Law Enforcement Leaders and Servant Leadership:

A Reliability Study of the Organizational Leadership Assessment

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Abstract

This research study extends Laub's (1999) work in validating the Organizational Leadership Assessment instrument (OLA) and further examines the application and presence of servant leadership among law enforcement leaders. Analyzing responses from law enforcement agencies further refines the reliability of the instrument. This research study uses reliability analysis to determine the reliability of the research instrument and sets the stage for additional empirical research to continue the consistency of the OLA and further generalize the findings.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

This research study extends Laub's (1999) work in validating the Organizational Leadership Assessment instrument and further examined the application and presence of servant leadership among law enforcement leaders. Law enforcement leaders search for the best leadership practices to use in their organizations to confront their changing world (Field, 2002). Field suggested that since September 11, 2001, law enforcement leaders have adapted to these challenges and these leaders help Americans overcome the fear that currently grips our nation.

Developing the best practices required to lead law enforcement organizations today, however, is an area that required examination (Geller, 1985; Geller & Swanger, 1995; Koehler & Pankowski, 1997). Servant leadership, the focus of this study, may be the best practice for this law enforcement leadership challenge, and for those within its leadership ranks who have accepted the responsibility above all others—to protect and serve.

Kouzes and Posner (1995) posited that leaders must meet the demanding challenges of their respective organizations by " . . . get[ting] extraordinary things done in organizations" (p. xvii). Denison (1990) reminded the reader that the difference between successful and not-so-successful organizations, however, rests with the leaders' abilities to control the internal workings of the organization and develop appropriate strategies to confront the external chaos. Daft (1998) called this type of leadership, *great leadership.* It is the ability for a leader to

seize an opportunity and change it into something extraordinary (Kouzes & Posner).

Koehler and Pankowski (1997) stated for leadership to be effective within any government agency, leadership must change, noting that this is not a change that "reinvents government." Rather, it is a change within the leadership practices to "develop management systems that meet or exceed the expectations of the customers they serve" (p. 8). Law enforcement leadership is no exception. Law enforcement leaders must use those practices that will build successful organizations.

Likewise, Geller (1985) believed that law enforcement leadership must change. This change must begin with research that examines the practices of these leaders. Kouzes and Posner (1995) identified several reasons why there is a need today for change among all leaders and why leaders should motivate their followers:

1. Many employees today are "fed-up" with the way organizations treat them;
2. Power has left the boss' office and shifted to those with technological skills. As a result, workers expect their leaders to know instantly what has changed in the world and how that change will affect the organization and more specifically the individual employee;
3. Knowledge is replacing land and capital as the modern day currency;

4. Organizations are becoming more fragmented, they are loosing touch with their customers and their own employees;
5. Concentration takes on new meaning in today's organizations. The more concentrated an industry, the easier it is for an organization to survive. Companies are reducing their workforce to focus on a more narrow area of industry;
6. Many have lost their sense of value and loyalty in today's cynical organizations, and these employees are searching for wholeness in the areas of spirituality, civility, and community. (pp. xvii - xx)

Servant Leadership provides a viable alternative solution to deal with the challenges that law enforcement leaders face. Laub (1999) posited leaders who use servant leadership practices motivate their employees by:

1. Displaying authenticity,
2. Valuing people,
3. Developing people,
4. Building community,
5. Providing leadership, and
6. Sharing leadership.

Though this list of practices is not inclusive, the servant leader may exhibit these additional characteristics; listening, being empathetic, healing, persuading, being aware of one's surroundings, having foresight, conceptualizing the future, commitment to the growth of people, and stewardship (Spears, 1998). Laub

(1999) suggested that each of these practices supplements the leader's ability to aid in the organization's success.

Servant leadership is a viable solution or alternative to this leadership challenge. It provides the opportunity for leaders to put an alternative thought process into practice to confront our changing world (Daft, 1998; Greenleaf, 1973, 1977; Greenleaf, Frick, & Spears, 1996; Greenleaf & Spears, 1998; Spears, 1998).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to further examine the reliability of the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) research instrument and the presence of servant leadership practices derived from this research instrument. This research study focused on law enforcement leaders.

Laub (1999) first constructed "The Servant Organizational Leadership Assessment" in his dissertation work at Florida Atlantic University. Later he changed the name of the research instrument to The Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) to alleviate any bias perceived by the respondents.

Laub (1999) conducted a Delphi study and constructed an instrument to assess the characteristics of servant leadership. Laub suggested that the OLA predicts whether an organization uses servant leadership characteristics.

The use of the OLA provided six different descriptions of organizational health that defines the leadership style used by leaders (Laub, 1999). These six descriptions are:

1. Organization 1 – Toxic Organizational Health

2. Organization 2 – Poor Organizational Health
3. Organization 3 – Limited Organizational Health
4. Organization 4 – Moderate Organizational Health
5. Organization 5 – Excellent Organizational Health
6. Organization 6 – Optimal Organizational Health

The OLA provided the basis for determining the type of leadership used by law enforcement leaders for this research study. Laub (2002) defined the types of leadership as:

Table 1
Laub's Depiction of Types of Leadership

Autocratic	Organization 1 – Toxic Organizational Health
	Organization 2 – Poor Organizational Health
Paternalistic	Organization 3 – Limited Organizational Health
	Organization 4 – Moderate Organizational Health
Servant	Organization 5 – Excellent Organizational Health
	Organization 6 – Optimal Organizational Health

Laub's (1999) research field tested the OLA, receiving 828 responses from 41 organizations representing six different categories. These categories consisted of the following types of organizations: religious, business for profit, education, government, community service, and medical service providers.

Research (Greenleaf, 1973; Greenleaf et al., 1996; Greenleaf & Spears, 1998) posited true greatness in leaders comes from the leader's outward

characteristics—that is the practices that servant leaders exhibit: vision, modeling, pioneering, appreciation of others, and empowerment (Russell, 1999). Greenleaf et al.(1996) believed this greatness emerges in two ways:

1. By the outward evidences of inward attributes that [he] call[s] "moral"—the motivations and attitudes that make for a distinctive quality of executive competence, and
2. By a consequent poise and assurance that mark the person who has become perceptive, creative, and decisive.

This research study used the OLA to determine the effect of the leader on the organization, to determine whether the organization is moderate to optimally healthy, and to ultimately assist the research to define whether the organization is servant led.

Research Questions

The questions answered in this study were:

1. What reliability does Laub's Organizational Leadership Assessment demonstrate?
2. What leadership practices do law enforcement leaders who self-identify as servant leaders use as measured by the Organizational Leadership Assessment?
3. Is there a perception gap—a difference between the law enforcement leader's view of the organizational leadership characteristics and the workers view of the organizational leadership characteristics?

Assumptions

Several assumptions underlie this study.

1. The responses of the participants reflect their true opinions.
2. The instrument used to determine leadership practices provides valid and reliable information.
3. Leadership practices as measured by the OLA are both unique and a quantifiable concept.

Identification of the Study Sites

To accomplish the purpose of the research project, it was important to identify a research method that examined the leadership practices of the responding law enforcement leaders. This researcher believed that a quantitative approach that examined the leadership practices should be used.

This researcher posted a request for participation on the International Association of Chiefs of Police Website for organizations to participate in this study. Twenty-five agencies agreed to participate in this research.

Rationale for the Study

Geller (1985) posited leadership among law enforcement organizations is leadership in crisis. Orr (2001) suggested there is difficulty in maintaining the "business as usual attitude" after the attacks of September 11, 2001. Yet, Treverton (2001) reminded the reader that law enforcement, at every level, has been in crisis for many years—long before this atrocious attack.

The degradation of morals and attitudes toward one another throughout society continues its downward spiral, and “old sources and methods” of leadership, says Treverton (2001), “must be reshaped to deal with a host of new threats, especially a new kind of terrorism” (p. 18). These new “methods” must include a model of leadership that places the highest priority on the needs of others before one’s own, and servant leadership may be a way to achieve this goal.

Geller (1985) suggested that law enforcement organizations are in crisis and their only deliverance comes from solid leadership. However, Geller continued by stating, “knowledge about the role of the police chief is very limited … and the body of research is miniscule” (p. 398). Thus, there was a need for research on this segment of leadership to expand the literature and to focus on the leadership characteristics—specifically the practices used by law enforcement leaders.

Koehler and Pankowski (1997) agreed there was a need for empirical research among law enforcement and their leadership. They further explained that the literature that focused on law enforcement leadership was lacking.

To make up for this deficiency in the literature, empirical research studies must examine the leadership specific to government agencies. Research cannot use a “one size fits all” approach to leadership within government. Leadership within for-profit organizations differs significantly from leadership in government organizations, and this difference causes “behaviors in leaders that are notably different from those found in government organizations” (Koehler & Pankowski,

1997, p. 10). Koehler and Pankowski concluded that popular press and empirical research tends to lump leadership studies together for a one size fits all approach. These two factors, the leadership crisis and the differences that exist between the leadership of for-profit organizations and government organizations, further supported the need for this research.

Greenleaf (1973, 1977, 1996, 1998) wrote a series of essays and books on the topic of servant leadership. His seminal work envisioned servant leadership as a modern way for leaders to motivate followers to achieve extraordinary success. Greenleaf (1977) believed that a servant leader is a servant first, and it is this very choice to serve others that is the driving force that brings them to lead. Greenleaf said this type of leader will cause others to grow as persons, and that while being served, others will become "healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants" (p. 13).

Servant leadership seems to be a simple idea, yet it is a paradigmatic shift from the leadership theories of the past that often relied on coercion or fear to motivate employees. Spears (1998), CEO of The Robert K. Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership, identified a set of ten characteristics that he views as important aspects of a servant leader's development:

1. Listening—a deep commitment to intently listening to others.
2. Empathy—the ability of the leader to place him or her self in the position of someone else.
3. Healing—the ability to 'help make whole' those individuals whom a leader has contact.
4. Persuasion—seeking to convince others, rather than coercing compliance.

5. Awareness—awareness of situations in general, as well as self-awareness, this ability aids the leader in understanding issues involving ethics and values and enables a leader to approach situations from a more integrated and holistic position.

6. Foresight—the ability to foresee the likely outcome of a given situation.

7. Conceptualization—being able to think beyond day-to-day management realities; to dream great dreams.

8. Stewardship—the leaders ability to place trust in others; empowerment.

9. Commitment to the growth of people—a belief that people have an intrinsic value beyond their tangible contributions as workers.

10. Building community—seeking to build a sense of community among those within an organization. (pp. 4 - 6)

Laub (1999), Associate Director of the Center for Life Calling and Leadership, Indiana Wesleyan University, identified a set of six characteristics that he views as important aspects of a servant leader's development:

1. The servant leader Values People

   By believing in people
   By serving other's needs before his or her own
   By receptive, non-judgmental listening

2. The servant leader Develops People

   By providing opportunities for learning and growth
   By modeling appropriate behavior
   By building up others through encouragement and affirmation

3. The servant leader Builds Community

   By building strong personal relationships
   By working collaboratively with others
   By valuing the differences of others

4. The servant leader Displays Authenticity

    By being open and accountable to others
    By a willingness to learn from others
    By maintaining integrity and trust

5. The servant leader Provides Leadership

    By envisioning the future
    By taking initiative
    By clarifying goals

6. The servant leader Shares Leadership

    By facilitating a shared vision
    By sharing power and releasing control
    By sharing status and promoting others. (p. 83)

Laub (1999) and Spears (1998) acknowledged that these characteristics are not all-inclusive, but each of their concepts serve as a starting point for leaders to begin to foster the premise of this servant form of leadership. Anderson (1999), discussing the transformational law enforcement leader, stated, “Leadership is the primary factor that distinguishes successful from unsuccessful over the long term” (p. 10). Law enforcement leaders must learn and use the right leadership practices (Anderson).

Law enforcement leaders often learn their leadership practices by observing negative role models (Anderson, 1999). Geller (1985) stated, “The predicament confronting many of our large cities cries out for the best police leadership we can get” (p. 31). This “best police leadership” begins with the best practices.

Servant leadership seems to use the best leadership practices for law enforcement leaders. The primary concept of servant leadership centers on

serving the needs of others. Geller (1985) suggested a serving model of leadership has the “potential to evolve into a genuinely professional model” (p. 401). Walker (1983), however, suggested law enforcement leaders are prisoners of the past. Breaking free from the old paradigm to a new paradigm of leadership will require researchers to focus on the practices of law enforcement leaders (Geller).

Limitations of the Study

As of the 2000 U.S. Census, there were some 17,360 law enforcement agencies representing campus, university, municipal, county, and state police departments, sheriff’s departments, and federal police agencies (Anonymous, 2000). This study concentrated on twelve of these agencies that volunteered to participate in this research.

This study had the following limitations:

1. The study limits generalizability by focusing on twelve agencies; therefore, the results are only generalizable to theoretical propositions and are not intended to be generalizable to a larger universe (Yin, 1994).
2. The perception that a small number of agencies are represented (only twelve) is not a significant factor for a reliability study. The researcher will need to overcome the perception that a larger number of respondents are required by providing a thorough explanation of the previous research.

3. The perception that the twelve responding agencies understand the concepts of servant leadership and implement the six servant leadership practices in part or in whole.
4. The instrument used is a self-reporting measurement of the leadership practices of law enforcement leaders and no observable practices are examined in the study.
5. The researcher as a current law enforcement officer will not be biased. The researcher tried to present an unbiased perspective based solely on the evidence presented through the literature review and the findings of the OLA data.

