
	Fairly Often	11	11.7	95.7
	Frequently, if not always	4	4.3	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Not at all	25	53.2	53.2
	Once in a while	17	36.2	89.4
	Sometimes	4	8.5	97.9
	Fairly Often	1	2.1	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Extra Effort-Item Frequencies

Tables 4.37 through 4.39 display the responses of the chiefs and officers for the three questions that make up the factor extra effort. The three questions that describe this factor are: (1) more than expected, (2) heighten desire succeed, and (3) increase try harder. In table 4.37, (68%) of chiefs responded more than expected fairly often, or frequently, if not always, but (49%) of officers answered either sometimes or less frequently. (83%) of chiefs responded fairly often and frequently, if not always when answering heightens desire to succeed, and (68%) of officers perceived the same result as shown in table 4.38. Table 4.39 reveals (93%) of chiefs answered to increase try harder with fairly often and frequently, if not always; however, (64%) of officers answered using the same responses. Finally, (16%) of officers indicated that their chiefs motivate them to try harder only once in a while or not at all.

Frequency Tables-Extra Effort

Table 4.37

…more than expected…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	6	6.4	6.4
	Once in a while	15	16.0	22.3
	Sometimes	25	26.6	48.9
	Fairly Often	28	29.8	78.7
	Frequently, if not always	20	21.3	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Once in a while	2	4.3	4.3
	Sometimes	13	27.7	31.9
	Fairly Often	24	51.1	83.0
	Frequently, if not Always	8	17.0	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.38

…heighten desire succeed…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	3	3.2	3.2
	Once in a while	10	10.6	13.8
	Sometimes	17	18.1	31.9
	Fairly Often	27	28.7	60.6
	Frequently, if not Always	37	39.4	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Sometimes	8	17.0	17.0
	Fairly Often	22	46.8	63.8
	Frequently, if not Always	17	36.2	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.39

…increase try harder…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	8	8.5	8.5
	Once in a while	7	7.4	16.0
	Sometimes	18	19.1	35.1
	Fairly Often	37	39.4	74.5
	Frequently, if not Always	24	25.5	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Once in a while	1	2.1	2.1
	Sometimes	2	4.3	6.4
	Fairly Often	28	59.6	66.0
	Frequently, if not Always	16	34.0	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Effectiveness-Item Frequencies

The chiefs and officers responses to the survey questions for the factors effectiveness are presented in tables 4.40 through 4.43. The factor effectiveness was represented in the survey by four questions that addressed the following four associated topics: (1) effective meeting needs, (2) representing others, (3) effective meeting requirements, and (4) lead group effective. All of the topics in these four tables were answered in a similar manner by both officers and the chiefs. The chiefs' and the officers' highest percentage of answers on the first three questions is in the fairly often category. The chief's percentages in the fairly often category were considerably higher on these three questions than the officers. In response to the fourth question, lead group effective, (100%) of chiefs reported doing this fairly often or frequently, if not always. In contrast, (72%) of the officers reported the same.

Frequency Tables-Effectiveness

Table 4.40

…effective meeting needs…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	2	2.1	2.1
	Once in a while	9	9.6	11.7
	Sometimes	16	17.0	28.7
	Fairly Often	36	38.3	67.0
	Frequently, if not Always	31	33.0	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Sometimes	4	8.5	8.5
	Fairly Often	28	59.6	68.1
	Frequently, if not Always	15	31.9	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.41

…representing others…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	8	8.5	8.5
	Once in a while	6	6.4	14.9
	Sometimes	26	27.7	42.6
	Fairly Often	32	34.0	76.6
	Frequently, if not Always	22	23.4	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Sometimes	3	6.4	6.4
	Fairly Often	28	59.6	66.0
	Frequently, if not Always	16	34.0	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.42

…effective meeting requirements…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	1	1.1	1.1
	Once in a while	2	2.1	3.2
	Sometimes	22	23.4	26.6
	Fairly Often	35	37.2	63.8
	Frequently, if not Always	34	36.2	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Fairly Often	28	59.6	59.6
	Frequently, if not Always	19	40.4	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.43

…lead group effective…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	5	5.3	5.3
	Once in a while	7	7.4	12.8
	Sometimes	14	14.9	27.7
	Fairly Often	31	33.0	60.6
	Frequently, if not Always	37	39.4	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Fairly Often	15	31.9	31.9
	Frequently, if not Always	32	68.1	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Satisfaction-Item Frequencies

Tables 4.44 and 4.45 reflect the responses to questions from the chiefs and officers about the factor satisfaction. Two questions in the survey describe the topical information for this factor. The following two themes made up the variable satisfaction: (1) leadership satisfying, and (2) work with others. Table 4.44 indicates that (89%) of chiefs report leadership satisfying fairly often or frequently, if not always. However, (39%) of officers indicate that their chief does so only sometimes or less frequently. (100%) of chiefs state that they work with others fairly often and frequently, if not always, whereas (94%) of officers answered among three categories: sometimes, fairly often, and frequently, if not always.

Frequency Tables-Satisfaction

Table 4.44

…leadership satisfying…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	8	8.5	8.5
	Once in a while	11	11.7	20.2
	Sometimes	18	19.1	39.4
	Fairly Often	32	34.0	73.4
	Frequently, if not Always	25	26.6	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Sometimes	5	10.6	10.6
	Fairly Often	26	55.3	66.0
	Frequently, if not Always	16	34.0	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Table 4.45

…work with others…

Law Enforcement Role		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Officer	Not at all	3	3.2	3.2
	Once in a while	2	2.1	5.3
	Sometimes	23	24.5	29.8
	Fairly Often	28	29.8	59.6
	Frequently, if not Always	38	40.4	100.0
	Total	94	100.0	
Chief	Fairly Often	25	53.2	53.2
	Frequently, if not Always	22	46.8	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	

Leadership Factors and Leadership Outcome- Item Means

Table 4.46 displays the means and standard deviations for each factor of the Full Range Leadership model. Additionally it reports the means and standard deviations for these variables, 0=not at all, 1=once in a while, 2=sometimes, 3=fairly often, 4=frequently, if not always.

Idealized Influence-Attributed- The chief's mean (M=3.09, SD=0.60) is higher than the officer's (M=2.79, SD=0.94). On average, chiefs report using idealized influence-attributed fairly often, whereas the officers perceive them using it only sometimes.

Idealized Influence-**Behavior**- The chief's mean (M=3.32, SD=0.45) is higher than the officer's (M=2.72, SD=0.84). The officers observe their chiefs using this factor sometimes, while the chief's report displaying it fairly often.

Inspirational Motivation- The chiefs report a higher mean (M=3.35, SD=0.06) for inspirational motivation as compared to the officers (M=2.96, SD=0.08). Chiefs report that they use this factor of leadership fairly often, but the officers note that they only use it sometimes.

Intellectual Stimulation- Officers report a smaller mean (M=2.45, SD=0.08) than the chief's (M=3.08, SD=0.08). Officers indicate that their chiefs use this factor sometimes even though the chiefs report using it fairly often.

Individualized Consideration- The mean of the chiefs (M=3.19, SD=0.53) is greater than the officers (M=2.36, SD=0.91). The chiefs describe using this factor fairly often while the officers report them using it only sometimes on average.

Contingent Reward- The officers (M=2.57, SD=0.86) reported a smaller mean with regard to their chiefs (M=3.13, SD=0.47) using this factor. Chiefs conveyed that they used this factor fairly often where the officers describe it only sometimes.

Management by Exception-Active- The means for both the officers (M=2.21, SD=0.77) and the chiefs (M=2.13, SD=0.93) were similar. Both groups reported this factor being used sometimes on average by chiefs.

Management by Exception-**Passive-** Both groups reported infrequent use of this factor. Specifically, the officers (M=1.45, SD=0.84) and the chiefs (M=1.04, SD=0.65) describe the use of this style by the chiefs as occurring once in a while, with the officers rating it a little more frequent.

Laissez-**faire Leadership**- Both groups report similarly low means for this factor. The officers (M=.867, SD=0.85) and the chiefs (M=.441, SD=0.47) report that the chiefs use this factor of leadership almost not at all.

Extra Effort- The mean of the chiefs (M=3.08, SD=0.08) for this outcome is higher than the officers (M=2.66, SD=0.11). The chiefs visualize themselves causing extra effort fairly often while the officers report a mean between sometimes and fairly often.