The study had the following delimitations:

1. The choice of the instrument used to determine leadership practices excludes all other instruments.
2. The study was restricted to law enforcement organizations.

Definition of Key Terms

Several key terms required attention in this research study. These terms included:

1. Autocratic – Hickman (1998) posits autocracy is “absolute government where power is held by an individual or small group and supported by control of critical resources, property or ownership rights, tradition, charisma, and other claims to personal privilege” (p. 157). Bass (1990) suggests that authoritative leadership often resorts to coercion to achieve the leaders

objectives. Laub (1999) believes that an autocratic leader exerts power from the highest position, and this power is used to force compliance.

2. Building Community—Roberts (1999) defines building community as, “a group of people who have the power, energy, and interest to bring about their desired future, [and who] will unfold from our increased need for systems thinking, interdependence, and conscious oversight” (p. 64). Laub (1999) suggests that building community requires strong personal relationships by building a collaborative working network with others through valuing the differences that others bring to the workplace. Building community within the workplace begins “through the interplay of dozens of teams of people, all acting in sync, reinforced by their collegiality and guided by a deep sense of stewardship for people and systems, with an eye toward the impact on future generations” (Roberts, p. 64). A leader must look toward this future with a pioneer spirit (Russell, 1999). C. Miller (1995) states, “Real leaders are daily being converted to new ways of doing things.” Here, too, pioneering requires the willingness to be bold and take risks.
3. Develop People—Laub (1999) posits the development of people begins with providing opportunities for growth and learning, modeling appropriate behavior, and building up others through encouragement and affirmation. Being a model for others to follow

is a functional attribute of servant leadership according to Russell (1999). This is the ability of the leader to set high standards and then personally live by those standards – the analogy of “walking the walk and talking the talk.”

4. Displaying Authenticity—Being open and accountable to others and willing to learn is only the beginning of a leader’s responsibility (Laub, 1999). A leader must also maintain her or his integrity and trust within and outside of the organization. President G. W. Bush (2002) posited

> [The atrocities of September 11, 2001] created a great awakening, a reference point for reflection, and a time to revisit and refocus on values, integrity, honesty, faith, and service to others. Men and women of today's time have been called on to seek opportunities in their daily lives to make a difference in their communities, in their state, and in their country. (p. 4)

These characteristics require leaders to be authentic in their leadership practices.

5. Law Enforcement—Stone and DeLuca (1985) posit law enforcement is “The application of legally given authority to ensure the compliance of other persons with certain laws, rules, or policies” (p. 478). The primary purpose of law enforcement is to provide

specialized police services to their respective political entities twenty-four hours a day, everyday (Bennett & Hess, 1992).

6. Leader—Leaders are those who have the authority to act (Stillman, 1996). Leaders are defined as persons who hold positions of authority (Stone & DeLuca, 1985) and for purposes of this research, are those who are appointed or elected to formal positions. Examples of leaders are: Chiefs of Police, Public Safety Directors, or Sheriffs.
7. Leadership—Kouzes and Posner (1995) define leadership as the act of a person who possesses the “will to” be the energizer to ignite the passions of employees, to be an example for others to follow, and to be a compass to guide the way (p. 30). DePree suggests that leadership is what leaders “owe” to the organization (as cited in Hickman, 1998). For law enforcement organizational purposes, “leadership might be thought of as using people, groups, or organizational power to influence the thoughts and performance of one or more people, in any given situation, toward the partial or full realization of a goal or goals” (Bennett & Hess, 1992, p. 61).
8. Negative Paternalistic Leadership—Laub (1999) defines a negative paternalistic style of leadership as one that delegates power for specific tasks and to specific positions within the organization. However, the goals and organizational direction are sometimes unclear and confusing.

9. Non-Servant Leader—A leader that the OLA identifies as autocratic or paternalistic and a leader who is not defined as leaders of servant-led organizations as defined by the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA).
10. Organizational Leadership Assessment—The Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) was developed by Laub (1999) and is based on the Servant Leadership Model. The OLA was developed to measure the qualities of servant leadership within organizations. The OLA provides the opportunity of establishing a solid research base for servant leadership as a concept applied to leadership and organizational culture. The OLA has a high reliability of .98 and has been field tested with over 75 different organizations. The OLA is based on the six areas and eighteen characteristics of the servant organization that came out of the research of Laub. In this research, a 3-part Delphi process was utilized with a group of fourteen experts in the field of servant leadership. This group, including Kouzes, Spears, Williams and Millard, came to consensus on sixty characteristics of servant leadership that complete the research instrument.
11. Positive Paternalistic Leadership—Unlike the negative aspect of paternalistic leadership, positive paternalistic leadership encourages a more collaborative approach. Laub (1999) suggests employees are encouraged to share ideas for improving the

organization. However, the power is still divvied out to specific positions and only for certain tasks.

12. Power – Pfeffer (1997) posits power as the ability of one person to control others.
13. Practices – The outward characteristics exhibited by a leader that others could sense. For example, an articulated vision/mission statement, or the ability to live by the high standards imposed on the members of the organization; A model for others to follow, a pioneer in the industry—not a follower. A person who appreciates others through action not talk, and finally, a leader who is willing to share the success of the organization by empowering others with the authority to meet organizational goals.
14. Providing Leadership – Laub (1999) suggests that to provide leadership, leaders must envision the future, take initiative, and clarify goals. Senge (as cited in Pugh & Hickson, 1997) posits a shared vision serves as a map for the organization and its members, charting the future that they wish to create. A vision is the dream or aspiration of the leader for an organization that involves a unique picture of the future and is imperative for leadership.
15. Shared Leadership—Empowerment is a vital attribute of servant leadership according to Russell (1999). Shared leadership is the leader's ability to focus on "the technical, political, and cultural

resistances to change" that can help followers overcome resistance (Bass, 1990). This requires the leader to overcome her or his hold on power and increase the autonomy and discretionary opportunities of the followers.

16. Servant Leader—Greenleaf (1977) defines a Servant Leader as "one [who] is a servant, whether leader or follower, one [who] is always searching, listening, [and] expecting that a better wheel for these times is in the making" (p. 9). Servant leaders exhibit six practices. They are defined as: (a) Display authenticity, (b) Value people, (c) Develop people, (d) Build community, (e) Provide leadership, and (f) Share leadership. Those exhibiting these six practices of the OLA are defined as leaders of servant-led organizations.

17. Value People—Russell (1999) posits appreciating others is a functional attribute of servant leadership. Valuing others incorporates a phileo love—a brotherly love for each other. A person who values people is someone who has a love that encourages, is loyal, builds teamwork, is committed, and respects the dignity and worth of others. Love from a leader's perspective is a selfless sacrifice that ensures others are blessed (Winston, 1999). The Bible states, "Love is patient and kind; love is not jealous or boastful; it is not arrogant or rude. Love does not insist on its own way; it is not irritable or resentful; it does not rejoice at

> wrong, but rejoices in the right. Love bears all things, believes all things, hopes all things, endures all things" (1 Corinthians 13:4-7, Revised Standard Version).

Summary

Law enforcement leaders search for the best leadership practices to use in their organizations (Field, 2002). Developing the best practices to lead these organizations, however, is an area that needs further examination (Geller, 1985; Geller & Swanger, 1995; Koehler & Pankowski, 1997).

Anderson (1999) believed that leaders learn their practices from modeling others. However, the leadership practices of others, particularly within law enforcement, can be either good or bad (Geller, 1985). It is necessary to examine the best leadership practices for leaders within this profession to meet the leadership needs. Kouzes and Posner (1995) remind leaders to take the best leadership practices of others and change them into practices that are extraordinary.

This research project examined the leadership practices of law enforcement leaders. The researcher used the OLA to assess twelve law enforcement organizations.

The purpose of this study further examined the presence of servant leadership practices as perceived by the law enforcement leaders and the workforce. Laub (1999) posited six servant leadership practices examined by the OLA . They are:

1. Display authenticity,

2. Value people,
3. Develop people,
4. Build community,
5. Provide leadership, and
6. Share leadership.

Though this list of practices is not all-inclusive, these six practices support the argument that servant leadership is a viable solution or alternative to this leadership challenge.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Often there is confusion between leadership and management (Rost, 1991). This misperception is especially true within law enforcement where the stereotypical chief of police suggests a male administrator who is an overbearing, authoritarian manager (Kelling, Moore, & National Institute of Justice , 1989). Eisenhower (n.d.) reminds all leaders that they should “not lead by hitting people over the head—that’s assault, not leadership” (¶ 1). Rather, leaders should clearly understand that a distinction exists between the old paradigms, management by force, and a new paradigm, that of leadership (Conger & Kanungo, 1998).

Conger and Kanungo (1998) provided a table that outlines the differences between managership and leadership (p. 9).

Table 2

Conger and Kanungo's Differences between Managership versus Leadership

Managership	Leadership
1. Engages in day-to-day activities: Maintains and allocates resources.	Formulates long-term objectives for reforming the system: Plans strategy and tactics.
2. Exhibits supervisory behavior: Acts to make others maintain standard job behavior.	Exhibits leading behavior: Acts to bring about change in others congruent with long-term objectives.
3. Administers subsystems within organizations.	Innovates for the entire organization.
4. Asks how and when to engage in standard practice.	Asks when and why to change standard practice.
5. Acts within established culture of the organization.	Creates vision and meaning for the organization and strives to transform culture.
6. Uses transactional influence: Induces compliance in manifest behavior using rewards, sanctions, and formal authority.	Uses transformational influence: Induces change in values, attitudes, and behavior using personal examples and expertise.
7. Relies on control strategies to get things done by subordinates.	Uses empowering strategies to make followers internalize values.
8. Supports the status quo and stabilizes the organization.	Challenges the status quo and creates change.

Note. From *Charismatic Leadership in Organizations (p. 9)*, by Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. 1998, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications. Copyright 1998 by Sage Publications, Inc. Reprinted with Permission

According to Conger and Kanungo (1998), managers try to maintain the status quo and stabilize an organization through discipline and control. Leaders, however, strive to create new opportunities for all employees by breaking through the old ways and challenging how a business operates. Leadership produces change that establishes a new direction, and aligns employees with the vision of the organization through motivation and inspiration (Kotter, 1990).

A call for true leadership has been long coming for law enforcement leaders (Field, 2002). Geller (1985) stated government managers are administrative minions, but *real* government *leaders* are innovative, effective, pioneering community leaders who are willing and able to make a difference. This difference, according to Greenleaf (1973), is termed *servant leadership*.

Servant leadership is an approach where a leader provides a model for others to identify and emulate the best ways of doing things (Greenleaf, 1973). The paradigm shift from management to leadership within law enforcement is important in today's turbulent environment. Leadership practices become the successful persuasions a leader uses to influence others to achieve extraordinary success (Bass, 1990). However, success is unclear in light of the problems these leaders face in today's crime laden environment. It is time for organizational leaders to deal with the chaos and implement a "center stage" approach for leadership (Daft, 1998). Daft posited this approach is best described as servant leadership.

Servant leadership provides a different way of looking at leadership among law enforcement leaders. In this review of the literature, we will focus on four broad categories:

1. Historical research on servant leadership practices,
2. The history of law enforcement leadership,
3. Current law enforcement leadership research, and
4. Measuring servant leadership.

This research project drew from a variety of different perspectives. These views included, but were not limited to, business (Farling, Stone, & Winston, 1999; Greenleaf et al., 1996; Russell, 1999; Spears, 1998), leadership (Bass, 1990, 1997; Bass & Avolio, 1998; Burns,1998), popular press (Champy, 1995; Covey, 1991; Drucker, 1996; Rinehart, 1998), politics (Burns, 1998), and religion (Boice, 1996; Preston , 1976; Winston, 1999). The purpose of this study was to further examine the reliability of the OLA research instrument and the presence of servant leadership practices derived from this instrument focusing on law enforcement leaders. More specifically, this study sought to validate the research of Laub (1999) and to determine if law enforcement organizations are servant-led.

Using the OLA, the research determined if law enforcement leaders use those characteristics commonly associated with servant leadership. This research continues to set the stage for additional empirical research to validate the OLA and further generalize the findings.

Review of Servant Leadership

Servant Leadership of the Distant Past

Moses is described in the Bible as a government leader, a government reformer, and a leader of the Hebrew people (Exodus 3). He was a government leader who accepted the laws of God (Exodus 34:29), a government leader who enforced these laws and sat as judge of the Hebrew people (Exodus 18:13), and he continues to serve as a model for government leaders, specifically law enforcement leaders of today to study.

When Moses returned to Egypt to lead the Hebrew people out of bondage, it was clear that his leadership approach would be tested. His desire to serve God in the face of danger epitomizes the will of one man to overcome insurmountable odds for a heartfelt cause. Not only was Moses belittled by Pharaoh for his efforts to free the Hebrew people, but the people that he cared for so much doubted his actions and believed that Pharaoh would kill them all just for listening to Moses' raving message (Exodus 5:21).

The decision that Moses had to make was the choice of what kind of leader he would be. Two different views quickly emerged. The Hebrew people questioned the motives of Moses and asked him why he had led them from Egypt into the desert to die (Exodus 14:11). It is clear that the Hebrew people did not trust his leadership ability, even though it was their choice to follow him into the desert.