Effectiveness- The officers (M=2.86, SD=0.89) reported a smaller means when it comes to effectiveness of their chief (M=3.39, SD=0.38). On average chiefs report they are effective more than fairly often, and the officers rate the frequency of their chief's effectiveness between sometimes and fairly often.

Satisfaction- Officer's (M=2.80, SD=1.0) means are less than the chief's (M=3.35, SD=0.48) for this outcome to leadership. The chiefs think their officers are satisfied with

them fairly often or more but the officers on average describe their satisfaction as less than fairly often.

Table 4.46

Means and Standard Deviation for Leadership Scales & Outcomes

Variable	Law Enforcement Role	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Idealized Influence Attributed	Officer	94	2.79	0.94
	Chief	47	3.09	0.60
Idealized Influence Behavior	Officer	94	2.72	0.84
	Chief	47	3.32	0.45
Inspirational Motivation	Officer	94	2.96	0.08
	Chief	47	3.35	0.06
Intellectual Stimulation	Officer	94	2.45	0.08
	Chief	47	3.08	0.08
Individualized Consideration	Officer	94	2.36	0.91
	Chief	47	3.19	0.53
Contingent Reward	Officer	94	2.57	0.86
	Chief	47	3.13	0.47
Management by Exception-Active	Officer	94	2.21	0.77
	Chief	47	2.13	0.93
Management by Exception-Passive	Officer	94	1.45	0.84
	Chief	47	1.04	0.65
Laissez-faire Leadership	Officer	94	.86	0.85
	Chief	47	.44	0.47
Extra Effort	Officer	94	2.66	0.11
	Chief	47	3.08	0.08
Effectiveness	Officer	94	2.86	0.89
	Chief	47	3.39	0.38
Satisfaction	Officer	94	2.80	1.05
	Chief	47	3.35	0.48

Differences in the self-reported leadership factors between rural police chiefs and their subordinate officers.

This section focuses on the results that address the first research question, Are there differences between the self-reported leadership factors of rural police chiefs and the subordinate officer's rating of them? The data for this question were attained by use of the MLQ (5x-short) survey that was completed by the chiefs (N=47) and their subordinate officers (N=94). Independent samples t-tests were run for each of the 9 leadership factors of the Full Range leadership Model to determine if the rural chief's (2=chiefs) self-reported ratings differed from the officer's ratings of the chiefs (1=Officers).

Idealized Influence-Attributed

In order to determine if the rural chief's self-perceived ratings differed from the officer's ratings for the factor Idealized Influence-Attributed, an independent samples t-test was run. The results reported in Table 4.47 show a significant difference in the perception of the chiefs use of this factor from the officers, t (131.11) = -2.28, p < .024. Rural chiefs (M=3.09, SD=0.60) perceived themselves using Idealized Influence-Attributed more often than the officers (M=2.79, SD=0.94) did.

Table 4.47

Independent Samples T-test--Idealized Influence-Attributed

Independent Samples Test							
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-Test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances not assumed	12.32	.001	-2.28	131.11	.024	-.30	.13

Idealized Influence-Behavior

To examine whether there was a difference between the rural chief's self-assessment of their use of Idealized Influence-Behavior and the officer's rating of the same, an independent samples t-test was run. The results shown in Table 4.48 reveal a significant difference in the two group's assessment of the use of this factor by the chiefs, t (138.35) = -5.54, p < .000. The rural chiefs (M=3.32, SD=0.45) distinctly feel they utilize Idealized Influence-Behavior more often than the officers (M=2.72, SD=0.84) perceive.

Table 4.48

Independent Samples T-test--Idealized Influence-Behavior

Independent Samples Test							
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-Test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances not assumed	20.47	.000	-5.54	138.35	.000	-.60	.10

Inspirational Motivation

An independent samples t-test was run to compare the means of the rural chief's reports of their use of Inspirational Motivation as compared to the officer's ratings. The results revealed in Table 4.49 show a significant difference in their perceptions of the use of this factor, t (138.87) = -3.58, p < .000. Specifically, the rural chiefs (M=3.35, SD=0.44) self-report using Inspirational Motivation more often than their officers (M=2.96, SD=0.86) attribute to them.

Table 4.49

Independent Samples T-test—Inspirational Motivation

Independent Samples Test							
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-Test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances not assumed	19.50	.000	-3.58	138.87	.000	-.39	.10

Intellectual Stimulation

In order to test for differences between the means of the rural chief's and officer's responses to the use of Intellectual Stimulation by the chiefs, an independent samples t-test was run and the results are shown in Table 4.50. The test revealed a significant difference in the perceptions of the use between the two groups, t (130.69) = -5.26, p < .000. The rural chiefs (M=3.08, SD=0.54) self-report using Intellectual Stimulation more often than the officers (M=2.45, SD=0.86) perceive them using this factor.

Table 4.50

Independent Samples T-test—Intellectual Stimulation

Independent Samples Test							
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-Test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances not assumed	12.28	.001	-5.26	130.69	.000	-.63	.11

Individualized Consideration

Individualized Consideration was examined using an independent samples t-test to show if a difference existed between the means of the two group's perception of its use by the chiefs with the results shown in Table 4.51.The test exposed a significant difference in the two group's perceptions of the rural chief's use of this factor, t (135.78) = -6.84, p < .000. The rural chiefs (M=3.19, SD=0.53) perceived themselves using Individualized Consideration more often than the officers (M=2.36, SD=0.91) report them using this factor.

Table 4.51

Independent Samples T-test—Individualized Consideration

Independent Samples Test							
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-Test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances not assumed	18.58	.000	-6.84	135.78	.000	-.83	.12

Contingent Reward

To establish whether a difference exists between the means of the rural chief's self-reported use of Contingent Reward and the officer's perception of its use, an independent samples t-test was conducted. The results of the test revealed in Table 4.52 show a significant difference in the perceptions of the groups, t (137.68) = -4.94, p < .000. The rural chiefs (M=3.13, SD=0.47) clearly report using Contingent Reward more than their officers (M=2.57, SD=0.86) express them using this factor.

Table 4.52

Independent Samples T-test—Contingent Reward

Independent Samples Test							
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-Test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances not assumed	20.37	.000	-4.94	137.68	.000	-.56	.11

Management by Exception-Active

An independent samples t-test was used to compare the means of the two group's perceptions of the chief's use of Management by Exception-Active. Table 4.53 revealed no significant difference in the chief's self-reported use of Management by Exception-Active and the officer's perceptions, t (139) = .55, p = .580. The means of the rural chiefs (M=2.13, SD=0.93) and officers (M=2.21, SD=0.77) were closely related.

Table 4.53

Independent Samples T-test—Management by Exception-Active

Independent Samples Test							
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-Test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	2.76	.098	.55	139	.580	.08	.14

Management by Exception-Passive

An independent samples t-test was used to examine the mean differences between the chief's self-reported use of Management by Exception-Passive and their officer's ratings of the same. The test showed s significant difference as displayed in Table 4.54, t (139) = 2.87, p < .005. Specifically, the rural chiefs (M=1.04, SD=0.65) self-report using this factor less often than their officers (M=1.45, SD=0.84) report them using it. This indicates that the chiefs report that they avoid making decisions less often than the officers perceive them.

Table 4.54

Independent Samples T-test—Management by Exception-Passive

Independent Samples Test							
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-Test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	2.84	.094	2.87	139	.005	.40	.14

Laissez-faire Leadership

Laissez-faire leadership was examined using an independent samples t-test to determine if a difference existed between the means of the self-reported perceptions of the rural police chief's use of Laissez-faire Leadership and the ratings of the officers is the same. The test revealed a significant difference as shown in Table 4.55, demonstrating that the rural chief's (M=.44, SD=0.47) perceive of their use of this type of leadership is less than the officers attribute to them (M=.867, SD=0.85) t (137.52) = 3.78, p < .000.

Table 4.55

Independent Samples T-test—Laissez-faire Leadership

Independent Samples Test							
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-Test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances not assumed	22.39	.000	3.78	137.52	.000	.42	.11

In summary, the data analyses reflect that there is a significant difference between the self-reported leadership factors of the rural chiefs and their subordinate officers. The rural chief's report using Idealized Influence-Attributed, Idealized Influence-Behavior, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, Individualized Consideration, and Contingent Reward more often than their officers perceive them using these styles. Additionally, the rural chief's report using Management by Exception-Passive and Laissez-faire Leadership less often than their officers report them using these styles. There was not a difference between the rural chief's reports and their officer's reports of the chief's use of Management-by-Exception-Active.

Differences in the self-reported leadership outcomes between rural chiefs and their subordinate officers

This section concentrates on the results that answer the second research question for this study: Are there differences between the self-reported leadership outcomes of the rural chiefs and subordinate officers? The data for this question were collected by the use of the MLQ (5x-short) survey that was completed by the rural chiefs (N=47) and their subordinate officers (N=94). Independent samples t-tests were completed for each of the

3 expected leadership outcomes of the Full Range Leadership Model to determine if the

rural chief's (2=chiefs) self-reported outcome ratings differed from the officer's

(1=officers) ratings of the chief's leadership toward these outcomes.

Extra Effort

In order to determine if the rural chief's self-reports of the extent to which their

leadership generated extra effort outcome ratings differed from their officer's ratings, an

independent samples t-test was run. The results revealed a significant difference between

the perceptions of the chiefs and their officers as shown in Table 4.56, t (136.36) = -2.95,

p < .004. Rural chiefs (M=3.08, SD=0.61) perceive their leadership style creates an

atmosphere of officers wanting to give extra effort more than their officers (M=2.66,

SD=1.0) claimed.

Table 4.56

Independent Samples T-test—Extra Effort

Independent Samples Test							
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-Test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances not assumed	14.38	.000	-2.95	136.36	.004	-.41	.14

Effectiveness

To examine whether the rural chief's self-reported perceptions of their

effectiveness differed from the perceptions of their officers ratings of effectiveness, the

means of the two groups were assessed as shown in Table 4.57. An independent sample t-

test showed a significant difference in the two group's perceptions of the rural chief's

effectiveness as leaders, t (136.45) = -4.93, p < .000. Essentially, the chiefs (M=3.39,

SD=0.38) perceive their leadership style to be more effective than the officers (M=2.86,

SD=0.89) observe it to be.

Table 4.57

Independent Samples T-test—Effectiveness

Independent Samples Test							
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-Test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances not assumed	24.94	.000	-4.93	136.45	.000	-.53	.10

Satisfaction

The leadership outcome of Satisfaction was tested using an independent samples

t-test to assess if the means of the perceptions of the rural chiefs and their officers differ.

The results revealed a significant difference between the chief's self-reported perceptions

and their officers as shown in Table 4.58, t (138.42) = -4.21, p < .000. The rural chiefs

(M=3.35, SD=0.48) perceive their officers as being more satisfied with them as leaders

than the officers (M=2.80, SD=1.05) perceive.

Table 4.58

Independent Samples T-test—Satisfaction

Independent Samples Test							
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-Test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances not assumed	24.62	.000	-4.21	138.42	.000	-.54	.12

In summary, the data reveals that there is a significant difference in the self-reported leadership outcomes between rural chiefs and their subordinate officers. The rural chiefs perceive their ability to influence their followers to give extra effort fairly often but their officer's report that they achieve this less often. Additionally, the rural chiefs rate their effectiveness and feel their followers are satisfied with them as leaders more often than the officers' report.

Relationships between self-reported leadership factors of rural police chiefs and leadership outcomes

This section focuses on the results regarding the third research question of this dissertation: What are the relationships between the rural chief's self-reported leadership factors and leadership outcomes? The data for this question were collected by the use of the MLQ (5x-short) survey that was completed by the rural chiefs (n=47). Bivariate correlations were run for each of the 9 leadership factors of the Full Range Leadership Model to determine if a relationship exists between the rural chief's self-reported leadership factors and the 3 leadership outcomes.

Idealized Influence-Attributed

A significant correlation was found between of Idealized Influence-Attributed and extra effort, r (45) =.44, p< .002 and Idealized Influence-Attributed and effectiveness, r (45) =.47, p < .001. This is consistent with prior research that the use of Idealized Influence-Attributed is closely related to the leadership outcomes of extra effort and effectiveness (Murphy & Drudge, 2003; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). No correlation was found between the variable of Idealized Influence-Attributed and satisfaction, r (45) =.27, p = .065. This is not a consistent finding with prior research, as Idealized Influence-Attributed has been shown to be closely related to satisfaction (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

Idealized Influence-Behavior

To evaluate the relationships between the leadership factor of Idealized Influence-Behavior and the leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction, bivariate correlations were run on each pair. Significant correlations were found between Idealized Influence-Behavior and extra effort, r (45) = .57, p < .000, Idealized Influence-Behavior and effectiveness, r (45) = .57, p < .000, and Idealized Influence-Behavior and satisfaction, r (45) = .46, p < .001. Research has shown that the use of the leadership factor of Idealized Influence-Behavior is closely related to the leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Avolio & Bass, 1991; Hollander, 1995; Murphy & Drudge, 2003).

Inspirational Motivation

To measure the relationships between the leadership factor of Inspirational Motivation and the leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction,

bivariate correlations were conducted on each pair. Significant correlations were found

between Inspirational Motivation and all three leadership outcomes of extra effort r (45)

= .52, p < .000, effectiveness r (45) = .54, p < .000, and satisfaction r (45) = .41, p < .004.

Prior research confirms that there are close relationships between Inspirational

Motivation and extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction (Avolio & Bass, 1991, 1994,

2004; Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003)).

Intellectual Stimulation

Bivariate correlations were run to determine if relationships exist between the

leadership factor of Intellectual Stimulation and the leadership outcomes of extra effort,

effectiveness, and satisfaction. Significant correlations were found between Intellectual

Stimulation and extra effort, r (45) = .39, p < .006, effectiveness, r (45) = .41, p < .004,

and satisfaction, r (45) = .37, p < .010. Past research has consistently pointed to close

relationships between Intellectual Stimulation and extra effort, effectiveness, and

satisfaction (Avolio & Bass, 1991, 1994, 2004; Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam,

2003)) .

Individualized Consideration

To assess the relationships between Individualized Consideration and the

leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction, bivariate correlations

were performed on each pair of variables. Significant relationships were found between

Individualized Consideration with extra effort, r (45) = .42, p < .003, effectiveness, r (45)

= .43, p < .002, and satisfaction, r (45) = .35, p < .014. Prior research reports a close

relationship between Individualized Consideration and extra effort, effectiveness, and

satisfaction (Avolio & Bass, 1991, 1994, 2004; Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003).

Contingent Reward

To explore the relationships between Contingent Reward and the leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction, bivariate correlations were conducted on each pair. Significant correlations were found between each pair. Contingent reward is closely related to extra effort, $r(45) = .45$, $p < .001$, effectiveness, $r(45) = .38$, $p < .008$, and satisfaction $r(45) = .39$, $p < .007$.

Management by Exception-Active, Management by Exception-Passive, & Laissez-faire Leadership

To assess the relationships of Management by Exception-Active, Management by Exception-Passive, and Laissez-fair Leadership with the 3 leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction, bivariate correlations were performed on each pair. No significant relationships were found between any of these leadership factors and the leadership outcomes. Research has revealed a negative relationship between Management by Exception-Active, Management by Exception-Passive, Laissez-faire Leadership and the leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction (Avolio & Bass, 1991, 1994, 2004). In other words, the more leaders use these factors the less likely followers are to give extra effort, view a leader as effective and be satisfied with the leader.

In summary, the data analyses reflect that there are significant relationship between the self-reported leadership factors of the rural chiefs and leadership outcomes. Idealized Influence-Behavior, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation,

Individualized Consideration, and Contingent Reward are all closely related to the leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction as is found in prior research studies. The variables of Idealized Influence-Attributed and satisfaction showed no relationship in this study, which is not consistent with prior research findings (Avolio & Bass, 1991, 1994, 2004; Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003). Management by Exception-Active, Management by Exception-Passive, and Laissez-faire Leadership showed no relationship with the leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction. Prior research has shown these as negative relationships (Avolio & Bass, 1991, 1994, 2004). Correlations between the leadership factors and leadership outcomes are shown in Table 4.59.