The second view is that God had called Moses to serve Him (Exodus 3:10). God instructed Moses to go into Egypt and tell Pharaoh to "let [His] people

go” (Exodus 5:1, King James Version). The Hebrew people had been enslaved for 430 years (Exodus 12:40), and their greatest need was for freedom—freedom from bondage and the freedom to worship their God.

God knew that He could trust Moses to serve Him and to serve the highest priority needs of the people of Israel. The Bible, in the book of Exodus provided a brief description of the practices of servant leadership used by Moses to lead the Hebrew people from captivity into freedom. These practices included God’s provision for leadership, the development of future leaders and sharing the leadership role, a display of true validity toward established goals, a pioneering spirit, and a Godly concern for the welfare of others.

A Godly Provision of Leadership. Exodus revealed that Moses had a vision from God that allowed him to see the Hebrew people leaving the captivity of Pharaoh and leaving Egypt for the Promised Land (Exodus 4:1-17). More than two-thousand years ago, King Solomon wrote, “Where there is no vision, the people will perish” (Proverbs 29:18). This statement was true for Moses, because he saw a vision of the Hebrew people freed from slavery.

This vision of what could be, however, did not stop in his minds-eye. Moses put this vision into practice when he left his home and traveled back to Egypt to confront Pharaoh (Exodus 4:18). Moses met with Aaron to discuss the vision of freedom for the Hebrew people. Aaron in turn began sharing this vision with others and before long the vision had spread throughout the Hebrew people (Exodus 4:27-31).

The Development of a Leader. As God's appointed government leader of the Hebrew nation, Moses did not share his vision and leave the hard work for someone else to put into motion. Rather, Moses immediately left the comfort of his home and his family to put his vision into practice (Exodus 4:18-20). Moses knew that sharing his vision with others was just the first step; he had to show others what he wanted them to do and how he wanted them to act. Moses was a model for others to follow, and this is exactly what he wanted—he wanted the children of Israel to leave the captivity of Egypt and follow him to the Promised Land.

Moses was free to leave. He had been exiled from Egypt for killing a soldier who had beat a Hebrew (Exodus 2:12). However, now as the leader of the Hebrew people, he needed to guide his followers out of captivity, and Moses knew this was not going to be an easy task. He even tried to convince God that he was not the right person for this responsibility (Exodus 4:1-17).

Displaying Authenticity. The Bible explained that God knew that Moses would need a pioneering spirit to convince Pharaoh to let the Hebrew people leave captivity. Webster and McKechnie (1983) defined a pioneer as "one who is first or among the earliest in any field of inquiry" (p. 1473). Moses was a first. He was the first Biblically recorded national leader who entered a foreign land to free a captive people (Exodus 4:18-20). Moses, knowing that he entered at a high risk of self-injury or even death, was undaunted for putting into practice the vision that he held in his heart to free the Hebrew people.

A Godly Concern for Others. Appreciation for others is not a strong enough phrase for the way that Moses felt for the Egyptian captives. The Hebrew people were family to Moses; they included his mother, his sister, and his brother, all of whom were captives enslaved by Pharaoh (Exodus 2). So Moses had a deep love for them all, a love that provided the courage to stand in harms way, to provide their every need – leading them to freedom (Exodus 12:41). Moses willingly left his home and his family for the good of all of the Hebrew people (Exodus 2). He loved them so much that he was willing to place his own life in harms way for their good.

Leadership Sharing. There was one leadership practice that was difficult for Moses—that was empowering others. This was not a weakness in the sense that Moses was not willing to empower others. Rather, he wanted to serve the people so much that he simply did not think about appointing others to positions of authority (Exodus 18:14). When Jethro, Moses' father-in-law, saw that Moses was trying to serve every need, in every position, Jethro taught Moses a valuable leadership practice, that of empowering others.

Jethro told Moses:

> What you are doing is not good. You and the people with you will wear yourselves out, for the thing is too heavy for you; you are not able to perform it alone. Listen now to my voice; I will give you counsel, and God be with you! You shall represent the people before God, and bring their cases to God; and you shall teach them the statutes and the decisions, and make them know the way in which they must walk and what they must

> do. Moreover choose able men from all the people, such as fear God, men who are trustworthy and who hate a bribe; and place such men over the people as rulers of thousands, of hundreds, of fifties, and of tens. And let them judge the people at all times; every great matter they shall bring to you, but any small matter they shall decide themselves; so it will be easier for you, and they will bear the burden with you. If you do this, and God so commands you, then you will be able to endure, and all this people also will go to their place in peace. (Exodus 18:17-23)

Empowerment is the last leadership practice explained in the book of Exodus before God gave the Ten Commandments to Moses (Exodus 20) and then the Hebrew people entered the Promised Land (Exodus 32:13).

Jesus' Approach to Servant Leadership

Moses was not the perfect example for leaders to follow, but the servant leadership practices he presented serve as one Biblical foundation for government leaders. God did send one, however, that served as a perfect example for the role of servant leader – Jesus (1 Timothy 1:16).

The Bible stated the primary mission of Jesus was to "seek and save the lost" (Luke 19:10), and he performed this mission by serving the needs of others. Jesus did this through:

1. Healing (Mathew 4:23-24; Mark 2:1-12),
2. Raising people from the dead (Mark 5:37-43),
3. Delivering from evil spirits (Matthew 8:28-32; Mark 5:1-13), and
4. Feeding of the multitudes (Matthew 14:13-21; Mark 6:30-44).

Farling et al. (1999) posited servant leaders take to heart the needs of others. These leaders make the needs of others their highest priority responsibility. Jesus exemplified this model for leadership when he said, “Whoever would be great among you must be your servant, and whoever would be first among you must be your slave, even as the Son of man came not to be served but to serve, and to give his life a ransom for many” (Matthew 20:26-27).

The primary focus of Jesus’ leadership was on serving the needs of others, but he also illustrated other leadership practices relevant to servant leadership. These practices included valued people (Matthew 6:26; Matthew 10:31; Matthew 12:12; Luke 12:7; Luke 12:12; John 13:34), developed people by teaching (Matthew 11:1; Mark 4:1; Mark 6:2; Luke 11:1), built community (John 13:34; John 15:12; John 15:17), displayed authenticity (Mark 9:35; Luke 6:38; Luke 9:48), provided leadership (Matthew 7:24; John 5:36), and shared leadership (Matthew 28:19-20).

Ford (1993) posited Jesus is the greatest leader the world has ever known. This greatness came from His willingness to serve the needs of others.

The Evolving Leadership Approach

In 1934, Preston wrote about the “servantship” of leaders and the need for Christian leaders to become a “servant of Christ along with [those who worked] in the ranks” (1976, p. 4). Preston’s servant leadership approach went unnoticed until Greenleaf in his seminal essay “The Servant as Leader” (1973) coined the phrase “servant leadership.” Spears (1998) suggested the concept of servant leadership is the advent of a leadership approach that began from Greenleaf’s

reading of Hesse's (1956) *Journey to the East*. Leo, the main character in Hesse's book, was the servant of a band of travelers on an arduous quest. Hesse suggested that Leo is the bond that holds these travelers together, and when he leaves the group, the group falls apart. In the end, Hesse revealed that Leo is the servant that possesses the leadership skills that bind the group together. Greenleaf conjoined these two words—servant leadership—and began his life's long research on leadership.

Greenleaf began his leadership career with AT&T, retiring in 1964, and incorporating the Center for Applied Ethics, that later became The Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership (Spears, 1998). Before his death in 1990, Greenleaf's second career as author, teacher, and consultant popularized the leadership approach of servant leadership (Spears).

Greenleaf's search for those identified as servant leaders continues through Spears and The Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership. The work centers on a primary question: Who is a servant leader? Greenleaf and Spears (1998) attempted to answer the question by suggesting that a servant leader is a person who places an increased emphasis on others. A servant leader is a person who builds a sense of community from a holistic approach to work through a deep understanding of the spirit within the workplace (Greenleaf & Spears). Greenleaf (1977) further believed that a servant leader is:

> [a] servant first. … It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead. … The difference manifests itself in the care taken by the servant – first to

> make sure that other people's highest-priority needs are being served. The best test, and the most difficult to administer, is: Do those served grow as persons? Do they, while being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants? And, what is the effect on the least privileged in society; will they benefit or, at least, not be further deprived? (p. 13)

Greenleaf (1977) believed that for servant leaders, serving others is their internal driving force. That is, serving "another's highest priority needs" is the highest priority need for the servant leader (p. 14).

Spears (1998) identified ten key characteristics of the servant leader. These characteristics are:

1. Listening—Leaders have traditionally been valued for their communication and decision-making skills.
2. Empathy—The servant-leader strives to understand and empathize with others.
3. Healing—The healing of relationships is a powerful force for transformation and integration.
4. Awareness—General awareness, and especially self-awareness, strengthens the servant-leader.
5. Persuasion—Another characteristic of servant-leaders is reliance on persuasion, rather than on one's positional authority, in making decisions within an organization.

6. Conceptualization—Servant-leaders seek to nurture their abilities to "dream great dreams."
7. Foresight—Foresight is a characteristic that enables the servant-leader to understand the lessons from the past, the realities of the present, and the likely consequence of a decision for the future.
8. Stewardship—"Holding something in trust for another" (Block, 1993).
9. Commitment to the growth of people—Servant-leaders believe that people have an intrinsic value beyond their tangible contributions as workers. As such, the servant-leader is deeply committed to the growth of each and every individual within his or her institution.
10. Building community—The servant-leader senses that much has been lost in recent human history as a result of the shift from local communities to large institutions as the primary shaper of human lives. (Spears, 1998, pp. 5-8)

These ten key characteristics of servant leadership are not all inclusive, but they indicate the "power and promise that this concept offers to those who are open to its invitation and challenge" (Spears, 1998, p. 8). Spears and The Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership continue to promote the research to identify and refine the characteristics of servant-leadership and its viable leadership approach (Laub, 1999).

Modern Servant Leadership

Greenleaf is afforded the modern title, Father of Servant Leadership (Polleys, 2002). In addition to the title, Greenleaf is often quoted concerning servant leadership, and currently some 63 dissertations are held on file by ProQuest Digital Dissertations (Anonymous, 2002) that focus on the servant leadership approach. However, most of these dissertations are qualitative and theoretically based. Northouse (2000) posited, servant leadership lacks empirical research, yet, the limited number of research studies that are available purport servant leadership is a viable leadership approach (Brumback, 1999; Crabtree, 1999; Farling et al., 1999; Hill-Girard, 2000; Laub, 1999; Russell, 1999, 2000).

The growing interest, specific to servant leadership among popular press writers (Autry, 2001; Blanchard, Hybels, & Hodges, 1999; Carver, 1997; Hunter, 1998) revealed there is a need to conduct empirical research specific to the servant leadership approach, and more specifically to the leadership practices used by these leaders. C. Miller (1995) posited the characteristics used by servant leaders disclose a deeper sense of self; stating, “Servant leaders are task-centered” and their need to accomplish the “great tasks” is overwhelming (p. 10). These tasks are what a leader sees in his or her mind’s eye; the vision that for the future there is often a larger task than the leader can do by him or her self. Servant leaders tend to choose those challenges in life that will afford them the opportunity to look outside of themselves for the answers to their problem (C. Miller).

Kouzes and Posner (1995) posited leaders must inspire a shared vision—that is, the leaders must posses the ability to look outside of themselves and see into the organizational future and share this vision with others. This is the first challenge for leaders (Kouzes & Posner, p. 9). The other four leadership practices that Kouzes and Posner suggested are equally critical for effective leadership, including modeling the way, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart (p. 9). Laub (1999) posited a leader must:

1. Promote a shared vision,
2. Be a lifelong learner,
3. Use power to care for others' needs,
4. Build community and collaboration,
5. Be vulnerable, not promoting self,
6. Communicate honestly, and
7. Build up others. (p. 19)

Kouzes and Posner (1995) strived to provide those leadership practices that work best. Laub (1999) continued this search for leadership practices that are quantifiably specific to servant leadership.

Russell's (1999) research also searched for those practices that best align with the servant leadership approach. Russell revealed some 20 distinguishable attributes of servant leadership. These attributes are:

1. Vision,
2. Honesty,
3. Integrity,

4. Trust,
5. Service,
6. Modeling,
7. Pioneering,
8. Appreciation for others,
9. Empowerment,
10. Communication,
11. Credibility,
12. Competence,
13. Stewardship,
14. Visibility,
15. Influence,
16. Persuasion,
17. Listening,
18. Encouragement,
19. Teaching, and
20. Delegation. (p. 12)

Russell's (1999) research focused on five of these "functional attributes: (a) vision, (b) modeling, (c) pioneering, (d) appreciation for others, and (e) empowerment" (pp. 12-13). Likewise, this research study sought to examine those servant leadership characteristics, specifically, that displayed authenticity, valued people, developed people, built community, provided leadership, and shared leadership.

Providing Leadership Through a Shared Vision. Greenleaf (1977) posited vision is leadership foresight and the conceptualization of an organization's future. However, French, Bell, and Zawacki (2000) reminded leaders that visioning is not a new concept. Rather, it is a "renewed interest [that] has developed using interventions to look at trends projected into the future and their organizational implications" (pp. 32 - 33). Senge (1994) believed "the origin of the vision is much less important than the process whereby it comes to be shared" (p. 214). Kouzes and Posner (1995) suggested that a leader's perspective is "an ideal and unique image of the future" (p. 95).

This future look at an organization is a central role of leadership (Anderson, 1999; Bennett & Hess, 1992; Bennis & Nanus, 1997; Bisk, 2002; Cacioppe, 2000; Covey, 1991; Crume, 2000; DePree, 1997; Farling et al., 1999; Greenleaf, 1973, 1977; Greenleaf et al., 1996; Hickman, 1998; Kolzow, 1999; Kouzes & Posner, 1987, 1995; Levin, 2000; Manz, 1986; Nanus, 1996; Palano, 1997; Pruzan, 2001; Senge, 1994; Simon, 1947; Snyder & Graves, 1994; Wurschmidt, 1992). Perttula (2000) posited, "True leaders, whether in business, government, education or whatever sector, should have a clear vision of the common good and the means to promote it" (p. 171). Greenleaf (1977) stated visioning is "the prime leadership talent" (p. 32).

Visioning is a "regenerative process" that enables leaders to build for the future and unite the organization's members toward a shared goal (Gardiner & Mulkey, 1975; C. Miller, 1995; Snyder & Graves, 1994). Kouzes and Posner (1995) defined a vision as "an ideal and unique image of the future" (p. 95).

However, visioning is more than just an image—it is a process that enables leaders and organizational members to assemble a dream. Bennis and Nanus (1997) believed that a leader's vision "animates, inspirits [and] transforms purpose into action" (p. 29). Yet, this purpose is futile unless the leader is willing and able to share this vision with members of the organization and then empower others to move the organization in the direction of that vision (Hall & Thompson, 1980).

Anderson (1999) believed that a transformational law enforcement leader has the primary responsibility of creating and implementing an organizational vision. Yet, for servant leaders, this vision goes much further. Greenleaf et al. (1996) posited, a vision is not a mere dream. Rather, it is an opportunity for something great to happen. Greenleaf et al. stated, "for something great to happen there must be a great dream" (p. 337).

Developing People by Modeling the Way. Servant leadership builds from a holistic approach that includes modeling behaviors of service to others (Greenleaf et al., 1996). Greenleaf et al posited leaders accomplish this through a model that puts serving others—including employees, customers, and community—as the number one priority.

Modeling, however, is more than a leader's intent to place the needs of others as the number one priority. Bass (1990) stated, "People are more attentive and active in organizing what is to be learned if they are provided with models to follow" (p. 824). A visible example of the way others should live their lives is what Kouzes and Posner (1997) said is the model for how we should treat one

another. Jesus posited we should be a living example for others to follow when he stated, “So whatever you wish that men would do to you, do so to them; for this is the law and the prophets” (Matthew 7:12).

Each person learns from the guidance of others. Vygotsky’s *Theory of Contextualism* (as cited in P. Miller, 1999) believed that humans create and master themselves from the outside, from mimicking the behaviors of others. Bandura’s (1977) *Social Learning Theory* and subsequent work of Miller both posited reinforcement is not necessary for learning, but humans learn best by focusing on more experienced peers to influence and shape their own behaviors.

We, as humans, view the world around us and imitate the attributes of others that seem most appealing. Russell (1999) posited, “modeling, [is] the form of a visible personal example, [it] is an important part of servant leadership” (p. 20). The leader must be the quintessential model for his or her organization to follow (Beu & Buckley, 2001; Nanus, 1996; Shockley-Zalabak, Ellis, & Winograd, 2000; Snyder & Graves, 1994; Spears, 1998; Wurschmidt, 1992).

Displaying Authenticity with a Pioneering Spirit. Nehemiah was a pioneering leader through his exhibition of “keen foresight” (Sanders, 1967, p. 154). However, looking into the future is but one of the characteristics of a pioneering leader. The other characteristic is the willingness to move forward into uncharted territories. Calculating the risks involved in the pioneering decision is “where … spiritual dimension really matters” (Engstrom & Dayton, 1976, p. 152). The pioneering spirit is where action begins. It is where leadership “deals with the future—entails risk, and the [leader] who sees things whole will be the first to

accept that risk and make the necessary leap of imagination" (Greenleaf & Spears, 1998, p. 230).

Kouzes and Posner (1997) stated, "leaders search for opportunities to change the status quo" (p. 4). Leaders move an organization to the next level through innovation, experiment, and risk taking. The leader's imagination is the foresight that allows him or her to travel into uncharted territory where the sense of autonomy can stretch the limits of a chosen profession (Bass, 1990).

Yukl (2001) argued that employees will resist change within the organization. Sanders (1994) concurred, but reminded the reader that there is a requirement for leaders, that they have "courage of the highest order" (p. 59). Pioneering leaders are known as "the growing-edge people … those who are most open to knowledge and who are living as if the future is now" (Greenleaf et al., 1996, p. 46). Bass (1990) posited, pioneers are "innovators, initiators, risk takers, and high achievers" (p. 734), and this drive to accomplish those things that have never been tried before is what draws people to join the organization.

Russell (1999) posited there is a need for servant leaders to be pioneers—these are people who strive to become leaders that guide organizations to the next higher level and achieve extraordinary success.

Valuing Others. Appreciation for others is another way of saying *love one another*. Batten (as cited in Spears, 1998), writing about the attributes of servant leadership, stated "work is love made visible" (p. 38) and servant leaders appreciate others for their similarities and diversities. Kouzes and Posner (1987) posited love is the secret ingredient for leadership success. Anderson (1999)

stated, love is “encouragement, loyalty, teamwork, commitment, and respect[ing] the dignity and worth of others and claim[s] it is an affair of the heart and not of the head” (p. 64).

Gideon understood this concept and opted to serve rather than rule over others (Judges 8:22). He believed that his gift was to make the people safe, their lives easy and happy, and chose not to make himself great. He cared deeply for others. Great leadership, then, is an aspiration to serve (Mitchell, 1999; Nardoni, 2000) those whom one loves (Matthew 7:20-26).

Rinehart (1998) noted John the Apostle “wrote [in the Bible] and spoke about love and its preeminent importance among God’s people and their leaders” (pp. 96-97). “Our relationships are to be grounded in love – in an expression of self-giving” (p. 96). Thus, servant leaders appreciate, value, and care for others (Greenleaf, 1977; Kouzes & Posner, 1995). Servant leaders care for the development of the organizational members and as such, the leader serves as a model to teach employees to be “all they can be” (Winston, 1999, p. 76). Then, the leader can empower others toward greatness.

Sharing Leadership. Drucker (1996) stated “Lincoln chose his general for his tested ability to win battles and not for his sobriety, that is, for the absence of a weakness” (p. 72). A leader gives power to others to complete the organization’s mission. This empowerment requires using those who do not fall into the organizational “boxes” of leadership, solely for decentralizing operational authority (Heckscher & Donnellon, 1994). True leaders must build trust in others

and empower them with certain power and authority. This should not be unbridled trust, rather, trust through inspection (Höpfl, Luther, & Calvin, 1991).

Hickman (1998) stated empowerment is “a function of four important variables. These four variables are: authority, resources, information, and accountability” (p. 304). These variables require leaders to empower others. This is accomplished by providing the leader with power over others, the necessary tools, equipment, material and supplies, and the necessary information to accomplish the organizational goals. Then the leader is held responsible for the outcome. Simply stated, empowerment is the ability of a leader to “enable others to act” (Kouzes & Posner, 1997, p. 4).

How does a leader do this? Rinehart (1998) answered this question when he says leaders must share the role of leadership and teach others to take on this role. Preston (1976) stated leaders are to empower others to learn to do a “worthy thing by actually doing it” (p. 68). She gave leaders the following aim:

1. Enlist in the organization all prospects who rightfully should be there and seek to hold them.
2. Instruct them in the privileges of Christian life and doctrine.
3. Inspire them to improve their own accomplishments, to compare themselves today with what they did a month ago, a year ago.
4. Guide them into practical service activities which affect everyday living.
5. Encourage them to keep on with Christian service in spite of discouragements and handicaps.

6. Stimulate intellectual activity on their part while they are in the plastic stage, and watch for the responses.
7. Provide a counter-attraction for worldly amusements.
8. Build well-rounded Christian character.
9. Offer opportunities for wholesome comradeships.
10. Assist them in becoming intelligent world citizens.
11. Train for future leadership.
12. Aid in the selection of lifework.
13. Win the lost. (p. 68)

Each of these points strives to develop employees "to take more responsibility for their own destiny, it must encourage the development of internal commitment" (French et al., 2000, p. 453). Bandura (1977) suggested there are four ways leaders can empower others:

1. Positive emotional support,
2. Words of encouragement,
3. Observing models of success, and
4. Actual experience of task mastery. (p. 80)

Each of these points, according to Daft (1998) provides employees with the knowledge and information needed to make a decision and then the employees are "trusted to act in the best interest of the company" (p. 566).

Law Enforcement Leadership

Why does the servant leadership approach work for law enforcement leaders? The simple answer to this question begins with a quick look at the

police cars in your community. Often, decals are easily located on the side of patrol cars across the United States displaying the words “To Protect and *Serve* [italics added].” This is the basic premise of servant leadership – the concept of serving the needs of others.

Servant Leadership is an approach that “takes center stage” (Daft, 1998, p. 23), and as leaders serve the needs of their employees, the employees will in turn serve the needs of the customer. For law enforcement, the customers are the citizens who live, work, and travel in and through their respective communities.

However, the structure of most law enforcement organizations remains locked in the paradigm of a paramilitary structure that places emphasis on a top down authoritarian leadership approach (Stone & DeLuca, 1985), and without empirical leadership research specific to law enforcement leaders, this paradigm will be difficult to change (Geller, 1985).

Early American Policing

American police departments were first created in the 19th century, beginning in 1838 with the Boston, Massachusetts Police Department, then 1844, the New York City Police Department, followed by Philadelphia, Pennsylvania Police Department in 1856 (Stone & DeLuca, 1985). As of the 2000 U.S. Census some 17,360 law enforcement agencies represent campus, university, municipal, county, and state police departments, sheriff’s departments, and federal police agencies.

Kelling et al. (1989) characterized the early period of policing as the political era. This period symbolized the time when the political agendas of elected officials were the driving force that controlled the managers of police departments. During this early period, the position of police chief required nothing more than *managers* who were willing to submit to the political pressures of these elected officials without question (Turner, 1997).

Wrobleski and Hess (1997) suggested that during this time, managers were expected to comply with the desires of elected officials and these chiefs of police had lost focus of their role as organizational leaders. Furthermore, these managers did not understand how to provide leadership to their respective organizations due to the repressive political pressures. These political pressures were replete with immoral influence, corruption, patronage, and nepotism (Wrobleski & Hess).

During the early years of policing, the police chiefs were required to concentrate on “crime prevention, crime control, order maintenance, running soup lines, providing lodging for the homeless, and even finding employment for the rapidly growing immigration population” (Turner, 1997, p. 3). These police chiefs were responsible for the afflicted members of society, to keep the immoral, unjust, and unwanted from the rest of the community, and not until the end of the 1920’s did society see a need for police reform (Turner).

These reformers, a small group of young police officials, began calling for true leadership among police chiefs (Stone & DeLuca, 1985). These young men (because at the time women were not employed as police chiefs) were in political

positions to change the role of law enforcement administrator to a new role, that of law enforcement leader, and this reform changed the world of policing (Stone & DeLuca). It marked the end of the outdated paradigm of management by intimidation and dawned the beginning of an early form of leadership through service (Stone & DeLuca).

Turner (1997) suggested that preventative police patrols, rapid response, crime control, and criminal apprehension were the new form of policing resulting from the reform since the 1920s. “Police executives of this era became professional bureaucrats who attempted to make their role separate and distinct from the corrupting influences of both politicians and citizens” (Turner, p. 9). This new model of leadership sought to achieve a higher level of service by creating a professional relationship with the communities that these leaders served (Kappeler, 1995).

Since the change from management to leadership, however, little empirical research among law enforcement leaders has been performed (Geller, 1985; Koehler & Pankowski, 1997). Geller posited the time has come for researchers to examine law enforcement leaders and identify the characteristics of these leaders through empirical research.

Modern Police Leadership

Field (2002) suggested times have, and continue to, change from the early political era of policing. This change directly affects leaders and the leadership challenges required within law enforcement today (Field). It is now time, according to Field, for chiefs of police to embrace this change and move the

current form of leadership to the next level. This next level, Field concedes, is not yet clear because of the lack of leadership research that focuses on law enforcement leaders and their practices that make them *great leaders*. However, he does posit police chiefs must be willing to participate in leadership research to learn as much about a new leadership approach as possible, and then, these leaders must be willing to implement this approach, whatever it may be, for the betterment and professionalism of law enforcement.

Over the last 50 years, national commissions have cited deficiencies in local police agencies, and have recommended the police chief executives provide “true leadership” to overcome these inadequacies (Mayo, 1983). However, few researchers have provided the empirical data for these leaders to draw from, creating a void in the research literature.

Leadership research among law enforcement is virtually non-existent (Mayo, 1983). Brewer and Hazlette (2002) concurred with Mayo, stating Corporate America continues to cultivate and develop leaders, but the government has done little to develop leaders and has done even less to produce empirical research among this segment of leaders.

Geller (1985) posited for more than 50 years, only two textbooks were available for police chiefs to learn about leadership theory within their own profession. Hunt and Magenau (1993) concurred with Geller’s assessment and found that little empirical data defining a police chief’s role is available. Hunt and Magenau concluded that “not much is known about police chiefs” (p. 3).