Table 4.59

Correlations between Leadership Factors and Outcomes (Chiefs)

Leadership Factors	Extra Effort	Effectiveness	Satisfaction
Idealized Influence Attributed	.44*	.47*	.27
Idealized Influence Behavior	.57*	.57*	.46*
Inspirational Motivation	.52*	.54*	.41*
Intellectual Stimulation	.39*	.41*	.37*
Individualized Consideration	.42*	.43*	.35*
Contingent Reward	.45*	.38*	.39*
Management by Exception Active	.15	.12	.05
Management by Exception Passive	-.01	-.06	-.10
Laissez-faire Leadership	.01	-.22	-.16

Note *=p<.05   N=47

Relationships between the subordinate officer's ratings of the rural police chief's leadership factors and chief's leadership outcomes

This section describes the results for the fourth research question: What are the relationships between the subordinate officer's rating of the rural police chief's leadership factors and leadership outcomes? The data for this question were collected by the use of the MLQ (5x-short) survey that was completed by the subordinate officers

(n=94). Bivariate correlations were run for each of the 9 leadership factors of the Full

Range Leadership Model to determine if relationships exist between the subordinate

officer's ratings of the rural police chief's leadership factors and leadership outcomes.

Idealized Influence-Attributed

To assess the relationship between the leadership factor of Idealized Influence-

Attributed and the leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction as

rated by the subordinate officers, bivariate correlations were completed for each of the

pairs. Significant correlations were found between all of the variables. Idealized

Influence-Attributed is very closely related to extra effort, $r(92) = .80$, $p < .000$,

effectiveness, $r(92) = .85$, $p < .000$, and satisfaction, $r(92) = .88$, $p < .000$. These

findings are consistent with prior studies that suggest Idealized Influence-Attributed is

highly related to the leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction

(Avolio & Bass, 1991, 1994, 2004).

Idealized Influence-Behavior

An evaluation of the relationships between the leadership factor of Idealized

Influence-Behavior and the leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and

satisfaction was conducted using bivariate correlations. Significant relationships were

found between all variables. Idealized Influence-Behavior is highly related to extra effort

$(92) = .72$, $p < .000$, effectiveness, $r(92) = .78$, $p < .000$, and satisfaction, $r(92) = .77$, p

$< .000$ as has been shown in prior research studies (Avolio & Bass, 1991, 1994, 2004).

Inspirational Motivation

Bivariate correlations were performed to evaluate if relationships exist between

the leadership factor Inspirational Motivation and the leadership outcomes of extra effort,

effectiveness, and satisfaction. Significant correlations were found between Inspirational Motivation and extra effort, r (92) = .65, p < .000, effectiveness, r (92) = .75, p < .000, and satisfaction, r (92) = .77, p < .000. These findings are consistent with past research that shows close relationships of this leadership factor with the 3 leadership outcomes (Avolio & Bass, 1991, 1994, 2004).

Intellectual Stimulation

To determine whether relationships exist between Intellectual Stimulation and the leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction bivariate correlations were calculated for each pair. Significant relationships were found for each pair. Intellectual Stimulation is closely related to extra effort, r (92) = .71, p < .000, effectiveness, r (92) = .70, p < .000, and satisfaction, r (92) = .74, p < .000, which has been found in prior research studies (Avolio & Bass, 1991,1994, 2004; Bass & Avolio, 1991).

Individualized Consideration

To evaluate whether relationships exist between the leadership factor of Individualized Consideration and the leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction bivariate correlations were run for each pair. Significant relationships were found for Individualized Consideration with extra effort, r (92) = .76, p < .000, effectiveness, r (92) = .75, p < .000, and satisfaction, r (92) = .76, p < .000. This conforms to earlier findings showing a relationship between the use of Individualized Consideration and the leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction (Avolio & Bass, 1991, 1994, 2004; Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003).

Contingent Reward

To examine if relationships exist between the leadership factor of Contingent Reward and the leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction bivariate correlations were conducted. Significant correlations were found between the variable Contingent Reward and extra effort, $r(92) = .72$, $p < .000$, effectiveness, $r(92) = .77$, $p < .000$, and satisfaction, $r(92) = .72$, $p < .000$. These findings are consistent with prior research studies that closely link Contingent Reward to extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction (Avolio & Bass, 1991, 1994, 2004; Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003).

Management by Exception-Active

Bivariate correlations were run to test for relationships between the leadership factor of Management by Exception-Active and the leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction. No significant correlations were found between the factor of Management by Exception-Active and extra effort, $r(92) = .07$, $p = .502$, effectiveness, $r(92) = .04$, $p = .657$, and satisfaction, $r(92) = -.05$, $p = .625$. Prior research has shown negative relationships. In other words, leaders who use Management by Exception-Active more frequently decrease leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction in previous research (Avolio & Bass, 1991, 1994, 2004).

Management by Exception-Passive

To assess the relationships between Management by Exception-Passive and the leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction three separate bivariate correlations were conducted. Significant negative correlations were found between these variables. Management by Exception and the leadership outcomes of extra effort, $r(92) =$

-.42, p < .000, effectiveness, r (92) = -.50, p < .000, and satisfaction, r (92) = -55, p <

.000 are inversely related. Leaders who use this factor more often can expect leadership

outcomes to decrease. This phenomenon has been found extensively in past research

studies (Avolio & Bass, 1991, 1994, 2004).

Laissez-faire Leadership

To assess if relationships exist between the leadership factor of Laissez-faire

leadership and the leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction,

bivariate correlations were run for each set of variables. Significant negative correlations

were found between these variables. Laissez-faire leadership and the leadership outcomes

of extra effort, r (92) = -.58, p < .000, effectiveness, r (92) = -.66, p < .000, and

satisfaction, r (92) = -.68, p < .000 are highly and inversely related. Leader who uses this

style more often generate increasingly negative leadership outcomes.. This is consistent

with past research findings (Avolio & Bass, 1991, 1994, 2004).

In summary, the data analyses reveal that there are significant relationships

between the subordinate officers' ratings of the rural police chief's leadership factors

and leadership outcomes. Idealized Influence-Attributed, Idealized Influence-Behavior,

Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, Individualized Consideration, and

Contingent Reward are closely related to the leadership outcomes of extra effort,

effectiveness, and satisfaction (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1991; Avolio & Bass, 1991,

1994, 2004; Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003). A leader who uses these

factors more often can expect the three leadership outcome's to increase. These findings

are consistent with prior research studies (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1991; Avolio &

Bass, 1991, 1994, 2004; Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003). Management

by Exception –Active was not related to the 3 leadership outcomes. Prior research studies have shown that leaders who use Management by Exception-Active create less favorable leadership outcomes. Management by Exception-Passive and Laissez-faire Leadership were negatively correlated with the leadership outcomes. This is consistent with prior research studies that found that as leaders use more Management by Exception-Passive and Laissez-faire Leadership styles extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction decrease (Avolio & Bass, 1991, 1994, 2004). Correlations of the leadership factors with leadership outcomes are shown in Table 4.60.

Chapter Five includes a review of the major findings that were reported within this study. Additionally, it provides a discussion of the implications of the findings related to police leadership policy, practice and future research.

Table 4.60

Correlations between Leadership Factors and Outcomes (Officers)

Leadership Factors	Extra Effort	Effectiveness	Satisfaction
Idealized Influence Attributed	.80*	.85*	.88*
Idealized Influence Behavior	.72*	.78*	.77*
Inspirational Motivation	.65*	.75*	.77*
Intellectual Stimulation	.71*	.70*	.74*
Individualized Consideration	.76*	.75*	.76*
Contingent Reward	.72*	.77*	.72*
Management by Exception Active	.07	.04	-.05
Management by Exception Passive	-.42*	-.50*	-.55*
Laissez-faire Leadership	-.58*	-.66*	-.68*

Note *=p<.05 N=94

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

A theoretical framework for the Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM) was presented in chapter 1 suggesting that the 3 leadership outcomes of the FRLM are influenced by the use of a full range to include non-leadership behaviors. It was also stated that transformational and transactional are related to the accomplishments of a group. The use of transformational leadership generates higher follower effectiveness and satisfaction than transactional leadership; however, the most effective leaders use a Full Range of Leadership Styles (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1985, 1998; Bass & Avolio, 1993). The research questions in this study were developed from the theoretical framework and focused on the self-perceptions of rural police chiefs and the perceptions of their subordinate officers for the 9 factors of the FRLM and the 3 leadership outcomes. This chapter reviews the statistical findings with relevance to the four research questions and provides insight on rural police leadership behavior policies and practices.