The call for research remained virtually unanswered, and the literature remained sparse. With so little data available to draw from, this research project required spanning across many disciplines to draw inference to applicable practices relevant to the law enforcement leader and serves as a catalyst for future research.

Prior Law Enforcement Leadership Studies

The Bible separated the position of peacemaker from other professions and mandated communities to:

> Appoint judges and officers in all your towns which the Lord your God gives you, according to your tribes; and they shall judge the people with righteous judgment. [Officers] shall not pervert justice; [officers] shall not show partiality; and [officers] shall not take a bribe, for a bribe blinds the eyes of the wise and subverts the cause of the righteous. Justice, and only justice, you shall follow, that you may live and inherit the land which the Lord your God gives you. (Deuteronomy 16:18)

Yet, since the time of this mandate, researchers have conducted few studies on the leadership practices required for this position.

Prior leadership research among law enforcement (Anderson, 1999; Downs, 1999; Turner, 1997; Turriff, 1997; Villarreal-Watkins, 2000) attempted to compare the leadership practices of for-profit organizations with those of government leaders, and these efforts do not specifically strive to identify the leadership practices most commonly associated with law enforcement leaders. Koehler and Pankowski (1997) concluded, however, that researchers cannot

correlate the practices of governmental leaders with those of their for-profit counterparts, stating this is a veiled attempt because research indicates there is a significant difference between the practices of those who lead government agencies and those who lead for-profit organizations.

There was a need for leadership research specific to law enforcement leaders. Fosdick (1969) posited the qualities of the police chief executive require a person who is policy minded, methodical, and takes responsibility for the performance of the employees. The leader must be organized. Fosdick stated the leader must be capable of handing complex functions, and eager to learn. Yet, above all, the leader must be able to maneuver between the needs of the employees, the political powers, and the community with relative ease. Fosdick stated this leader would be a “superman” if he or she were able to fulfill all of these requirements.

Saunders (1970) believed there is little doubt that police administration demands high standards in leadership.

Wurschmidt (1992) posited there remains a gap in the leadership literature for law enforcement leaders to identify their specific leadership characteristics. Wurschmidt believed the literature focuses on what law enforcement leaders should do rather than the leadership practices of a *great* leader.

Ortmeier (1996) strived to identify the leadership competencies associated with the community oriented policing initiative. This Delphi study concluded that the paramilitary structure of law enforcement organization is in need of change, and “Leadership of this character is not likely to develop on its own” (p. 99).

Anderson's (1999) research focused on *Transformational Leadership* and concluded that law enforcement leaders should develop leadership practices that sought "to bring peace to neighborhoods rather than fight endless, costly, and fruitless wars on crime" (p. 365).

Leonard and More (2000) stated:

> Leadership is the most important single factor in the success or failure of police operations. Invariably in observing a successful police organization one finds a strong executive who has been the driving force in elevating the level of performance. Conversely, where mediocrity or failure characterizes the work of a police organization, it generally can be traced to incompetence in management. The fundamental basis for the success of a police enterprise is to be found in the ideas and efforts of the police chief executive. (p. 28)

Leonard and More's research, however, does not identify those practices of law enforcement leaders used by successful leaders.

More recent research on law enforcement leadership in Sweden by Elefalk's (2001) suggested that law enforcement leaders should employ a "Total Quality Management" leadership approach for their organizations, stating it is the leadership style needed for today. Officers who participated in Elefalk's research indicated that Total Quality Management improved the analysis, planning, management, and follow-up of the work performed by law enforcement in Sweden. This research gleaned much about the organizational aspects of a management approach by examining all organizational members at a systems

level, but did not focus on the leadership practices employed specifically by the law enforcement leaders.

Zeller's (2001) research focused on law enforcement organizations at an even larger scale. He suggested there is a lack of cooperation between law enforcement agencies, and further concludes there is a serious communication problem that can only be remedied by strong leaders who are willing and able to break the walls of jurisdictional turf wars. Zeller's research, however, focused on the organizational component, that of communication between different agencies and not specifically on the leadership practices used to guide a single organization.

Measuring Servant Leadership

In 1999, Farling et al set the stage for empirical research to identify the characteristics of servant leadership. This research was based on the principles, values, and beliefs that the leader possesses. At the time, no research instrument was available to determine whether a leader was a 'servant-leader'.

Russell (1999) followed this empirical study by exploring the servant leadership approach using two validated research instruments—Kouzes and Posner's (1997) Leadership Practices Inventory in conjunction with Hall and Tonna's (1986, 1998) Inventory of Values. Again, these two existing instruments did not provide the necessary information to clearly identify a leader as a "servant-leader." However, Russell's research did identify twenty distinguishable attributes, including eight functional attributes used by servant-leaders. These

functional attributes include vision, credibility, trust, service, modeling, pioneering, appreciation for others, and empowerment.

Page and Wong (2000) developed an instrument for measuring the conceptual framework of servant leadership. This instrument was derived from research that lists twenty-two servant leadership keys identified as:

1. Purpose – The mission of the organization must have a larger purpose – something beyond producing goods or services or even being the Best. Employees want to feel instinctively that their work is making a positive difference.
2. Ownership – Employees want to view themselves as having a part in shaping how their work is to be done.
3. Fit – Once employees know how they and their work fit into the larger mission of the organization they are more willing to put forth their best efforts.
4. Openness – When there is a prevailing sense that “we’re all in this together,” working relationships become more collaborative.
5. Relationship building – The workplace should offer ways to build healthy interpersonal relationships that foster loyalty to the institution and its team members in promoting their collective efforts.
6. Service – Employees enjoy learning from and helping one another. This can be fostered through formal mentoring or training programs or more informal on the spot coaching or assisting with a project.

7. Equality – All people in the organization are considered to be equally important regardless of their position and treated as such.
8. Validation – Employees can see for themselves the impact of their work and be affirmed for it.
9. Invention – Risk taking in the name of innovation is encouraged and failures are the price of learning rather than the reason for dismissal.
10. Personal development – People are able to reach their full potential through learning and expanded job opportunities.
11. Acknowledgement – Employees are recognized for their efforts and successes through genuine appreciation.
12. Balance – Employers respect the fact that there's life beyond work when making assignments.
13. Challenge – The workplace is seen as an opportunity to take on challenges for those who want them.
14. Dialogue – There is an ongoing, honest, and constructive dialogue involving people at all levels of the organization as well as significant suppliers and customers.
15. Direction – There is a compelling vision that draws people into a common direction.
16. Flexibility – Good judgment is used in applying rules.
17. Informality – An open-door policy is practiced by everyone and protocol is not seen as a stumbling block.

18. Relevance – Red tape does not take people away from engaging in relevant activities.
19. Respect – Employees show respect for one another regardless of their rank or title.
20. Self-identity – Individuality is encouraged and the organization respects the need of people to have their own space in which to work.
21. Support – Employees are given the resources (information, time, funding, experience, learning opportunities, tools, etc.) they need to succeed in their work.
22. Worth – Employees are genuinely valued and their interests are taken into account when decisions are made. (Page & Wong, pp. 7-9)

Page and Wong's (2000) instrument focuses on four broad leadership domains. They include personality, relationship, task, and process. Page and Wong's initial instrument required respondents to provide 200 responses. Page and Wong have pared the instrument down to 100 items (Dennis & Winston, 2002, p. 7). The categories have been further combined by Page and Wong into twelve groupings, that include: "Integrity, Humility, Servanthood, Caring for Others, Empowering Others, Developing Others, Visioning, Goal-Setting, Leading, Modeling, Team Building, and Shared Decision-Making" (p. 89).

Organizational Leadership Assessment

Laub (1999) first constructed The Servant Organizational Leadership Assessment in his dissertation work at Florida Atlantic University. Later he changed the name of the research instrument to the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) to alleviate any bias of the respondent.

The instrument was constructed using a Delphi study by developing a testable definition of servant leadership. Through Laub's (1999) research, he constructed an instrument to assess the characteristics of servant leadership. Laub suggested that the OLA is used to predict whether an organization uses servant leadership characteristics.

The OLA measured six attributes that Laub (1999) suggested are associated with servant leadership. These six attributes are:

1. Values People,
2. Develops People,
3. Builds Community,
4. Displays Authenticity,
5. Provides Leadership, and
6. Shares Leadership. (pp. 46-48)

The OLA provided the basis for determining whether the organizational leader is or is not a servant leader. Laub's (1999) research field tested the instrument, receiving 828 responses from 41 organizations representing six different categories: religious, business for profit, education, government, community service, and medical service providers.

For the purpose of this research study, Laub's 60-response statements of the OLA were used without any additions, changes, or modifications. In addition, seven of the eight demographic questions are used from Laub's (1999) research. The one change from the demographic questions is "Type of organization." This research study focused on law enforcement leaders so this one question is changed to indicate the specific type of law enforcement organization.

Other studies that use the OLA include: Horsman's (2001) "Perspectives of Servant-Leadership and Spirit in Organizations" and Braye's (2000) *Servant-Leadership: Belief and Practice in Women-led Businesses.* The OLA instrument has a 1998 copyright, and Laub has granted permission to use the instrument (see Appendix C).

Summary

Leadership played a significant role in the "creation, survival, growth, and decay of organizations" (Conger & Kanungo, 1998, p. 3). However, during the past century little empirical research was conducted on law enforcement leadership. Furthermore, little empirical research focused on leadership practices. To date, there has not been much research on the leader's practices and how these practices affect the organization to achieve extraordinary success.

Leadership theorists have examined Total Quality Management (Elefalk, 2001) and Transformational Leadership (Anderson, 1999) to determine the leadership approach of law enforcement leaders, and Ortmeier (1996) conducted a Delphi study to determine the best leadership characteristics for community

oriented police officers. The limited number of studies, however, served as a call for additional research among this segment of leaders.

Servant leadership is a viable solution for law enforcement leaders. Farling et al (1999) posited, servant leadership serves the highest priority needs of others, and in today's world, personal security and safety are high priority needs. Leadership cannot serve the needs of others unless it develops a shared vision, models the way, has a pioneering spirit, appreciates others, and empowers others to achieve extraordinary success (Kouzes & Posner, 1995; Laub, 1999; Russell, 1999). Like the Biblical example of Moses, leaders must understand and implement each of these characteristics.

The literature review accomplished two specific objectives: (a) It provided an historical context for servant leadership, building on prior research to identify the leadership practices of successful leaders; and (b) it examined law enforcement leadership and current research, especially the void of empirical research, to determine if servant leadership is the leadership approach for law enforcement leaders to achieve extraordinary success. This literature review identified the need for empirical research of servant leadership and the empirical research of law enforcement leadership practices.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHOD

The purpose of this study was to further examine the reliability of the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) research instrument and the presence of servant leadership practices derived from this instrument, focusing on Law Enforcement leaders.

The questions for this research study were:

1. What reliability does Laub's Organizational Leadership Assessment demonstrate?
2. What leadership practices do law enforcement leaders use as measured by the Organizational Leadership Assessment?
3. Is there a perception gap—a difference between the law enforcement leader's view of the organizational leadership characteristics and the workers' view of the organizational leadership characteristics?

Research Design

A survey research design was proposed for this study. Mark (1996) suggested that this is the most rigorous method. He stated, "With the survey approach, participants are asked to report on their problems, needs, and patterns of service use" (p. 238). Mark posited a standard survey may involve hundreds of individuals "to study broad social phenomena, such as public opinion; differences between men and women; and differences among large groups of people" (p. 166). In this study, the standardized questionnaire is the OLA (Laub, 1999).

Girden (1996) suggested there are two crucial aspects of surveys. They are, “the development of a valid and reliable questionnaire and selection of the sample” (p. 60). Understanding that the intent of this research is to generalize the results of the responding population, a minimum of a representative sample from the responding agencies was used.

The main drawback to a survey, according to Girden (1996), is that “people are not always willing to respond to the questionnaire” (p. 61). What began as a representative sampling does not always conclude as a representative sampling. In addition, there may be a divergence between those who respond to the survey and those who do not (Girden).

Fink (1998) suggested a survey is a systematic means to gather, record, and process information about a specific topic. Babbie (1990) suggested the survey research instrument “provides an excellent vehicle for the development of useful methods” to understand complex concepts (p. 47). Since the data is collected at one point with different subgroups, the survey produces cross-sectional survey results (Babbie).

Explanation of the OLA

Laub (2001) posited the OLA is designed to be taken by people at all levels of the organization, from the top leadership, to managers, supervisors, and the workforce. The instrument allowed the user to gather information from the people of the organization as to their perception concerning the presence of servant leadership characteristics within their organizations. Laub (1999)

suggested there are four reasons for developing a single instrument that analyzes servant leadership characteristics within an organization. They are:

1. Servant leadership assumes a shared leadership; therefore the presence of servant leadership characteristics in an organization or team is an issue that everyone in an organization is responsible for.
2. With this instrument, leadership as well as the entire organization is assessed by people from various levels or positions in the organization. By comparing these different groups through analysis of their responses, it becomes possible to determine if top leadership, management and the workforce share the same perceptions about the presence of these characteristics within the organization and within the leadership.
3. The format of designing the instrument to be taken by everyone in the organization will help to overcome some of the problems inherent in leadership self-assessments. The issue of social desirability often forces leaders to answer questions in ways that may be expected rather than more honest or accurate responses.
4. Top leadership and management may not be aware of the true impact, positive or negative, they have on the people of the organization. This instrument allows them to hear from all parts of the group in order to assess how their leadership characteristics and practices are measured against those of servant leadership. (pp. 49-50)

These characteristics are organized into the following model by Laub (1999) (see Table 3).