In chapter 4, the results of the means comparison of the self-reported leadership factors of the rural police chiefs and their subordinate officer's ratings of them are provided, as well as comparison of the self-reported leadership outcomes of the rural police chiefs and their subordinate officer's ratings. Additionally, the correlations of police chief's self-reported leadership factors with leadership outcomes were provided. Finally, the correlations between the subordinate officer's rating of the rural police chief's leadership factors and their relationship with leadership outcomes were presented.

Discussion of Results

In this section, the results for the four research questions are discussed. Comparison links between the rural police chiefs and subordinate officers, ratings are discussed as they relate to the theoretical framework of the FRLM. The discussion emphasizes these findings compared to the most current research on the FRLM normative self-reported (n=3,368) and subordinate (n=6,525) data collected by Avolio and Bass (2004). The total data (n=27,285) for the normative sample was collected by Avolio and Bass through www.mindgarden.com from studies conducted throughout the United States in 2004. These studies mainly consisted of homogenous business leaders, where both male and female populations were represented. A specific breakdown of each was not provided.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 predicted no significant difference in the self-reported leadership factors between rural police chiefs and their subordinate officers. Independent sample t-tests were run on each of the 9 leadership factors of the Full Range Leadership Model. 8 out of the 9 leadership factors showed a significant difference in the self-reported ratings by the rural police chiefs and the ratings of their subordinate officers. Only the leadership factor of management by exception-active did not yield a significant difference.

All of the 5 leadership factors comprising transformational leadership differed between groups. On average rural chiefs reported using the 5 factors of transformational leadership more often than their subordinate officers reported. The aggregate mean score for the 5 factors as rated by the rural chiefs was 3.20, while the subordinate officers rating were 2.65. Avolio and Bass (2004) reported an aggregate mean self-report score of 3.02

and a mean of 2.83 from lower level raters. Rural police chiefs in Kentucky self-reported using transformational leadership factors more frequently than the normative sample, and their subordinate officers reported them using transformational leadership factors less frequently than the normative sample.

The two transactional leadership factors of the FRLM are contingent reward and management by exception-active. The mean score for contingent reward for the rural police chiefs is 3.13, while the subordinate officers reported mean is 2.57, these findings indicate that chiefs utilized negotiations and exchanging rewards to accomplish organizational objectives fairly often while their officers report them using it less frequently. Avolio and Bass (2004) reported a mean self-report score of 2.99 and a lower level rater mean of 2.84. As was the case of transformational leadership, Kentucky rural chiefs self-reported using contingent reward more frequently than the normative sample, and their subordinate officers reported them using it less frequently than the normative sample. The mean score for management by exception-active reported by the rural chiefs is 2.13, and their subordinate officer's mean is 2.21. Therefore, both groups reported the rural chief's use of this leadership factor as occurring sometimes on average. Avolio and Bass (2004) reported the mean self-report score as 1.58 and the lower level rater mean as 1.67. Both rural police chiefs in Kentucky and their subordinate officers report the use of this leadership factor more frequently than the normative sample.

The two passive/avoidant leadership factors of the FRLM are management by exception-passive and laissez-faire leadership. The mean score for management by exception-passive for the rural chiefs is 1.05, and their subordinate officer mean is 1.45, which indicates officers rate its use in the once in a while category, with the chiefs

between once in a while and not at all.. Avolio and Bass (2004) reported a mean self-report score of 1.07 and a lower level rater mean of 1.02. Rural police chiefs and their subordinate officers report using this leadership factor less than the normative sample. The mean score for laissez-faire leadership reported by rural chiefs was .442 and their subordinate officer's mean was .867. While the officers perceive their chiefs using this leadership factor more than the chief's self-report, both groups report it as the least frequently utilized leadership style. Avolio and Bass (2004) reported a self-report mean of .61 and a lower level rater mean of .66 for Laissez-faire Leadership. Rural police chiefs in Kentucky reported using this factor less often than did members of the normative sample, while their subordinate officers reported the chiefs using it more frequently than the normative sample.

Rural police chiefs in Kentucky report using transformational leadership behaviors and both transactional leadership behaviors more frequently than management by exception-passive and laissez-faire leadership. There were no differences between the groups reports on management-by-exception-active. They also reported using 6 of these 7 factors at a more significant level than reported by their subordinate officers. Kentucky rural police chiefs perceive themselves as using engaging and motivating leadership behaviors more often than their subordinate officers perceive them using them, as well as more often than the norm group. Further, rural chiefs perceive themselves as using corrective, passive and avoidant leadership styles less frequently than reported by their subordinate officers and the norm group.

Several other studies suggest that leader's self-perceptions of their abilities are vulnerable to misrepresentation, that is, leaders have a hard time admitting to their faults

and embellish their own strengths to project a desirable image (Levin & Montag, 1987). Additionally, leaders highlight the positive characteristics of their leadership and fail to report their behaviors that are considered socially unacceptable (Donaldson & Grant-Vallone, 2002).

The idea of serving at will is another possible reason that the rural chief's reported higher use of transformational leadership and contingent reward behaviors. The chiefs may have created a persona that he or she must live up to in the eyes of their superiors. For a rural chief to keep their position he or she will need to convince the person(s) who put them in place that their leadership is effective and that their followers are satisfied with them as a leader.

Lastly, as reported back in chapter 2, law enforcement leadership has been associated with the use of autocratic and bureaucratic styles of leadership. Chiefs sometimes need to make quick decisions given the inherent risks associated with law enforcement. Sometimes, it may be necessary to use autocratic styles if officers or citizens lives are in danger. That would not be the preferred everyday method of leadership but that may be a reason for their infrequent use of passive/avoidant leadership styles.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis two indicated that there are no significant difference in the self-reported leadership outcomes between rural police chiefs and their subordinate officers. Independent samples t-tests were run on the three leadership outcomes of the Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM). All 3 leadership outcomes revealed a significant difference

between the self-reported ratings by the rural police chiefs and the ratings by their subordinate officers.

The mean scores for the rural police chief's leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction were 3.08, 3.39, and 3.35, respectively. In other words, they perceive themselves as influencing followers to give extra effort, feel they are effective leaders, and believe their followers are satisfied with them fairly often. The mean scores of their subordinate officers were 2.66, 2.86, and 2.80, which signifies that they perceive their chiefs as influencing them to give extra effort, as effective leaders, and are satisfied with them as leaders less often. The mean scores for self-report norm group for leadership outcomes reported by Avolio and Bass (2004) were 2.79, 3.14, and 3.09, and the lower level rater norms were 2.78, 3.09, and 3.09. Rural police chiefs in Kentucky rated themselves higher than the normative sample on all 3 outcomes, while their subordinate officers rated the rural chiefs lower in all 3 categories.

This study reported that the use of autocratic and bureaucratic models of leadership has been pervasive in the history law enforcement. This may be a reason for the subordinate officers' lower rating on leadership outcomes of the rural chiefs. If rural chiefs in Kentucky are using these models he or she might be hindering their officers from giving extra effort. Additionally, it may lead to a perception of ineffectiveness and cause followers to be dissatisfied with them as leaders.

This study was conducted on agencies with personnel ranging from 5 to 50 officers. Do rural chiefs from smaller agencies interact more with their officers than the larger rural agencies? We should consider that a chief who employs 50 officers is less likely to interact with all of the officers than a chief who has 6 officers. It would be

harder to be seen as an effective leader if you not actually seen by your officers. The different sizes associated with the agencies that were used in this study may be a reason for the leadership outcomes that were reported by the officers.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis three predicted that there are no significant relationships between the rural chief's self-reported leadership factors and leadership outcomes. Bivariate correlations were run on all 9 factors of the Full Range Leadership Model with the 3 leadership outcomes. Positive correlations were found on all but one of the 5 factors of transformational leadership with extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction. No correlation was found between idealized influence-attributed and satisfaction. Positive correlations were found between contingent reward with all 3 leadership outcomes. Management by exception-active showed no correlations with the 3 leadership outcomes, while management by exception-passive and laissez-faire leadership was negatively correlated with all outcomes. Positive relationships were found between the factors of transformational leadership and contingent reward with the 3 leadership outcomes, which research has consistently shown (Avolio & Bass, 1995, 2000 & 2004) However, a negative relationship is usually found between management by exception-passive and laissez-faire leadership with the 3 leadership outcomes (Avolio & Bass, 1995, 2000, & 2004; Dum dum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2002; Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam, 1996), which was not the case in this study.

One possible explanation for the lack of negative correlations found in this study is a phenomenon that is typically found in relatively low sample sizes (n=47). However, this was not a factor in all of the positive relationships with transformational leadership.

The lack of negative relationships with passive/avoidant may be the result of officers that are typically in the field and less dependent on more active leadership from their chiefs. Patrol officers routinely make life and death decisions with little or no supervision. The immediate danger and impact of their actions does not allow for them to clear decisions with superiors.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis four predicted no significant relationships between the subordinate officer's rating of the rural police chiefs' leadership factors and leadership outcomes. Bivariate correlations were completed on the 9 leadership factors and the 3 leadership outcomes. Strong positive correlations were found for all five factors of transformational leadership with each of the 3 leadership outcomes. Contingent reward indicated a strong positive correlation with the 3 leadership outcomes as well. No correlations were found between management by exception-active and the 3 leadership outcomes. Management by exception-passive and laissez-faire leadership was negatively related to each of the 3 leadership outcomes. While this study found differences in the rural chief's response and the officer's response to the use of management-by-exception-passive and Laissez-faire leadership both groups agree use of these styles should be infrequent.

These findings are consistent with prior research on the leadership factors of the Full Range Leadership Model and their relationships with the 3 leadership outcomes. Transformational leadership and contingent reward have a significant and positive effect on the 3 leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction. Management by exception-active, management by exception-passive and laissez-faire leadership have been shown in prior research to be negatively correlated with the 3 leadership outcomes

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(Bass & Avolio, 1990; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Avolio & Bass, 1991; Bass, 1985; Avolio, 1999; 2005; Dum dum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2002).

One interesting finding emerging when the correlations from chief's reports are compared to the correlations embedded in the officer's responses. Clearly, officers view passive and avoidant leadership as related negatively to outcomes, while chiefs report no relationships. If chiefs see no negative consequences of such leadership, they will likely be less motivated to decrease use of those ineffective styles.

The results of the study transcend the meaning of the Full Range Leadership Model. Rural police chiefs in Kentucky are using transformational leadership and contingent reward as their preferred method of leadership. They are using management by exception-active, management by exception-passive and laissez-faire leadership styles when appropriate. Further, they perceive their leadership styles are encouraging followers to give extra effort, be satisfied with them as leaders, and view them as effective. Their subordinate officers rate them as using these styles just not as frequently as the rural chief's report. Both groups clearly report the use of passive/avoidant leadership styles should be used infrequently.

Implications for Policy and Practice

Implications for Practice

This study indicates that rural police chiefs in Kentucky self-report using the 5 factors of transformational leadership and contingent reward more than their subordinate officers report. Additionally, rural police chiefs in Kentucky self-report a higher level of leadership outcomes than did their subordinate officers report. Rural police chiefs perceive their leadership to cause followers to give extra effort at a higher rate, perceive

themselves as more effective leaders, and perceive their subordinate officers are satisfied with their leadership more than their subordinate officers report. This is an important finding for all levels of rural law enforcement leadership. As a matter of practice, rural law enforcement leaders should be encouraged to include all 5 factors of transformational leadership and contingent reward when leading subordinate police officers.

The challenge is enhancing the chief's use of transformational leadership may be in the fact that they are not using it as frequently as they believe, at least from the perspectives of their officers. It does not matter which group's reports are closer to reality because seeing is believing. The first step is to make chiefs aware of this disconnect in ratings. The second is to offer additional training in transformational leadership.

Using the 5 factors of transformational leadership can assist the rural police chiefs in obtaining organizational goals and objectives as well as creating the outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction. Through the use of idealized influence-attributed, rural police chiefs can instill pride in their officers, act in ways to build their respect, and demonstrate a sense of power and confidence. Further, when using idealized influence-behavior, a rural police chief should express the agencies values and beliefs and stress the importance of a collective sense of mission (Avolio & Bass, 2004). By enacting such leadership, chiefs will serve officers who are more satisfied in their roles, thereby reducing turnover rates in the role.

Through the use of inspirational motivation, rural police chiefs can motivate those around them presenting them with meaning and challenge. Enthusiasm and optimism about the future of the agency is displayed, and every officer understands their role and how they fit into the future of the department. A rural chief and all of his subordinate

leaders should express confidence that departmental goals and objectives will be achieved. Police work involves many environmental factors that expose officers to negative situations on a daily basis; this leadership factor is critical to maintain the officer's morale and re-enforces that they are performing their duties in the correct manner (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Leaders who use intellectual stimulation question the status quo in an effort to be creative especially where problem solving is needed. All rural police leaders should challenge their officers to look for new ways to solve problems within their community instead of always approaching them in the same manner. Rural police leaders should support officers who have ideas for new ways to complete their assignments. Police officers work in an ever changing environment, and new ways to critically think their way through problems is essential to the overall success of an agency (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Rural police chiefs and leaders should use individualized consideration to respect their individual officer's need for achievement and growth. Rural police chiefs should spend time coaching and mentoring officers, treating them as individuals and not simply as a member of a group. The goal of this factor is to develop the strengths of the officers and prepare them for future leadership roles within the department. Transformational leadership has been shown to have a cascading effect wherein a leader is measured not only by outcomes, but also by how well the leader has developed followers into effective transformational leaders (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Therefore, this style of leadership is developing the collective leadership capacity of the organization and ensuring others are prepared for leadership succession.

Rural police chiefs and leaders can use transactional contingent reward behaviors as an effective base for transformational leadership. Contingent reward clarifies expectations and offers rewards for positive behavior and agreed upon accomplishments (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Transformational leadership does not replace transactional contingent reward but rather augments it by building on the transactional base causing followers to want to give extra effort and increased performance.

Implications for Policy

Effective leadership is a necessary component in the high functioning ever-changing world of rural police agencies. There is a need for rural police agencies to implement transformational leadership and transactional contingent reward as the preferred strategies for effective management and leadership. This study has demonstrated that rural officers perceive their chief's leadership behaviors differently than the rural chief's self-reports. Three areas of implication for policy extend from this study: First, leadership training needs to be provided at all levels of the departments, and second, the use of the MLQ to evaluate and inform all levels of supervision and management should be implemented on a regular basis. Finally, the results from the MLQ could be used for the selection of leaders.

In order to implement transformational and transactional contingent reward as the preferred methods of leadership within rural police agencies, training at all levels would need to occur. In a study by Bass and Avolio (1994), they recommend that transformational leadership be taught to every member of an organization to affect positive change and implementation. This is crucial given the cascading effect of transformational leadership. Using and teaching the concept will prepare future leaders in

a more complete manner. Prior research with the military and other organizations has shown training to be the preferred method for the implementation of transformational and transactional leadership into any organization (Dvir, et al., 2002).

A logical extension to training and commitment to this leadership style is to implement a check and balance system. In a study of leader self-deception, Argyris, (1999), concluded that leaders should be encouraged to participate in self-monitoring which could bring a greater self-awareness of their strengths and limitations. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) has been successfully used to provide feedback to leaders of organizations with regard to their use of transformational and transactional contingent reward (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Research has shown that using the MLQ on an individual basis can change ineffective leadership behaviors into effective ones in a reasonable amount of time. The degree of change does depend on the individual's readiness and willingness to change (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

At a minimum, the MLQ should be used to provide leaders with feedback. It can also be argued that it should be part of a leader's evaluation, which would likely provide more pressure and incentives for leaders to use supported styles. Finally, it could be used as a selection tool in the hiring process, but limits of self-reported data should be kept in mind.

Recommendations for Future Research

Suggestions for future research on the topic of rural police leadership include an expansion of this study to encompass a larger sample of rural police agencies, including outside of Kentucky. Since almost 90% of police agencies in this country fit the definition of rural used in this study, a more expansive sampling is warranted.

Additionally, this study could be replicated using a mixed methods approach that would allow for a deeper explanation of the perceptions given by both the rural police chiefs and their subordinate officers. Mixed methods would add the possibility of interviewing the chiefs and their officers and possibly observing their interactions. This would make for a large volume of information if used with the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. The different sources of data would enable triangulation of findings. The qualitative data would explain the rationale underlying the quantitative ratings.

One recommendation from this study is to add a training component to all levels of management and supervision within rural police departments with regard to the use of transformational leadership and transactional contingent reward. After the training component is fully implemented, a longitudinal study could be performed to track the effectiveness of the training and analyze if the use of transformational leadership and transactional contingent reward increase as well as the 3 leadership outcomes of this study.