Table 3

Laub's Servant Organizations Leadership Assessment Delineation

Servant Organizations	
Display Authenticity	• By being open and accountable to others • By a willingness to learn from others • By maintaining integrity and trust
Value People	• By trusting people • By serving others first • By receptive listening
Develop People	• By providing opportunities for learning and growth • By modeling appropriate behavior • By building up others through encouragement and affirmation
Build Community	• By building strong personal relationships • By working collaboratively with others • By valuing the differences of others
Provide Leadership	• By envisioning the future • By taking initiative • By clarifying goals
Share Leadership	• By facilitating a shared vision • By sharing power and releasing control • By sharing status and promoting others

The instrument is divided into three separate sections: (a) assessing the entire organization, (b) assessing the leadership of the organization, and (c) assessing both from the perspective of the respondent's personal experiences (Laub, p. 51). A copy of the research instrument is attached (see APPENDIX C).

Reliability and Validity of the OLA

The OLA is a tool for research specifically designed to measure the health of the organization and the servant leadership characteristics. Organization 5 and Organization 6 of the OLA both denote the presence of servant leadership within organizations. The OLA has a high reliability of .98 and has been field tested with over 75 different organizations (Laub, 2001).

The OLA is based on the six areas and 18 characteristics of the servant organization that came out of Laub's (1999) original research. In his research, a 3-part Delphi process was utilized with a group of 14 experts in the field of servant leadership. This group, including such experts as Kouzes, Spears, Williams and Millard, came to consensus on 60 characteristics of servant leadership during the development of this research instrument.

Laub's (1999) research indicated that his 60-statement Organizational Leadership Assessment has a reliability score of .9802 using a Cronbach-Alpha coefficient (p. 66). "A reliability coefficient of .80 or higher is considered as 'acceptable' in most Social Science applications" (Anonymous, n.d., ¶ 1). Horsman's (2001) study resulted in a Cronbach-Alpha coefficient of .9870, and his study further supports the reliability constructs for Laub's OLA instrument. Table 4 illustrates the reliability scores from both Laub's and Horsman's research.

Table 4

Laub and Horsman's Cronbach-Alpha Correlation Analysis of the OLA

OLA Instrument	Laub (alpha) .9802 (Field test)	Horsman (alpha) .9870
Six OLA Constructs		
Values People	.91	.92
Develops People	.90	.94
Builds Community	.90	.91
Displays Authenticity	.93	.95
Provides Leadership	.91	.92
Shares Leadership	.93	.95

Note. Construct scores are rounded to the second decimal.

(Horsman, 2001, p. 100)

Laub (1999) stated, "The current validity of the underlying constructs is strong based on the Delphi process and the participation of the panel of experts" (p. 87). Horsman's (2001) research study affirms Laub's assertion.

Verifying the Applicability of the OLA

The researcher established the applicability of the six constructs of the Organizational Leadership Assessment with the practices of law enforcement leaders. This was done by analyzing the literature on law enforcement leadership practices as applied to the six OLA constructs to ensure relevance (see APPENDIX A). This researcher tracked the number of times OLA constructs appeared in the law enforcement literature. Items appearing multiple times were included in the list. As a result of the analysis, all six of the OLA constructs were supported.

Sample

The researcher chose a single approach for identifying participating leaders among law enforcement agencies for this research study. A request for participants was placed on the International Association of Chiefs of Police website. Twelve agencies agreed to participate in the study. These agencies chose to participate in the leadership research using the OLA to validate the type of leadership practices used in their respective law enforcement agencies.

The researcher chose this method for identifying the sites for various reasons. The primary reason for choosing this method was due to law enforcement organizations, by their very nature, being closed to outsiders. The current state of the nation with the levels of security tend to preclude leaders of these organizations from allowing “outsiders” to look into the inner workings of their organizations. The researcher asked for volunteers to participate in this study to ensure adequate cooperation from leadership and their respective workforce.

Data Collection Procedures

Data collection began by asking each of the 12 agencies to submit to the OLA survey instrument. The researcher then asked the respondents to submit to the OLA for a second time. This type of research provided a retest analysis of each of the 12 organizations. The research analyzed the two scores to determine the overall health of the organizations as depicted in Table 4.

Table 5

Laub's "Workforce" score of the OLA

Raw Score	Organizational Description
0.00 to 1.9	Organization 1 – Toxic Organizational Health
2.0 to 2.9	Organization 2 – Poor Organizational Health
3.0 to 3.4	Organization 3 – Limited Organizational Health
3.5 to 3.9	Organization 4 – Moderate Organizational Health
4.0 to 4.49	Organization 5 – Excellent Organizational Health
4.5 to 5.0	Organization 6 – Optimal Organizational Health

The use of the self-administered survey instrument aided the researcher in gathering information. The researcher made personal contact with each of the participating agencies to ensure sufficient response and to ensure that the agencies would return the surveys within the allotted time.

All participating agencies were provided instructions for completing the OLA. The instructions informed the agencies that their surveys would not be included in the final analysis if the respondents did not return the initial survey and the retest. The time allowed between the initial survey and the retest was two weeks. Mark (1996) stated:

> The interval between testings should be long enough so that study participants do not remember exactly how they responded the first time but not so long that the property being measured changes. Shorter intervals are appropriate for instruments measuring properties that can

> change easily, such as feelings and attitudes, and longer intervals are appropriate for instruments measuring relatively stable properties, such as IQ and achievement. (p. 287)

Two weeks seemed appropriate for this research study.

To ensure confidentiality to the individual participant, the researcher assigned code numbers to each of the questionnaires before distribution to the twelve agencies. The assigned numbers assisted in matching the respondent's answers from both the test and the retest results. In addition, the researcher assured the respondents that the identifying information, such as agency of employment, would be excluded from the final analysis of the data.

Demographic Variables

The demographic variables included: (a) Age, (b) Gender, (c) Race/Ethnicity, (d) Length of Time with Organization, (e) Educational Attainment, (f) Type of Agency (College/University, Municipal, County, and State).

Since law enforcement leaders are comprised of a mostly male and white population, sex and race were confounding variables that will need additional examination.

This research study focused on the leader of the law enforcement organization. Hatch (1997) posited "new comers or revolutionaries" are the only individuals who try to change organizations; established employees tend to align with the established trends of the organization. Adkins, Ravlin, and Meglino (1996) found congruence between the length of time in a position and the values employed by the leader. Likewise, this research expected to find that the length

of time as a law enforcement leader will influence the practices used by the law enforcement leader.

Data Analysis

Data from the OLA was analyzed using a statistical program—SPSS version 10. Individual leader and organizational relationships were explored and the analysis revealed whether law enforcement organizations are servant-led or whether the leader of the organization has a dangerously positive perception of the organizations health. Univariate statistics including the mean, standard deviation, and number of valid cases for each variable was included in the data analysis for reliability of the instrument.

Reliability analysis using SPSS was performed to examine any significant overlaps between the demographic characteristics from the responding law enforcement leaders and the workforce. Reliability analysis allowed the researcher to provide information about the relationships between individual items in the data (Anonymous, n.d.). Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to determine the internal consistency for each of the subgroups and to determine the total reliability of the OLA. The purpose for this analysis was to determine if the OLA is a reliable instrument for the measurement of leadership descriptions, specifically servant leadership. Additionally, the Cronbach alpha determined the effect of weakly correlated items within each factor and the entire instrument. Kline (1993) suggested that the alpha should be at least 0.9 but not less than 0.7 for satisfactorily reliability.

To determine the reliability of the instrument over time, respondents from the original sample group were asked to participate in a retest approximately 2 weeks after the first test. Using the paired scores, the test-retest reliability determined each subscore and the total OLA score. Kline (1993) suggested that the test-retest correlation should be at least 0.8 for satisfactorily reliability (p. 9).

Summary

The purpose of this study was to further examine the reliability of the OLA research instrument and the presence of servant leadership practices derived from this instrument focusing on law enforcement leaders.

Anderson (1999), Geller (1985), and Koehler and Pankowski (1997) all called for research among law enforcement leaders and their respective leadership behaviors to identify the practices perceived as most important to this segment of leaders. This research examined the reliability of the OLA to study the importance of the organization's health and to determine whether an organization is servant led.

Koehler and Pankowski (1997) stated there is a dire need for this research. Senge (1994) suggested society must change to respond to the uncertainty of our modern times, and this research suggests that servant leadership is a viable alternative. The Bible concluded that we, as humankind, must put the needs of others before our very own – stating, "love your neighbor as yourself" (Matthew 19:19). When leaders put the needs of others before their own, they are promoting the premise of servant leadership.

Farling et al. (1999), Laub (1999), and Russell (1999) began the search to identify the true servant leader—what better place to continue this search than with those who *Serve and Protect* [emphasis added]. The Bible posited, “Blessed are the peacemakers, for they shall be called sons of God” (Matthew 5:9). This research continued to explore the practices of leaders who are blessed by God in the service of making peace.

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to further examine the reliability of the OLA research instrument and the presence of servant leadership practices derived from this instrument focusing on law enforcement leaders. To this end, this research focused on three primary questions:

1. What reliability does Laub's Organizational Leadership Assessment demonstrate?
2. What leadership practices do law enforcement leaders use as measured by the Organizational Leadership Assessment?
3. Is there a perception gap—a difference between the law enforcement leader's view of the organizational leadership characteristics and the workers' view of the organizational leadership characteristics?

This chapter is divided into the following sections:

1. Description of the sample.
2. Analysis of the research questions with regards to the findings.

Description of the Sample

In total, 25 police agencies of various sizes were invited to participate in this study. Twelve of the agencies agreed to participate (48% of the agencies); nine agencies returned survey instruments, a 36% response rate. The participating agencies were from Georgia (3 agencies), New Jersey (1 agency), Nebraska (1 agency), New Hampshire (1 agency), Pennsylvania (1 agency),

Alabama (1 agency), and Oklahoma (1 agency). The data from one agency was excluded from the final analysis of the data because the respondents returned the initial survey instruments and did not return the retest. Those agencies that responded to both OLA surveys for a “test/retest” analysis were included in this analysis. This type of analysis is important to determine the reliability of the OLA over time, and it helps to validate the type of organizational health among the participating agencies.

A total of 792 participants were identified by the 12 agencies and 1,584 surveys were distributed. Of the 1,584 surveys sent to the 12 police departments, 263 respondents returned 466 surveys. The 466 surveys represent 260 surveys from OLA 1, the test, and 206 from OLA 2, the retest. The return rate for the distributed surveys was 27.21%.

These surveys were further arranged in pairs, correlating each of the surveys from OLA 1, the test, with its matching pair from OLA 2, the retest. The purpose of pairing the two surveys was to determine the Bivariate Correlation and the Reliability (Pearson’s R) of the Organizational Leadership Assessment over time. This type of analysis relies on the results of both the test and retest returned by the same respondent. A total of 138 surveys from the test and 138 surveys from the retest were used for this analysis.

The respondents provided information for five personal demographic questions and three questions referring to organizational demographics. The personal demographics provided information on gender, age, ethnicity/race, and education.

There are five variables for age shown in Table 6. The largest group—those respondents between 31 and 40 years of age—represented 44.2% of the total. The next largest group was between 41 and 50 years of age with 25.36% of the sample responding. The smallest group of respondents was the category of 51 to 60 years of age that represented only 7.9%. There were no respondents representing the category “Over 60.”

The gender category, Table 6, showed that of 138 respondents approximately 81.16% were male. In addition, the category for Ethnicity/Race, also in Table 6, showed that 90.58% of the respondents were White/Caucasian. These figures represent an imbalance in gender—ethnicity/race mix to the extent that eight times more often White/Caucasian males participated in this research study. The disproportionate number of White/Caucasian males is due to the gender—ethnicity/race disparity within the organizations studied and within the profession.

The final personal demographic variable represented the six levels of Education, shown in Table 6. The majority of the respondents indicated a High School Education – 47.83%. Another 34.78% denote a Bachelors Degree.

There are three organizational demographic variables shown in Table 6. These variables represent Type of Organization, Size of Organization, and Tenure.

There are six variables for Type of Organization shown in Table 6. Two types of organizations participated in this research study—Municipal Police Departments and County Police Departments. Municipal Police Departments

attributed 63.77% of the total respondents, and County Police Departments were represented by 36.23%.

The size of the organization, shown in Table 6, indicated that of 138 respondents approximately 44.2% of the respondents were from organizations with less than 25 officers. This demographic information is consistent with the information provided by Reeves and Goldberg (1997) that denotes that the majority of the law enforcement organizations within the United States have less than 25 sworn police officers.

Table 6

Personal Demographic Information of the Respondents

Position	n	P
Top Leadership	8	5.71%
Management	37	26.43%
Workforce	93	66.43%
Subtotal	138	98.57%
Missing	2	1.43%
Total	140	100.00%
Age	n	P
Under 30	21	15.00
30 – 40	56	40.00
41 – 50	42	30.00
51 – 60	15	10.71
Subtotal	134	95.71

Missing	6	4.29
Total	140	100.00

Gender	n	P
Male	112	80.00
Female	14	10.00
Subtotal	126	90.00
Missing	14	10.00
Total	140	100.00

Ethnicity/Race	n	P
American Indian or Alaska Native	1	0.71
Black or African American	4	2.86
Hispanic or Latino	5	3.57
White/Caucasian	125	89.29
Subtotal	135	96.43
Missing	5	3.57
Total	140	100.00

Educational Level	n	P
High School Diploma/GED	67	47.86
Bachelors	46	32.86
Masters	1	0.71
Other (please specify)	8	5.71
Associates Degree	11	7.86
Subtotal	133	95.00

Missing	7	5.00
Total	140	100.00

Length of Time with Organization	n	P
Less than 1 year	11	7.86
1 - 2 years	17	12.14
3 - 5 years	25	17.86
5 - 7 years	21	15.00
7 - 10 years	16	11.43
10 - 15 years	12	8.57
15 to 20 years	16	11.43
Over 20 years	16	11.43
Subtotal	134	95.71
Missing	6	4.29
Total	140	100.00

Type of Organization	n	P
Municipal	88	62.86
County	50	35.71
Total	138	98.57
Missing	2	1.43
Total	140	100.00

Size of Organization	n	P
Under 25	61	43.57
25 – 50	41	29.29
	8	5.71

51 – 100		
201 – 300	14	10.00
Over 301	11	7.86
Subtotal	135	96.43
Missing	5	3.57
Total	140	100.00

Two different types of organizations participated in this study. County Police Departments represent 28.7% and Municipal Police Departments represent the remaining 71.3% as presented in Table 6.

Table 7

Position and Types of Participating Organization Comparison

	Type of Organization		
Position	Municipal	County	Total
Top Leadership	4	4	8
Management	26	11	37
Workforce	58	35	93
Total	88	50	138

The survey included four personal demographic questions and three questions referring to organizational demographics. The personal demographic questions referred to gender, age, education level, and race/ethnicity. The sample frequencies and percentages of personal demographics are presented in Table 8.

Table 8

Position and Gender Comparison

	Gender		
Position	Male	Female	Total
Top Leadership	8		8
Management	31	3	34
Workforce	73	11	84
Total	112	14	126

The category Gender, Table 8 showed that of 126 respondents 75.6% were male indicating an uneven gender mix to the extent that seven times more males participated in the study than did females. The noticeable disproportion of males to females is due to the gender imbalance within this profession.

Position and Ethnicity/Race is shown in Table 9.

Table 9

Position and Ethnicity/Race Comparison

	Ethnicity/Race				
Position	American Indian or Alaska Native	Black or African American	Hispanic or Latino	White/ Caucasian	Total
Top Leadership				8	8
Management		3	2	31	36
Workforce	*1*	1	3	86	91
Total	1	4	5	125	135

The Age variable comprises five age ranges.

Table 10 is a comparison of the position and age of each participant, with the highest number of responses from 30-40 year old workforce members.

Table 10

Position and Age Comparison

	Age				
Position	Under 30	30 - 40	41 - 50	51 - 60	Total
Top Leadership		2	4	2	8
Management	1	11	17	7	36
Workforce	20	43	21	6	90
Total	21	56	42	15	134

Table 11 shows the comparison between Position and Education.

Table 11

Position and Education Comparison

	Highest Degree Received					
Position	High School Diploma/GED	Associates	Bachelors	Masters	Other (please specify)	Total
Top Leadership	3		3			7
Management	21	1	11	1	2	35
Workforce	43	10	32		5	91
Total	67	11	46	1	8	133

A comparison of Position and length of time with the organization is presented in Table 12.

Table 12

Position and Organizational Tenure Comparison

	Length of Time with Organization								
Position	Less than 1 year	1 - 2 years	3 - 5 years	5 - 7 years	7 - 10 years	10 - 15 years	15 to 20 years	Over 20 years	Total
Top Leadership	1	1	6						8
Management	1	6	7	8	2	6	3	4	37
Workforce	9	10	12	13	14	6	13	12	89
Total	11	17	25	21	16	12	16	16	134

The final organizational demographic variable represents tenure. Table 12 indicates there is an equal distribution among the respondents with the amount of time they have worked with their current organization—an average of 12.5% for each variable.

Table 13

Position and Organizational Size Comparison

	Size of Organization					Total
Position	Under 25	25 - 50	51 - 100	201 - 300	Over 301	
Top Leadership	3		3	2		8
Management	15	8	4	5	4	36
Workforce	43	33	1	7	7	91
Total	61	41	8	14	11	135

Analysis of Research Question One

The first research question posed for this research study was: What reliability does Laub's OLA demonstrate?

Without question, both Laub (1999) and Horsman (2001) concluded the reliability of the OLA is significant (see Table 14). This research study, however, is an additional review of the OLA that provided a test/retest analysis of the instrument. The results of this research study further supports the reliability of the OLA to measure the organizational health to determine whether the perception of the leadership is that of a servant leader. Table 14 represents the Cronbach-Alpha results for Laub and Horsman's research and provides an analysis of the findings for this research.

The findings of this research study support the OLA instrument as a valid instrument and answer the first research question by indicating there is consistency with the use of the instrument.

Furthermore, the item-to-item correlations were computed for the entire OLA instrument. All items of the instrument were positive, and all were significant at $p < .01$. The lowest item-to-item correlation was .44 and the highest was .78 for the combined correlations between the test and the retest. The OLA instrument demonstrates consistent results between the two studies.

Table 14

Laub, Horsman, and Ledbetter's Cronbach-Alpha Correlation Analysis of the OLA

	Laub (alpha)	Horsman (alpha)	Ledbetter (alpha)
OLA Instrument	.9802	.9870	.9814
Six OLA Constructs	(Field test)		
Values People	.91	.92	.89
Develops People	.90	.94	.88
Builds Community	.90	.91	.89
Displays Authenticity	.93	.95	.90
Provides Leadership	.91	.92	.91
Shares Leadership	.93	.95	.88

Note: Construct scores are rounded to the second decimal.

From a sample of 138 respondents, the overall OLA instrument mean score for this study is 210.52 for the test, and 214.80 for the retest from a possible total score of 300 with a standard deviation of 39.16 for the test, and 36.76 for the retest. The mean is an important measure for this research study. The mean of the data surmises whether the entire group of organizations that participated in this study perceives law enforcement leadership among the responding agencies as servant led.

Table 15

A comparison of the OLA means and standard deviations for the Laub, Horsman, and Ledbetter studies

Study	M	SD	n
Laub (1999) field test	278.77	48.78	828
Laub (1999) revised instrument	223.79	41.08	828
Horsman (2001)	214.74	48.57	540
Ledbetter (Test)	210.52	39.16	138
Ledbetter (Retest)	214.80	36.76	138

The mean score for this research study is consistent with previous research by Laub (1999) and Horsman (2001).

The OLA is designed to assess servant leadership within the constructs of six subscales. These six subscales include:

1. Displays Authenticity,
2. Values People,
3. Develops People,
4. Builds Community,
5. Provides Leadership, and
6. Shares Leadership.

Table 16 provided an analysis of the test/retest of the six OLA subscales. Overall the test and the retest revealed the two most prominent subscales are: (a) Acts Authentically and (b) Shares Leadership—both of these subscales compete for the number one position between the test and retest. Each of the

subscales is very consistent with the standard deviation between the test and the retest of only .72 (test) and .723 (retest).

Table 16

The means and standard deviations of the six OLA subscales

Test	M	SD	n
Values People	34.77	6.55	136.00
Develops People	35.12	6.73	137.00
Builds Community	*35.59*	6.83	136.00
Acts Authentically	35.44	6.50	136.00
Provides Leadership	34.02	*7.57*	136.00
Shares Leadership	35.58	6.44	*136.00*
Retest	M	SD	n
Values People	35.62	6.09	136.00
Develops People	35.92	6.21	137.00
Builds Community	36.41	6.33	136.00
Acts Authentically	35.90	6.41	136.00
Provides Leadership	34.79	7.16	136.00
Shares Leadership	36.15	*6.23*	136.00

An analysis of Person's R correlations computed the six OLA subscales with a significant positive correlation at $p < .01$. There is a high correlation between all of the subscales, the lowest being .803 and the highest being .982. These correlations are higher than both Laub's (1999) field test - .736 to .892,

and Horsman's (2001) research - .813 to .934. The correlations indicated consistency between the subscales.

Analysis of Research Question Two

The second research question is: What leadership practices do law enforcement leaders use as measured by the Organizational Leadership Assessment?

The analysis of the data revealed one organization that scored higher than the other seven agencies on the OLA. This single law enforcement agency reported a mean of 243.9. This is a 4.065 Raw Score on the OLA and represents an organization that is in "Excellent Health" and defined by the OLA as a servant led organization. The remaining seven agencies have Positive Paternalistic leadership tendencies. When the results of this research study were examined against the data reported by Laub's (1999) research, these findings were typical.

Analysis of Research Question Three

The third research question asked: Is there a perception gap—a difference between the law enforcement leader's view of the organizational leadership characteristics and the workers' view of the organizational leadership characteristics?

An analysis of the mean indicated there is a gap in the perception of leaders and the workforce with regards to the overall organizational health. The analysis of the mean also indicated there is a perception gap between the leadership and management with regards to the overall organizational health.

Table 17 showed the mean of the leadership as 230.00, compared with the mean of management as 184.86 and the mean of the workforce as 200.62. The analysis of the mean of the retest indicated a perception gap between the workforce and the top leadership with a difference between the means of 29.38. The analysis showed a larger margin between the top leadership and management, a difference between the means of 45.14. The analysis does indicate there is differences in the way top leadership viewed their organization's health and the way management and the workforce viewed the health of the organization.

Table 17

Leadership versus Workforce Perception Gap Analysis

	Test		
	M	SD	n
Leadership	*230.00*	63.78	8
Management	184.86	56.67	37
Workforce	200.62	64.19	93
	Retest		
	M	SD	n
Leadership	*225.50*	58.30	8
Management	212.63	58.14	37
Workforce	222.50	59.18	93

This is an area that needs further examination.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATION

The purpose of this study was to further examine the reliability of the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) research instrument and the presence of servant leadership practices derived from this instrument, focusing on law enforcement leaders. To this end, this research focused on three primary questions.

1. What reliability does Laub's Organizational Leadership Assessment demonstrate?
2. What leadership practices do law enforcement leaders use as measured by the Organizational Leadership Assessment?
3. Is there a perception gap—a difference between the law enforcement leader's view of the organizational leadership characteristics and the workers' view of the organizational leadership characteristics?

This chapter provides answers to the three primary research questions, and is divided into three sections. The first section provides conclusions to the three research questions, the second section provides implications of the findings, and finally, the third section offers suggestions for future research.

Conclusions to the Research Questions

Laub (2002) provides a "score sheet" for the OLA (see Table 18). The data received for this research study indicates that there was only one organization whose raw score was above 4.0. The research study concludes that

one organization would be classified as a servant led organization. The remaining agencies are classified as Positive Paternalistic with a mean for all agencies of 210.52 for the test and 214.80 for the retest.

Table 18
Laub's "Workforce" Scores of the OLA

Raw Score	Organizational Description
0.00 to 1.9	Organization 1 – Toxic Organizational Health
2.0 to 2.9	Organization 2 – Poor Organizational Health
3.0 to 3.4	Organization 3 – Limited Organizational Health
3.5 to 3.9	Organization 4 – Moderate Organizational Health
4.0 to 4.49	Organization 5 – Excellent Organizational Health
4.5 to 5.0	Organization 6 – Optimal Organizational Health

These findings are significant because they indicate that a new kind of leadership is emerging within the responding law enforcement agencies – changing from an autocratic paramilitary leadership toward a leadership that serves the needs of the organization and the community.

A significant relationship exists between all six constructs of the characteristics of Servant Leadership developed by Laub (2002) for the OLA. The correlation between the Test and the Retest were significant and the findings indicate that the validity of the OLA remains consistent over time.

The personal and organizational demographics revealed a perception gap with regards to age and length of time with the organization. The personal and organizational demographics did not reveal a perception gap with regards to race/ethnicity, sex, level of education, size of the organization, or type of organization.

Research Question One

The first research question asked: What reliability does Laub's Organizational Leadership Assessment demonstrate?

The data from both the test and the retest revealed, overall, a mean of 210.52 for the test and a mean of 214.80 for the retest. A Bivariate Correlation indicated that both the test and the retest were significant at $p < .01$. The consistency of the results supported Laub's (2002) findings that the OLA is a valid and reliable instrument.

Although the sample for this research study was small, the consistency of the instrument remained high. Furthermore, the results were consistent with both Laub's (1999) initial field study and the subsequent study by Horsman's (2001).

Research Question Two

Research question two asked: What leadership practices do law enforcement leaders use as measured by the Organizational Leadership Assessment?

The results of the research support that for the responding law enforcement organizations the leadership practices used are "Positive Paternalistic." The analysis of the data provided a conclusion that the

respondents to both the test and the retest use all six practices as defined by Laub (1999) equally. The responding law enforcement leaders value people, develop people, build community, act authentically, provide leadership, and share leadership. The two most prominent practices in this research study were “Acts Authentically” and “Shares Leadership,” but these practices were only slightly higher than the others.

The data supported a conclusion that the workforce of the responding organizations believed their leadership was authentic and shared its leadership authority. The data also supported that the workforce believed the leadership of the organizations valued people, developed people, built community, and provided leadership.