Additional research could be conducted using the model of this study to further dissect the different sizes of rural agencies. Keeping in mind that this study included rural agencies with 50 or less officers, those parameters could be further divided looking into 10, 20, 30 and 40 officer agencies, and then analyzing the impact of size on leadership and associated outcomes. Is transformational leadership more effective in a 10 officer police agency than a 45 officer agency? A study could consider the sphere of influence that a rural police does have. Expanding on that idea, a researcher could assess how far down the chain of command a police chief is effectively influencing followers.

Lastly, if these officers are not satisfied with their rural police chiefs, and they are not willing to give extra effort, then what is their next action. Do they seek another police agency that has more effective leadership or do they leave law enforcement altogether? Retention issues due to a lack of effective leadership should be examined. Rural law enforcement agencies do not have the resources of the urban agencies that serve a larger population base, and they cannot afford to lose trained officers. Urban agencies usually pay more, have better benefits and have more room for growth and promotion of an officer. Rural agencies cannot afford to lose officers because of ineffective leadership. Satisfaction and effectiveness levels could also be researched using more demographic information from both the chiefs and the officers, such as education, gender, age, ethnicity and military background.

Summary

In conclusion, this study has served to fill a void that exists not only in law enforcement leadership but specifically where rural agencies are concerned. It has provided knowledge about rural police chief's leadership behaviors from their perceptions as well as their subordinate officer's perceptions. Additionally, it has provided evidence that suggests that the Full Range Leadership Model does have application in the rural law enforcement setting. Specifically, transformational leadership and transactional contingent reward are essential in creating an atmosphere in which the leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction thrive.

The findings of this study indicate that rural police agencies adopt a more active leadership approach with the implementation and use of transformational leadership and transactional contingent reward as a matter of policy and procedure. Leadership

development at all levels should be developed, and training programs employed to nurture the acceptance of this model of leadership. Increasing the leadership skills of existing leaders and using the cascading effect of transformational leadership to develop leaders from within agencies will increase the organizational effectiveness of rural police agencies.

Knowledge gained by this study can be used to train rural police chiefs to be more aware of their leadership styles and implement subordinate evaluations of leaders for every level of leadership within their agencies. The more the rural chiefs know about themselves and all levels of leadership within their agencies, the better they can adjust their styles to create the environment of officer's willingness to give extra effort, view department leaders as effective and be satisfied with them as leaders.

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    organizational outcomes: The mediating role of human-capital-enhancing human
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APPENDIX A

Letter of Permission from Mind Garden.

mind garden

www.mindgarden.com

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material;

Instrument: *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*

Authors: *Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

Copyright: *1995 by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

for his/her thesis research.

Five sample items from this instrument may be reproduced for inclusion in a proposal, thesis, or dissertation.

The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any other published material.

Sincerely,

Robert Most
Mind Garden, Inc.
www.mindgarden.com

APPENDIX B

Letter of Support Off-Campus Research

JUSTICE AND PUBLIC SAFETY CABINET

Steven L. Beshear Governor	Department of Criminal Justice Training 521 Lancaster Avenue Richmond, Kentucky 40475-3102 (859) 622-1328 www.kentucky.gov	J. Michael Brown Secretary John W. Bizzack, Ph.D Commissioner

Letter of Support for Off-Campus Research

December 3, 2012

Institutional Review Board:

As an authorized representative of the Department of Criminal Justice Training, I grant approval for Frank Kubala to conduct research involving human subjects at our organization. I understand that the purpose of this research is to examine the leadership behaviors of rural police chiefs in Kentucky through their self-perceptions and the perceptions of their subordinate sworn officers.

I grant permission for this project to involve police chiefs and their subordinate officers and I have determined these individuals to be appropriate subjects for this research. I understand that they will be asked to complete the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5X-Short form. The MLQ 5X-short form is a comprehensive measurement tool commonly used to assess a leaders use of the Full Range Leadership Model. It measures both leader and non-leader behaviors. The questionnaire contains 45 questions and will take 15 minutes or less to complete.

To support this research, I agree to allow Frank Kubala to complete his study using officers attending their annual in-service training. He will conduct his study without interfering with the normal training activities of the officers. He will assure the officers that this study is not part of their training and that it is a voluntary study with no penalty for non-participation. This study will be conducted on his own time.

Sincerely,

Charles Melville

Charles Melville
Department of Criminal Justice Training
Director, Training Operations Division
(859) 622-6855

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APPENDIX C

CITI Training Completion Report

A STUDY OF RURAL POLICE LEADERSHIP

CITI Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative

Social & Behavioral Research - Basic/Refresher Curriculum Completion Report
Printed on 12/2/2012

Learner: Frank Kubala (username: Fkubala63)
Institution: Eastern Kentucky University
Contact   123 General Nelson Drive
Information   Richmond, Kentucky 40475 United States
                 Department: Educational Leadership
                 Phone: 859-622-5923
                 Email: frank.kubala@eku.edu

Social & Behavioral Research - Basic/Refresher:

Stage 1. Basic Course Passed on 11/09/12 (Ref # 9084321)

Required Modules	Date Completed	Score
Belmont Report and CITI Course Introduction	11/05/12	3/3 (100%)
Students in Research	11/05/12	8/10 (80%)
History and Ethical Principles - SBR	11/06/12	4/5 (80%)
Defining Research with Human Subjects - SBR	11/06/12	5/5 (100%)
The Regulations and The Social and Behavioral Sciences - SBR	11/07/12	5/5 (100%)
Assessing Risk in Social and Behavioral Sciences - SBR	11/08/12	5/5 (100%)
Informed Consent - SBR	11/09/12	5/5 (100%)
Privacy and Confidentiality - SBR	11/09/12	5/5 (100%)
Research with Prisoners - SBR	11/09/12	3/4 (75%)
Research with Children - SBR	11/09/12	4/4 (100%)
Research in Public Elementary and Secondary Schools - SBR	11/09/12	3/4 (75%)
International Research - SBR	11/09/12	2/3 (67%)
Internet Research - SBR	11/09/12	4/5 (80%)
Research and HIPAA Privacy Protections	11/09/12	5/5 (100%)
Vulnerable Subjects - Research Involving Workers/Employees	11/09/12	3/4 (75%)
Conflicts of Interest in Research Involving Human Subjects	11/09/12	5/5 (100%)
Unanticipated Problems and Reporting Requirements in Social and Behavioral Research	11/09/12	3/3 (100%)
Eastern Kentucky University	11/09/12	no quiz

For this Completion Report to be valid, the learner listed above must be affiliated with a CITI participating institution. Falsified information and unauthorized use of the CITI course site is unethical, and may be considered scientific misconduct by your institution.

Paul Braunschweiger Ph.D.
Professor, University of Miami
Director Office of Research Education
CITI Course Coordinator

Return

APPENDIX D

CITI Training Completion Report 2

A STUDY OF RURAL POLICE LEADERSHIP

CITI Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative (CITI)

**Social and Behavioral Responsible Conduct of Research Curriculum
Completion Report
Printed on 12/2/2012**

Learner: Frank Kubala (username: Fkubala63)
Institution: Eastern Kentucky University
Contact   123 General Nelson Drive
Information   Richmond, Kentucky 40475 United States
                                 Department: Educational Leadership
                                 Phone: 859-622-5923
                                 Email: frank.kubala@eku.edu

Social and Behavioral Responsible Conduct of Research: This course is for
investigators, staff and students with an interest or focus in **Social and
Behavioral** research. This course contains text, embedded case studies AND
quizzes.

Stage 1. RCR Passed on 11/10/12 (Ref # 9084322)

Required Modules	Date Completed	Score
Introduction to the Responsible Conduct of Research	11/09/12	no quiz
Research Misconduct 2-1495	11/09/12	5/5 (100%)
Data Acquisition, Management, Sharing and Ownership 2-1523	11/10/12	4/5 (80%)
Publication Practices and Responsible Authorship 2-1518	11/10/12	4/5 (80%)
Peer Review 2-1521	11/10/12	3/5 (60%)
Responsible Mentoring 01-1625	11/10/12	5/6 (83%)
Using Animal Subjects in Research 13301	11/10/12	7/8 (88%)
Conflicts of Interest and Commitment 2-1462	11/10/12	5/6 (83%)
Collaborative Research 2-1484	11/10/12	4/5 (80%)
Human Subjects 13566	11/10/12	5/5 (100%)
The CITI RCR Course Completion Page	11/10/12	no quiz

**For this Completion Report to be valid, the learner listed above must be
affiliated with a CITI participating institution. Falsified information and
unauthorized use of the CITI course site is unethical, and may be
considered scientific misconduct by your institution.**

Paul Braunschweiger Ph.D.
Professor, University of Miami
Director Office of Research Education
CITI Course Coordinator

Return

APPENDIX E

Research Study Announcement

A Study of Rural Police Leadership Behaviors in Kentucky: A Full Range Perspective

Eastern Kentucky University

Announcement

You are invited to participate in a study of leadership styles used by rural law enforcement leaders in Kentucky. You are being asked to participate because your agency meets the definition of rural as defined by the Bureau of Justice. Your participation will help the Department of Criminal Justice Training understand the leadership behaviors being used and possibly change the way leaders are trained.

- The study is voluntary

- No names will be used in the findings

- 45 question survey

- Approximately 30 minutes or less of your time

- There are no known risks for your involvement

- There are no payments or rewards for your participation

- You will be asked not to discuss your involvement with any other participants

The principle investigator for this study is Frank Kubala for further questions please contact him at frank.kubala@eku.edu or 859-358-2735.

APPENDIX F

Institutional Review Board Approval

Graduate Education and Research
Division of Sponsored Programs
Institutional Review Board

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NOTICE OF IRB APPROVAL
Protocol Number: 13-090
Institutional Review Board IRB00002836, DHHS FWA00003332

Review Type: ☐Full ☒Expedited

Approval Type: ☒New ☐Extension of Time ☐Revision ☐Continuing Review

Principal Investigator:	**Frank Kubala**	Faculty Advisor: **Dr. Charles Hausman**
Project Title:	**A Study of Rural Police Leadership in Kentucky: A Full Range Model**	
Approval Date:	**12/13/12**	Expiration Date: **12/31/2013**
Approved by:	**Dr. Jim Gleason, IRB Member**	

This document confirms that the Institutional Review Board (IRB) has approved the above referenced research project as outlined in the application submitted for IRB review with an immediate effective date.

Principal Investigator Responsibilities: It is the responsibility of the principal investigator to ensure that all investigators and staff associated with this study meet the training requirements for conducting research involving human subjects, follow the approved protocol, use only the approved forms, keep appropriate research records, and comply with applicable University policies and state and federal regulations.

Consent Forms: All subjects must receive a copy of the consent form as approved with the EKU IRB approval stamp. Copies of the signed consent forms must be kept on file unless a waiver has been granted by the IRB.

Adverse Events: Any adverse or unexpected events that occur in conjunction with this study must be reported to the IRB within ten calendar days of the occurrence.

Research Records: Accurate and detailed research records must be maintained for a minimum of three years following the completion of the research and are subject to audit.

Changes to Approved Research Protocol: If changes to the approved research protocol become necessary, a description of those changes must be submitted for IRB review and approval prior to implementation. Some changes may be approved by expedited review while others may require full IRB review. Changes include, but are not limited to, those involving study personnel, consent forms, subjects, and procedures.

Annual IRB Continuing Review: This approval is valid through the expiration date noted above and is subject to continuing IRB review on an annual basis for as long as the study is active. It is the responsibility of the principal investigator to submit the annual continuing review request and receive approval prior to the anniversary date of the approval. Continuing reviews may be used to continue a project for up to three years from the original approval date, after which time a new application must be filed for IRB review and approval.

Final Report: Within 30 days from the expiration of the project, a final report must be filed with the IRB. A copy of the research results or an abstract from a resulting publication or presentation must be attached. If copies of significant new findings are provided to the research subjects, a copy must be also be provided to the IRB with the final report.

Other Provisions of Approval, if applicable: None

Please contact Sponsored Programs at 859-622-3636 or send email to tiffany.hamblin@eku.edu or lisa.royalty@eku.edu with questions about this approval or reporting requirements.

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Curriculum Vitae

Frank P. Kubala Jr.

123 General Nelson Drive
Richmond
Kentucky
40475

Phone: (859) 358-2735
E-mail: frank.kubala@ky.gov

Qualifications: Currently serving as a section supervisor for the Department of Criminal Justice Training. Twenty seven years of law enforcement experience with fifteen in the training environment. Possess outstanding institutional knowledge of DOCJT. Earned Bachelor's Degree in Criminal Justice, Master's Degree in Safety & Security, and currently finishing a Doctorate Degree in Educational Leadership. Completed hundreds of hours of training, formal education and research in leadership and management theory and practice. Well-developed relationships with many of the Chief's, Sheriffs and Coroners throughout the state.

Experience:

Department of Criminal Justice Training   01/01/2012- Present

Position: **Law Enforcement Training Section Supervisor- Patrol/Traffic**
Overview: Supervisor responsible for the overall operation of the section Serve as the Branch Managers representative in his absence
Duties: - Lead and manage the day-to-day operations of the section
- Responsible for scheduling instructors and training courses
- Participate and oversee the hiring of instructors
- Attend regional KACP meetings
- Review curriculum and lesson plans
- Develop and implement new training courses
- Network with executive level leaders and training director's state-wide

Department of Criminal Justice Training   03/2004 – 01/01/2012

Position: **Law Enforcement Training Section Supervisor- Investigations**
Overview: Supervisor responsible for the overall operation of the section Serve as Branch Managers representative in his absence
Duties: - Lead and manage the day-to-day operations of the section
- Planning course scheduling/ review curriculum and lesson plans
- Development and implement new training courses
- Attend regional KACP meetings
- Network with executive level leaders and training directors state-wide

Department of Criminal Justice Training   05/2001 – 03/2004

Position: **Law Enforcement Training Section Supervisor- Physical Training**
Overview: Supervisor responsible for the overall operation of the section. Serve as the branch manager's representative in his absence
Duties: - Lead and manage the day-to-day operation of the section
- Monitor and implement KYOSH compliant safety plans for the gym
- Planned instruction schedule and scheduled the facility
- Reviewed all paperwork for the section

Department of Criminal Justice Training   06/1998 – 05/2001

Position: **Law Enforcement Training Instructor 1**
Overview: Instruct fitness and defensive tactics training to basic recruits. Instruct basic training courses in patrol and investigative topics Serve as a representative to the supervisor in their absence
Duties: - Instructed investigative topics to basic recruits, fitness and self-defense
- Write curriculum and lesson plans for all applicable courses.
- Lead, mentor, and coach recruits

Lexington Police Department	09/1992 – 06/1998

Position: **Detective/Patrol Officer**
Overview: Served as sworn officer working patrol duties and investigative duties
Duties:
- Responded to dispatched calls for service
- Investigated criminal offenses
- Skilled in interview and interrogation
- Managed investigative files
- Court presentation and testimony

Hollywood Police Department	03/1987-09/1992

Position: **Patrol/Tactical/Detective**
Overview: Served as sworn officer in patrol, SWAT, and investigations
Duties:
- Responded to dispatched calls for service
- Investigated street level narcotic/prostitution
- Member of Emergency Response Team (High Risk)

Eastern Kentucky University	01/2004-Present

Position: **Adjunct Professor**
Overview: Instruct graduate and undergraduate level course in the classroom/on-line.
Duties:
- Instruct undergraduate and graduate level courses
- Instruct Homeland Security, Asset Protection and Safety
- Classroom instruction and on-line facilitation experience
- Mentor and advise college students

Accomplishments: Managed the implementation of the Kentucky Criminalistics Academy
Coordination and management of grant with KASAP netting the agency more than $400,000 in training and equipment.
Coordination and management of the 2014 schedule book
4 time recipient of the DOCJT Teamwork Award
8 Professional Service Awards
Managed the purchase of Weber Gym equipment

Education: **Eastern Kentucky University** 08/2010-Present
Educational Leadership & Policy Studies Doctorate Degree
4.0 GPA
60 hours- Currently ABD
Dissertation Topic: "A Study of Rural Police Leadership Behaviour's: A Full Range Perspective"

Eastern Kentucky University 09/2001-12/2003
Masters of Science Loss Prevention & Safety
4.0 GPA

Florida International University 08/1985-08/1990
Bachelors of Science in Criminal Justice

Broward Community College 08/1981-06/1985
Associate of Science Degree