Geller (1985) believed that police organizations were in dire need of changing their leadership style from autocratic leadership toward a leadership style that shares leadership to achieve its goals. Perhaps, as a result of equal distribution of each of Laub’s (1999) six constructs, the responding law enforcement agencies are beginning to change their leadership to embrace servant leadership.

Furthermore, the data indicated that the responding law enforcement agencies are typical to the organizations analyzed in Laub’s (1999) field study, and subsequent work. This finding does not support Koehler and Pankowski’s (1997) assertion that government leadership and for-profit leadership differ significantly. In fact, the findings of this study indicate that the leadership of the responding agencies is typical with other types of organizations.

Research Question Three

Research question three asked: Is there a perception gap—a difference between the law enforcement leader's view of the organizational health and the workers' view of the organizational health?

The analysis of the data indicated that top leaders hold a higher opinion of the organization's health than do the management and the workforce.

Implications

This study supported Laub's (1999) findings that the OLA is a viable tool for servant leadership research. Furthermore, the research asserted that the responding law enforcement organizations are moving in the direction toward servant led organizations and away from the stereotypical autocratic organizations. Although the current OLA assessment predicted that overall the responding law enforcement organizations are Positive Paternalistic, this is a long way from the perceived paramilitary-autocratic form of organization as described in the literature.

Organizations of any size can use the OLA to assess their strengths and weaknesses on their trek toward servant leadership. By using the OLA the top leadership of a single organization can determine what steps to take specific to the six constructs and what particular group within the organization to target to achieve its goal toward a more healthy organization.

With regards to conclusions specific to law enforcement, the OLA is a valuable tool that provides rare insight into the leadership among this "closed"

profession. Literature specific to this profession is miniscule and indicated that the type of leadership employed among these organizations is less than positive.

The perception as denoted in the literature review of law enforcement organizations is that of a paramilitary group void of the constructs denoted by the OLA. The OLA constructs are—valuing people, developing people, building community, acting authentically, providing leadership, and sharing leadership. Contrary to the literature review, this research study revealed that the opposite is true for the responding leaders.

This study examined twelve law enforcement organizations and an analysis of the data from eight agencies who participated by returning the OLA test and retest determined that overall the responding law enforcement agencies are not led by autocratic leaders. In fact, these agencies are defined by the OLA as Positive Paternalistic, that is a leadership that encourages a more collaborative approach. Laub (1999) suggested employees are encouraged to share ideas for improving the organization. However, the power is still divvied out to specific positions and only for certain tasks.

The research indicated the responding law enforcement leaders have more work ahead of them before these organizations are defined as servant led. However, the research does indicate that these organizations are far from the perception described in literature.

Suggestions for Future Research

In addition to the continued validation studies of the OLA, there are a number of research questions that may be examined. These questions include, but are not limited to the following:

1. Is there a perception gap between top leadership and the management/workforce?
2. Do servant led organizations respond to the needs of the community better than non-servant led organizations?
3. What effect does training an organization on the six constructs of the OLA have on changing the leadership of these organizations?
4. What leadership training needs to be taught to help law enforcement leaders to continue the trek toward servant leadership?
5. Will the pressures of a post -9/11 world impact law enforcement leadership and change their leadership practices?
6. If an impact from 9/11 exists, will this increase or decrease servant leadership practices among law enforcement agencies?

In addition to these questions, further opportunities exist in the examination of government leadership. For instance, relationships between local and state governments, or the relationships between the various political parties are areas that may have relevance. An additional area of consideration may be to use the OLA to develop a fit between organizations and potential leadership

candidates. The aim of this research study is to help promote ongoing research in this field.

Conclusions

This research study was undertaken for two reasons. First, the research aim was to continue the validation process of the Organizational Leadership Assessment, and second, to explore the leadership of law enforcement. To date, little has been written on leadership specific to law enforcement. This research study seeks to begin the process to fill a void with respect to the research that targets this small segment of leaders.

Since the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, much attention focuses on law enforcement and their leadership. In addition, much remains to be learned about the leaders who hold these positions. Luke reminds us, “Every one to whom much is given, of him will much be required” (12:48), and law enforcement leaders are given the responsibility to secure our communities.

There remains a great opportunity to continue the exploration of servant leadership and to continue the exploration of law enforcement leadership. The law enforcement servant leader is able to incorporate the needs of the organization with the needs of the community to accomplish great things. The Bible reminds us of the importance of servant leadership and the blessedness of those who serve as peacemakers.

> He who is greatest among you shall be your servant; whoever exalts himself will be humbled, and whoever humbles himself will be exalted. (Matthew 23: 11-12)

> Blessed are the peacemakers, for they shall be called sons of God. Blessed are those who are persecuted for righteousness' sake, for theirs is the kingdom of heaven. Blessed are you when men revile you and persecute you and utter all kinds of evil against you falsely on my account. Rejoice and be glad, for your reward is great in heaven, for so men persecuted the prophets who were before you. You are the salt of the earth; but if salt has lost its taste, how shall its saltiness be restored? It is no longer good for anything except to be thrown out and trodden under foot by men. You are the light of the world. A city set on a hill cannot be hid. Nor do men light a lamp and put it under a bushel, but on a stand, and it gives light to all in the house. Let your light so shine before men, that they may see your good works and give glory to your Father who is in heaven. (Luke 5:9-16)

Drawing from these two passages of scripture, those who serve as law enforcement leaders must be the *Salt and Light* in this world for others to follow – true servant leaders.

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APPENDIX A

Organizational Leadership Assessment Constructs and Law Enforcement Leadership Practices

Display Authenticity	*Saunders (1970); Turriff (1997); Wurschmidt (1992)*
Value People	*Geller and Swanger (1995); Lober (2002); Stone and DeLuca (1985); Anderson (1999)*
Develop People	*Brewer (2002); Reiter (1999); Stone and DeLuca (1985); Anderson (1999)*
Build Community	*Peak and Glensor (1999); Goldstein (1990); Kappeler (1995); Kelling (1989)*
Provide Leadership	*Anderson (1999); Brewer (2002); Downs (1999); Geller (1985); Hanna (1990); Mayo (1983); Roberg, Kuykendall, and Novak (2002); Smith and Brantner (2001); Stone and DeLuca (1985)*
Share Leadership	*Anderson (1999); Geller and Swanger (1995); Hunt (1993)*

APPENDIX B

Demographic Information

Please check the appropriate category for the following information:

AGE

_____Under 30 _____50-60

_____30-40 _____Over 60

_____40-50

GENDER

_____Male _____Female

ETHNICITY/RACE

_____American Indian or Alaska Native

_____Asian

_____Black or African American

_____Hispanic or Latino

_____Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander

_____White/Caucasian

LENGTH OF TIME WITH ORGANIZATION

_____Less than 1-year _____7-10 years

_____1-2 years _____ 10-15 years

_____3-5 years _____ 15-20 years

_____5-7 years _____ Over 20 years

TYPE OF ORGANIZATION

_____College/University

_____Municipal

_____County

_____State

_____Federal

ORGANIZATIONAL SIZE (SWORN OFFICERS ONLY)

_____Under 25 _____101-200

_____25-50 _____201-300

_____50-100 _____Over 301

HIGHEST DEGREE RECEIVED

_____High School Diploma/GED _____Masters

_____Bachelors _____Doctoral

_____Other (please indicate) _____

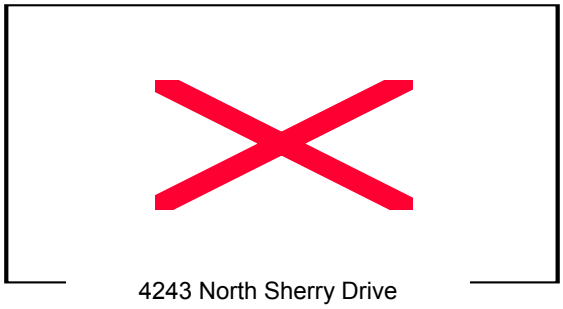
Please list your name, phone number, and/or email address if I can contact you for further information.

_____

_____

APPENDIX C

Organizational Leadership Assessment Research Instrument



Organizational Leadership Assessment

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General Instructions

The purpose of this instrument is to allow organizations to discover how their leadership practices and beliefs impact the different ways people function within the organization. This instrument is designed to be taken by people at all levels of the organization including workers, managers and top leadership. As you respond to the different statements, please answer as to what you believe is generally true about your organization or work unit. Please respond with your own personal feelings and beliefs and not those of others, or those that others would want you to have. Respond as to how things *are* … not as they could be, or should be.

Feel free to use the full spectrum of answers (from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree). You will find that some of the statements will be easy to respond to while others may require more thought. If you are uncertain, you may want to answer with your first, intuitive response. Please be honest and candid. The response we seek is the one that most closely represents your feelings or beliefs about the statement that is being considered. There are three different sections to this instrument. Carefully read the brief instructions that are given prior to each section. Your involvement in this assessment is anonymous and confidential.

Before completing the assessment it is important to fill in the name of the organization or organizational unit being assessed. If you are assessing an organizational unit (department, team or work unit) rather than the entire organization you will respond to all of the statements in light of that work unit.

IMPORTANT ….. please complete the following

Write in the name of the organization or organizational unit (department, team or work unit) you are assessing with this instrument.

Organization (or Organizational Unit) **Name**: _____

Indicate **your present role/position** in the organization or work unit. Please **circle one**.

1 = Top Leadership (top level of leadership) – Chief of Police

2 = Management (supervisor, manager) – Assistant Chief, Major, Captain

3 = Workforce (staff, member, worker) – Lieutenant, Sergeant, Corporal, Officer, Civilian Staff

Please provide your response to each statement by placing an **X** in one of the five boxes

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	**Strongly Agree**

Section 1 In this section, please respond to each statement as you believe it applies to **the entire organizatio** (or organizational unit) including workers, managers/supervisors and top leadership.

In general, people within this organization ….

		1	2	3	4	5
1	Trust each other					
2	Are clear on the key goals of the organization					
3	Are non-judgmental – they keep an open mind					
4	Respect each other					
5	Know where this organization is headed in the future					
6	Maintain high ethical standards					
7	Work well together in teams					
8	Value differences in culture, race & ethnicity					
9	Are caring & compassionate towards each other					
10	Demonstrate high integrity & honesty					
11	Are trustworthy					

12	Relate well to each other					
13	Attempt to work with others more than working on their own					
14	Are held accountable for reaching work goals					
15	Are aware of the needs of others					
16	Allow for individuality of style and expression					
17	Are encouraged by supervisors to share in making *important* decisions					
18	Work to maintain positive working relationships					
19	Accept people as they are					
20	View conflict as an opportunity to learn & grow					
21	Know how to get along with people					

Please provide your response to each statement by placing an **X** in <u>one</u> of the five boxes

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

Managers/Supervisors and Top Leadership in this Organization		**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
22	Communicate a clear vision of the future of the organization					

Section 2 In this next section, please respond to each statement as you believe it applies to the **leadership** of the organization (or organizational unit) including managers/supervisors and top leadership

23	Are open to learning from those who are *below* them in the organization					
24	Allow workers to help determine where this organization is headed					
25	Work alongside the workers instead of separate from them					
26	Use persuasion to influence others instead of coercion or force					
27	Don't hesitate to provide the leadership that is needed					
28	Promote open communication and sharing of information					
29	Give workers the power to make *important* decisions					
30	Provide the support and resources needed to help workers meet their goals					
31	Create an environment that encourages learning					
32	Are open to receiving criticism & challenge from others					
33	Say what they mean, and mean what they say					

34	Encourage each person to exercise leadership					
35	Admit personal limitations & mistakes					
36	Encourage people to take risks even if they may fail					
37	Practice the same behavior they expect from others					
38	Facilitate the building of community & team					
39	Do not demand special recognition for being leaders					
40	Lead by example by modeling appropriate behavior					
41	Seek to influence others from a positive relationship rather than from the authority of their position					
42	Provide opportunities for all workers to develop to their full potential					
43	Honestly evaluate themselves before seeking to evaluate others					
44	Use their power and authority to benefit the workers					
45	Take appropriate action when it is needed					

Please provide your response to each statement by placing an **X** in <u>one</u> of the five boxes

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

Managers/Supervisors and Top Leadership in this Organization		**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
46	Build people up through encouragement and affirmation					
47	Encourage workers to work *together* rather than competing against each other					
48	Are humble – they do not promote themselves					
49	Communicate clear plans & goals for the organization					
50	Provide mentor relationships in order to help people grow professionally					
51	Are accountable & responsible to others					
52	Are receptive listeners					
53	Do not seek after special status or the “perks” of leadership					
54	Put the needs of the workers ahead of their own					

Section 3 In this next section, please respond to each statement as you believe it is true about **you personally** and **your role** in the organization (or organizational unit).

In viewing my own role …		**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
55	I feel appreciated by my supervisor for what I contribute					
56	I am working at a high level of productivity					
57	I am listened to by those *above* me in the organization					
58	I feel good about my contribution to the organization					
59	I receive encouragement and affirmation from those *above* me in the organization					
60	My job is important to the success of this organization					
61	I trust the leadership of this organization					
62	I enjoy working in this organization					
63	I am respected by those *above* me in the organization					
64	I am able to be creative in my job					
65	In this organization, a person's *work* is valued more than their *title*					
66	I am able to use my best gifts and abilities in my job					